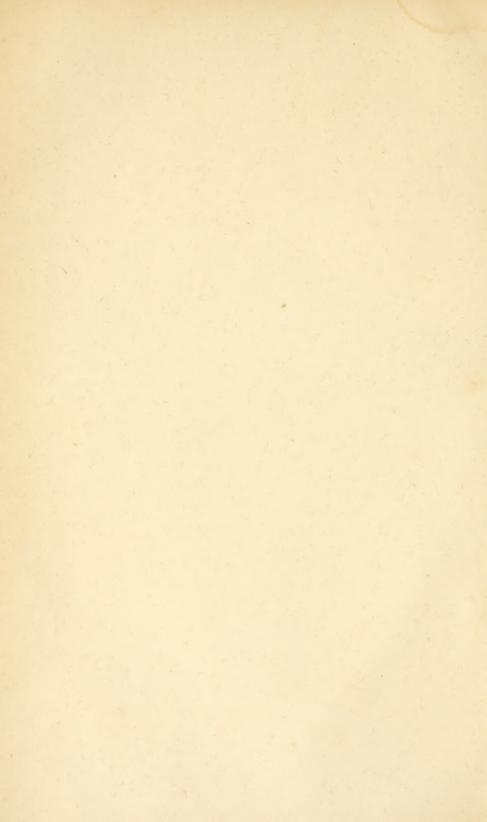


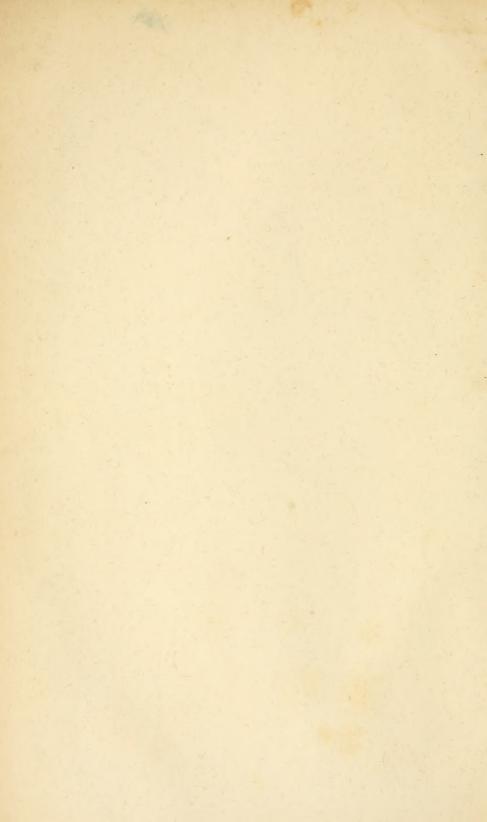
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ENGLISH SYNONYMES,

WITH

COPIOUS ILLUSTRATIONS AND EXPLANATIONS.

DRAWN FROM THE BEST WRITERS.

BY GEORGE CRABB, M.A.,

AUTHOR OF THE "UNIVERSAL TECHNOLOGICAL DICTIONARY," AND THE "UNIVERSAL HISTORICAL DICTIONARY."

Tenth Boition.

FROM THE LAST QUARTO EDITION.

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PREFACE

TO

THE FIRST EDITION.

It may seem surprising that the English, who have employed their talents successfully in every branch of literature, and in none more than in that of philology, should yet have fallen below other nations in the study of their synonymes: it cannot however be denied that, while the French and Germans have had several considerable works on the subject, we have not a single writer who has treated it in a scientifick manner adequate to its importance: not that I wish by this remark to depreciate the labours of those who have preceded me; but simply to assign it as a reason why I have now been induced to some forward with an attempt to fill up what is considered a chasm in English literature.

In the prosecution of my undertaking, I have profited by every thing which has been written in any language upon the subject; and although I always pursued my own train of thought, yet whenever I met with any thing deserving of notice, I adopted it, and referred it to the author in a note. I had not proceeded far before I found it necessary to restrict myself in the choice of my materials; and accordingly laid it down as a rule not to compare any words together which were sufficiently distinguished from each other by striking features in their signification, such as abandon and quit, which require a comparison with others, though not necessarily with themselves; for the same reason I thought fit to limit myself, as a rule, to one authority for each word, unless where the case seemed to require farther exemplification.

Although a work of this description does not afford much scope for system and arrangement, yet I laid down to myself the plan of arranging the words according to the extent or universality of their acceptation, placing those first which had the most general sense and application, and the rest in order. By this plan I found myself greatly aided in analyzing their differences, and I trust that the reader will thereby be equally benefited. In the choice of authorities I have been guided by various considerations; namely, the appropriateness of the examples; the classick purity of the author; the justness of the sentiment; and, last of all, the variety of the writers: but I am persuaded that the reader will not be dissatisfied to find that I have shown a decided preference to such authors as Addison, Johnson, Dryden, Pope, Milton, &c. At the same time it is but just to observe that this selection of authorities has been made by an actual perusal of the authors, without the assistance of Johnson's dictionary.

For the sentiments scattered through this work I offer no apology, although I am aware that they will not fall in with the views of many who may be com-

petent to decide on its literary merits. I write not to please or displease any description of persons; but I trust that what I have written according to the dictates of my mind will meet the approbation of those whose good opinion I am most solicitous to obtain. Should any object to the introduction of morality in a work of science, I beg them to consider, that a writer, whose business it was to mark the nice shades of distinction between words closely allied, could not do justice to his subject without entering into all the relations of society, and showing, from the acknowledged sense of many moral and religious terms, what has been the general sense of mankind on many of the most important questions which have agitated the world. My first object certainly has been to assist the philological inquirer in ascertaining the force and comprehension of the English language; yet I should have thought my work but half completed had I made it a mere register of verbal distinctions. While others seize every opportunity unblushingly to avow and zealously to propagate opinions destructive of good order, it would ill become any individual of contrary sentiments to shrink from stating his convictions, when called upon as he seems to be by an occasion like that which has now offered itself. As to the rest, I throw myself on the indulgence of the publick, with the assurance that, having used every endeavour to deserve their approbation, I shall not make an appeal to their candour in vain.

ADVERTISEMENT

TO THE LONDON QUARTO EDITION.

A

A FOURTH edition of the English Synonymes having now become desirable, the Author has for some time past occcupied himself in making such additions and improvements, as he deems calculated materially to enhance its value as a work of criticism. The alphabetical arrangement of the words is exchanged for one of a more scientified character, arising from their alliance in sense or from the general nature of the subjects: thus affording the advantage of a more connected explanation of terms, more or less allied to each other. At the same time the purpose of reference is more fully answered by an index so copious that the reader may immediately turn to the particular article sought for. The subject matter of several articles has been considerably enlarged, and such amplifications admitted as may serve to place the Synonymes in a clearer point of view, particularly by comparing them with the corresponding words in the original languages whence they are derived. The English quotations have likewise undergone several alterations both in their number and order, so as to adapt them to the other changes which have been introduced throughout the work.

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manity, kindness, tenderness	00	TIRESOME—wearisome, tiresome, tedious	
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lmte, contribution 168	UNDAUNTED-bold, fearless, undaunted, intre-
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uniform 435	sume, ascribe
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TO UNITE—to add, join, unite, coalesce 418	TO UTTER-to utter, speak, articulate, pro-
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ble, irrefragable 114	TO VANQUISH-to conquer, vanquish, subdue,
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ENGLISH SYNONYMES

EXPLAINED.

SOUL, MIND.

THESE terms, or the equivalents to them, have been employed by all civilized nations to designate that part employed by all civilized nations to designate that part of human nature which is distinct from matter. The Soul, however, from the German scele, &c. and the Greek $\zeta \dot{a} \omega_0$, to live, like the anima of the Latin, which comes from the Greek $\dot{a} v \varepsilon \mu \omega_0$, wind or breath, is represented to our minds by the subtilest or most ethereal of sensible objects, namely, breath or spirit, and denotes properly the quickening or vital principle. Mind, on the contrary, from the Greek $\mu \dot{\epsilon} v \omega_0$, which signifies strength, is that sort of power which is closely allied to, and in a great measure dependant upon, corporate or and in a great measure dependant upon, corporeal or ganization: the former is, therefore, the immortal, and the latter the mortal, part of us; the former connects us with angels, the latter with brutes; in this latter we distinguish nothing but the power of receiving impressions from external objects, which we call ideas, and which we have in common with the brutes.

There are minute philosophers, who, from their ex-There are minute pharosophers, woo, from their ex-treme anxiety after truth, deny that we possess any thing more than what this poor composition of flesh and blood can give us; and yet, methinks, sound philosophy would teach us that we ought to prove the truth of one position, before we assert the falsehood of its opposite; and consequently, that if we deny that we have any and consequently, that it we deny that we have any thing but what is material in us, we ought first to prove that the material is sufficient to produce the reasoning faculty of man. Now it is upon this very impossibility of finding any thing in matter as an adequate cause for the production of the soul, that it is conceived to be an entirely distinct principle. If we had only the mind, that is, an aggregate of ideas or sensible images, such as is possessed by the brutes, it would be no difficulty to conceive of this as purely material, since the act of receiving images is but a passive act, suited to the inactive property of matter: but when the *soul* turns in upon itself, and creates for itself by abstraction, combination, and deduction, a world of new objects, it proves itself to be the most active of all principles in the universe; it then positively acts upon matter instead of being acted upon by it.

But not to lose sight of the distinction drawn between the words soul and mind, I simply $v_{\mathbf{i}}$ sh to show that the vulgar and the philosophical use of these terms altogether accord, and are both founded on the true nature of things. Poets and philosophers speak of the sout in the same strain, as the active and living principle;

Man's soul in a perpetual motion flows, And to no outward cause that motion owes.

DENHAY. In bashful coyness, or in maiden pride The soft return conceal'd, save when it stole In side-long glances from her downcast eyes,

Or from her swelling soul in stifled sighs

'The soul consists of many faculties, as the under standing, and the will, with all the senses, both outward and inward; or, to speak more philosophically, the soul can exert herself in many different ways of action."—
Addison. The ancients, though unaided by the light of divine revelation, yet represented the soul as a distinct principle. The Psyche of the Greeks, which was the name they gave to the human soul, was feigned to be one of their incorporeal or celestial beings. The anima of the Latins was taken precisely in the modern sense of the soul, by which it was distinguished from the snimus or mind. Thus the emperour Adrian is said on his dying bed to have addressed his soul in words which clearly denote what he thought of its independent existence.

> Animula vagula, blandula, Quæ nunc abibis in loca? Hospes comesque corporis, Pallidula, rigida, undula, Nec (ut soles) dabis joca!

The mind being considered as an attribute to the soul, is taken sometimes for one faculty, and sometimes for another; as for the understanding, when we say a person is not in his right mind;

I am a very foolish, fond old man; I fear I am not in my perfect mind.—SHAKSPEARE. Sometimes for the intellectual power;

I thought the eternal mind Had made us masters .- DRYDEN.

Or for the intellectual capacity;

We say that learning's endless, and blame fate For not allowing life a longer date, He did the utmost bounds of knowledge find, He found them not so large as was his mind. COWLEY.

Or for the imagination or conception; 'In the judgment of Aristotle and Bacon, the true poet forms his imi-tations of nature after a model of ideal perfection, which perhaps has no existence but in his own mind.'—

Sometimes the word mind is employed to denote the operations of the thinking faculty, the thoughts or opinions:

The ambiguous god, In these mysterious words his mind express'd, Some truths revealed, in terms involved the rest. DRYDEN.

The earth was not of my mind If you suppose, as fearing you, it shook. SHAKSPEARK.

Or the will, choice, determination, as in the colloquial Or the will, choice, determination, as in the colloqual phrase to have a mind to do a thing; 'All the arguments to a good life will be very insignificant to a man that hath a mind to be wicked, when remission of sins may be had on such cheapterms.'—Titlorson. 'Our question is, whether all be sin which is done without direction by Scripture, and not whether the Israelites did at any time amiss by following their own minds without asking counsel of God.'—Hooker.

Sometimes it stands for the memory, as in the fa-miliar expressions to call to mind, put in mind, &c.; 'The king knows their disposition; a small touch will put him in mind of them.'—BACON.

These, and more than I to mind can bring, Menalcas has not yet forgot to sing.'-DRYDEN.

'They will put him in mind of his own waking thoughts, ere these dreams had as yet made their impressions on his fancy.'-ATTERBURY.

A wholesome law, time out of mind; Had been confirm'd by fate's decree.'—Swift.

Lastly, the mind is considered as the seat of all the faculties; 'Every faculty is a distinct taste in the mind, and hath objects accommodated to its proper relisht.'ADDISON. And also of the passions or affections;

E'en from the body's purity, the mind Receives a secret sympathetick aid.—Thomson.

'This word, being often used for the soul giving life, is attributed abusively to madmen, when we say that they are of a distracted mind, instead of a broken understanding; which word mind we use also for opinion, as I am of this or that mind; and sometimes for men's conditions or virtues, as he is of an honest mind, or a man of a just mind; sometimes for affection, as I do this for my mind's sake; &c.—RALEIGH.

for men's conditions of virtues, as he is of an inonest mind, or a man of a just mind; sometimes for affection, as I do this for my mind's sake, &c.—RALBIGH.

The soul, being the better part of a man, is taken for the man's self, as Horace says, in allusion to his friend Virgil, 'Et serves anima dimidium mea:' hence the term is figuratively extended in its application to denote a human being; 'The moral is the case of every soul of us.'—L'ESTRANGE. It is a republick; there are in it a hundred burgeois, and about a thousand souls; 'The poor soul-sat singing by a sycamore tree.'—SHAKSPEARE. Or the individual in general:

r the marvidual in general;

Join voices, all ye living souls. Ye birds That singing up to heaven-gate ascend Bear on your wings, and in your notes, his praise. Milton.

Also what is excellent, the essential or principal part of a thing, the spirit; 'Thou sun, of this great world both eye and soud.'—Milton. 'He has the very soul of bounty.'—Siakspeare.

There is some soul of goodness in things evil,
 Would men observingly distil it out.—Shakspeare.

INCORPOREAL, UNBODIED, IMMATERIAL, SPIRITUAL.

Incorporeal, from corpus, a body, marks the quality of not belonging to the body, or having any properties in common with it; unbodied denotes the state of being without the body, or not enclosed in a body; a thing may therefore be incorporeal without being unbodied; but not vice versa; the soul of man is incorporeal, but not unbodied, during his natural life;

Th' unbodied spirit flies
And lodges where it lights in man or beast.

DRYDEN.

.Incorporeal is used in regard to Eving things, particularly by way of comparison, with corporeal or human

Of sense, whereby they hear, see, smell, touch, taste, Tasting, concoct, digest, assimilate,
And corporeal to incorporeal turn.—Milton.

Hence we speak of incorporeal agency, or incorporeal agents, in reference to such beings as are supposed to act in this world without the help of the body; 'Sense and perception must necessarily proceed from some incorporeal substance within us.'—Benyley. But immaterial is applied to inanimate objects;

O thou great arbiter of life and death,
Nature's immortal, immaterial sun!
Thy call I follow to the land unknown.—Young.

Men are corporeal as men, spirits are incorporeal; the body is the material part of man, the soul his immaterial part: whatever external object acts upon the senses is material; but the action of the mind on itself, and its results are all immaterial; the earth, sun, moon, &c. are termed material; but the impressions which they make on the mind, that is, our ideas of them, are immaterial.

The incorporeal and immalerial have always a relative sense; the spiritual is that which is positive: God is a spiritual, not properly an incorporeal nor immalerial being: the angels are likewise designated, in general, as the spiritual inhabitants of Heaven; 'All creatures, as well spiritual as corporeal, declare their absolute dependance upon the first author of all beings, the only self-existent God.'—Bentley. Although, when spoken of in regard to men, they may be denominated incorporeal;

Thus incorporeal spirits to smallest forms Reduced their shapes immense.—MILTON.

The epithet spiritual has, however, been improperly or figuratively applied to objects in the sense of immaterial; 'Echo is a great argument of the spiritual essence of sounds; for if it were corporeal, the repercussion should be created by like instruments with the original sound.'—BAOON.

SPIRITUOUS, SPIRITUAL, GHOSTLY.

Spirituous signifies having the spirit separated from the gross particles of the body, after the manner of spirituous identify. The spirituous and benign matter most apt for generation.'—SMITH on Old Age. Spirited is applicable to the animal spirits of either men or brutes; a person or a horse may be spirited; and also in a moral application in the sense of vivacious, or calculated to rouse the spirit; 'Dryden's translation of Virgil is noble and spirited.—Pope. What is spiritual is after the manner of a spirit; and what is ghostly is like a ghost; although originally the same in meaning, the former being derived from the Latin spiritus, and the latter from the German geist, and both signifying what is not corporeal, yet they have acquired a difference of application. Spiritual objects are distinguished generally from those of sense; 'Virginity is better than the married life, not that it is more holy, but that it is a freedom from cares, an opportunity to spend more time in spiritual employments.'—TAYLOG, Holy Living). Hence it is that the word spiritual is opposed to the temporal; 'She loves them as her spiritual children, and they reverence her as their spiritual mother, with an affection far above that of the fondest friend.'—Law.

Thou art reverend,
Touching thy spiritual function, not thy life.
SHAKSPEARE.

Ghostly is more immediately opposed to the carnal or the secular, and is therefore a term of more solemn import than spiritual; 'The grace of the spirit is much more precious than worldly benefits, and our ghostly evils of greater inportance than harm which the body feeleth.'—Hooker. 'To deny me the ghostly comfort of my chaplains seems a greater barbarity than is ever used by Christians.'—K. Charles.

UNDERSTANDING, INTELLECT, INTELLIGENCE.

Understanding being the Saxon word, is employed to describe a familiar and easy operation of the mind in forming distinct ideas of things. Intellect, which is of Latin derivation, is employed to mark the same operation in regard to higher and more abstruse objects. The understanding applies to the first exercise of the rational powers: it is therefore aptly said of children and savages that they employ their understandings on the simple objects of perception; a child uses his understanding to distinguish the dimensions of objects, or to apply the right names to the things that come before his notice; 'By understanding I mean that faculty whereby we are enabled to apprehend the objects of knowledge, generals as well as particulars, absent things as well as present, and to judge of their truth or falsehood, good or evil; "WILKINS.

Intellect, being a matured state of the understanding, is most properly applied to the efforts of those who have their powers in full vigour: we speak of understanding as the characteristick distinction between man and brute; 'The light within us is (since the fall) become darkness; and the understanding, that should be eyes to the blind faculty of the will, is blind itself.'—South. But human beings are distinguished from each other by the measure of their intellect; 'All those arts and inventions which vulgar minds gaze at, the ingenious pursue, and all admire, are but the relicks of an intellect defaced with sin and time.'—South. We may expect the youngest children to employ an understanding according to the opportunities which they have of using their senses; one is gratified in seeing great intellect in youth.

Intellect and intelligence are derived from the same word; but intellect describes the power itself, and intelligence the exercise of that power: the intellect may be hidden, but the intelligence brings it to light;

Silent as the ecstatick bliss
Of souls, that by intelligence converse.—OTWAY.

Hence we speak of intelligence as displayed in the countenance of a child whose looks evince that he has exerted his intellect, and thereby proved that it exists Hence it arises that the word intelligence has been employed in the sense of knowledge or information, because these are the express fruits of intelligence: we

must know by means of intelligence; but we may be

ignorant with a great share of intellect.

Understanding and intelligence admit of comparison in the sense of acquaintance between two or more persons as to each other's views, and a consequent harmony and concert; but the former term is applied to the ordinary concerns of life, and the harmonious intercourse of men, as in the phrase to be on terms of a good understanding; 'He hoped the loyalty of his subjects would concur with him in the preserving a good understanding between him and his subjects.'—CLA-RENDON. Intelligence, on the other hand, is particularly applicable to persons who, being obliged to cooperate at a distance from each other, hold a commerce of information, or get to understand each other by means of mutual information; 'It was perceived that there had not been in the Catholicks so much foresight as to provide that true intelligence might pass between them of what was done.'—Hooker.

Let all the passages
Be well secured, that no intelligence
May pass between the prince and them.—Denham.

INTELLECT, GENIUS, TALENT.

Intellect, in Latin intellectus, from intellige, to understand, signifying the gift of understanding, as opposed to mere instinct or impulse, is here the generick term, as it includes in its own meaning that of the two others: there cannot be genius or talent without intellect; but there may be intellect without genius or talent; at man of intellect distinguishes himself from the common herd of mankind, by the acuteness of his observation, the accuracy of his judgement, the originality of his conceptions, and other peculiar attributes of mental power; genius, in Latin genius, from gigno, to be born, signifying that which is peculiarly born with us, is a particular bent of the intellect, which distinguishes a man from every other individual; talent, which from \tau\alpha

We consider intellect as it generally respects speculation and abstraction; but genius as it respects the operations of the imagination; talent as it respects the exercise or acquirements of the mind. A man of intellect may be a good writer; but it requires a genius for poetry to be a poet, a genius for painting to be a painter, a genius for sculpture to be a statuary, and the like: it requires a talent to learn languages; it requires a talent for the stage to be a good actor; some have a talent for intration, others a talent for humour. Intellect, in its strict sense, is seen only in a mature state; genius or talent may be discovered in its earliest dawn: we speak in general of the intellect of a man only; but we may speak of the genius or talent of a vouth: intellect qualifies a person for conversation, and affords him great enjoyment; 'There was a select set, supposed to be distinguished by superiority of intellects, who always passed the evening together.'—Johnson. Genius qualifies a person for the most exalted efforts of the human mind; 'Thomson thinks in a peculiar train, and always thinks as a man of genius.'—Johnson. Talent qualifies a person for the active duties and employments of life; 'It is commonly thought that the sagacity of these fathers (the Jesuits) in discovering the talent of a young student, has not a little contributed to the figure which their order has made in the world.'—Buorekil.

GIFT, ENDOWMENT, TALENT.

Gift and endowment both refer to the act of giving and endowing, and of course include the idea of some-

thing given, and something received: the word talent conveys no such collateral idea. When we speak of a gift, we refer in our minds to a giber;

But Heaven its gifts not all at once bestows,
These years with wisdom crowns, with action those.
POPR

When we speak of an endowment, we refer in our minds to the receiver; 'A brute arrives at a point of perfection that he can never pass; in a few years he has all the endowments he is capable of.'—Appison. When we speak of a talent (v. Intellect) we only think of its intrinsick quality or worth; 'Mr. Locke has an admirable reflection upon the difference of wit and judgement, whereby he endeavours to show the reason. why they are not always the talents of the same person.'—Appison.

son.'—Addison.

The gift is either supernatural or natural; the endowment is only natural. The primitive Christians; received various gifts through the inspiration of the, Holy Spirit, as the gift of tongues, the gift of healing, &c. There are some men who have a peculiar gift of utterance; beauty of person, and corporal agility, are condomnents with which some are peculiarly invested.

endownents with which some are peculiarly invested. The word gift excludes the idea of any thing acquired by evertion; it is that which is communicated to us altogether independent of ourselves, and enablest us to arrive at that perfection in any art which could not be attained in any other way. Speech is deno minated a general gift, inasmuch as it is given to the whole human race in distinction from the brutes; but the gift of interance is a peculiar gift granted to individuals, in distinction from others, which may be exerted for the benefit of mankind. Endowments, though inherent in us, are not independent of exertions; they are qualities which admit of improvement, by being used; they are in fact the gifts of nature, which serve to adorn and elevate the possessor, when employed for a good purpose. Talents are either natural or acquired, or in some measure of a mixed natura; they denote powers without specifying the source from which they proceed; a man may have a talent for musick, for drawing, for minickry, and the like; but this talent may be the fruit of practice and experience, as much as of nature.

It is clear from the above that an endowment is a gift, but a gift is not always an endowment; and that a talent may also be either a gift or an endowment, but that it is frequently distinct from both. A gift or a talent is applicable to corporeal as well as spiritual actions; an endowment is applicable to corporeal or mental qualities. To write a superiour hand is a gift, inasmuch as it is supposed to be unattainable by any force of application and instruction; it is a talent, inasmuch as it is a power or property worth our possession; but it is never an endowment. On the other hand, courage, discerment, a strong imagination, and the like, are both gifts and endowments; and when the intellectual endowment displays itself in any creative form, as in the case of poetry, musick, or any art, so as to produce that which is valued and esteemed, it, becomes a talent to the possessor.

ABILITY, CAPACITY.

Ability, in French habilité, Latin habilitas, comes from able, habile, habilis, and habeo to have, because, possession and power are inseparable. Capacity, in French capacité, Latin capacitas, from capax and capie to receive, marks the abstract quality of being able to receive or hold.

Ability is to capacity as the genus to the species. Ability comprehends the power of doing in general without specifying the quality or degree; capacity is a.

particular kind of ability.

Ability may be either physical or mental, capacity, when said of persons, is mental only; 'Riches are of no use, if sickness taketh from us the ability of enjoying them.'—Swiff. 'In what I have done, I have rather given a proof of my willingness and desire, than of my ability to do him (Shakspeare) justice.'—Pors.

Ability respects action, capacity respects thought.

Ability respects action, capacity respects thought.

Ability always supposes something able to be done;

1 look upon an able statesman out of business like a
huge whale, that will endeavour to overturn the ship
unless he has an empty cask to play with.—Steele.

Capacity is a mental endowment, and always supposed

something ready to receive or hold; 'The object is too big for our capacity, when we would comprehend the ctrcumference of a world.'—Addison. Hence we say an able commander; an able statesman; a man of a capacious mind; a great capacity of thought.

Ability is in no wise limited in its extent; it may be

small or great;

Of singing thou hast got the reputation, Good Thyrsis; mine I yield to thy ability. My heart doth seek another estimation.—SIDNEY.

Capacity of itself always implies a positive and superiour degree of power; 'Sir Fralcis Bacon's capacity seemed to have grasped all that was revealed in books before.'—Hughes. Although it may be modified by epithets to denote different degrees; a boy of capacity will have the advantage over his school-fellows, particularly if he be classed with those of a dull capacity. A person may be able to write a letter, who is not capa A person may be able to write a letter, who is not capable of writing a book; 'St. Paul requireth learning in presbyters, yea, such learning as doth enable them to exhort in doctrine which is sound, and to disprove them that gainsay it. What measure of ability in such things shall serve to make men capable of that kind of office he doth not determine.—Hooker.

Abilities, when used in the plural only, is confined to the signification of mental endowments, and compre-hends the operations of thought in general; 'As for me, my abilities, if ever I had any, are not what they were.'—Atterbury. Capacity, on the other hand, is that peculiar endowment, that enlargement of understanding, that exalts the possessor above the rest of mankind: 'We sometimes repine at the narrow limits prescribed to human capacity. BEATTIE. Many men have the abilities for managing the concerns of others, who would not have the capacity for conducting a con cern of their own. We should not judge highly of that man's abilities who could only mar the plans of others, but had no capacity for conceiving and proposing any

thing better in their stead.

A vivid imagination, a retentive memory, an exuberant flow of language, are abilities which may be successfully employed in attracting popular applause I grieve that our senate is dwindled into a school of Thetorick, where men rise to display their abilities rather than to deliberate.'—SIR W. JONES. But that capacity which embraces a question in all its bearings, which surveys with a discriminating eye the mixed multitude of objects that demand attention, which is accompanied with coolness in reflecting, readiness in combining, quickness in inventing, firmness in deciding, promptitude in action, and penetration in discerning, that is the capacity to direct a state, which is the gift of but few; 'An heroick poem requires the accomplishment of some extraordinary undertaking, which requires the duty of a soldier, and the capacity and prudence of a general.' DRYDEN.

ABILITY, FACULTY, TALENT.

The common idea of power is what renders these words synonymous

Ability, as in the preceding article, signifies that which may be derived either from circumstances or otherwise: faculty, in Latin facultas, changed from facilitas facility, which signifies doableness, or the facilities, which signifies doableness, or the property of being able to do & bring about effects, is a power derived from nature; 'The vital faculty is that by which life is preserved and the ordinary functions of speech preserved; and the animal faculty is what conducts the operations of the mind.'—QUINCY. The faculty is a permanent possession; it is held by a certain tenure: the ability is an incidental possession; it is whatever we have while we have it at our disposal, but it may vary in degree and quality with times, persons, and circumstances; 'Ability to teach by sermons is a grace which God doth bestow on them whom he maketh sufficient for the commendable discharge of their duty!—HOOKER. The powers of seeing and hearing are faculties; health, strength, and fortune are christies. The fuculty is some specifick power which is directed to one single object; it is the power of acting according to a given form;

No fruit our palate courts, or flow'r our smell, But on its fragrant bosom nations dwell; All formed with proper faculties to share The daily bounties of their Maker's care. - JENYNS.

The ability is in general the power of doing; the The ability is in general the power of doing; the faculty therefore might, in the strict sense, be considered as a species of ability; 'Human ability is an unequal match for the violent and unforeseen vicissitudes of the world.'—Blair.

A man uses the faculties with which he is endowed, he gives according to his ability.

Faculty and talent both owe their being to nature;

but the faculty may be either physical or mental; the talent is altogether mental: the faculty of speech and the rational faculty are the grand marks of distinction between man and the brute; 'Reason is a noble faculty, and when kept within its proper sphere, and applied to useful purposes, proves a means of exaiting human creatures almost to the rank of superiour beings.

—Brattle. The talent of mimickry, of dramatick acting, and of imitation in general, is what distinguishes one man from the other:

> Tis not, indeed, my talent to engage In lofty trifles, or to swell my page With wind and noise .- DRYDEN

These terms are all used in the plural, agreeably to the above explanation; the abilities include, in the aggregate, whatever a man is able to do; hence we speak of a man's abilities in speaking, writing, learning, and the like; the faculties include all the endowing, and the like; the faculties include an the endowments of body and mind, which are the inherent properties of the being, as when we speak of a man's retaining his faculties, or having his faculties impaired: talents are the particular endowments of the mind, which belong to the individual; hence we say, the talents which are requisite for a minister of state. are different from those which qualify a man for being a judge.

ABILITY, DEXTERITY, ADDRESS.

Ability is here, as in the preceding articles, the generick term: dexterity, says the Abbe Girard,* respects the manner of executing things; it is the mechanical facility of performing an office: address refers to the use of or performing an omce: adaress reters to the use of means in executing; it signifies properly the mode of address or of managing one's self; dexterity and address are but in fact modes of ability.

Dexterity, in Latin dexteritas, comes from dexter, the right hand, because that it is the member most fitted for

desterous execution. Desterity may be acquired; 'His wisdom, by often evading from perils, was turned rather into a desterity to deliver himself from dangers rather into a destretty to deliver himself from dangers when they pressed him, than into a providence to prevent and remove them afar off."—Bacon. Address is the gift of nature; 'It was no sooner dark than she conveyed into his room a young maid of no disagreeable figure, who was one of her attendants, and did not want address to improve the opportunity for the advancement of her fortune.—Spectator.

advancement of her fortune.—Spectator.

We may have ability to any degree (v. Ability); 'It is not possible for our small party and small ability to extend their operations so far as to be much felt among such numbers."—Cowper. But dexterity and address are positive degrees of ability; 'It is often observed that the race is won as nuch by the dexterity of the rider as by the vigour and fleetness of the animal."—Earl or Bath. 'I could produce immunerable instances from dathers between the operation of events impured to the profund my own observation, of events imputed to the profound skill and address of a minister, which in reality were either mere effects of negligence, weakness, humour, or pride, or at best but the natural course of things left to themselves.'-Swift.

To form a good government there must be ability in the prince or his ministers; address in those to whom the detail of operations is intrusted; and dexterity in those to whom the execution of orders is confided. With little ability and long habit in transacting business, we may acquire a dexterity in despatching it, and address in giving it whatever turn will best suit our purpose.

Ability enables us to act with intelligence and confidence; dexterity lends an air of ease to every action; address supplies art and ingenuity in contrivance. manage the whip with desterity, to carry on an intrigue with address, to display some ability on the turf, will raise a man high in the rank of the present fashionables

^{*} Vide ' Dexterité, adresse, habilité.

CLEVER, SKILFUL, EXPERT, DEXTEROUS, ADROIT.

Clever, in French legere, Latin levis light, seems to denote quickness in the mental faculty; skilful signifies full of skill; and skill probably comes from the Latin sow to know; expert, in French experte, Latin expertus, participle of experior to search or try, signifies searched and tried; dexterous, in Latin dexter, in Greek δεξιτερδς, from δεξία the right hand, has the meaning of clever, because the right hand is the most fitted for action: adroit, in French adroite, Latin adrectus or rectus right or straight, signifies the quality of doing things in a right manner.

Clever and skilful are qualities of the mind; expertdexterous, and adroit, refer to modes of physical action. Cleverness regards in general the readiness to comprehend; skill the maturity of the judgement; expertness a facility in the use of things; dexierity a mechanical facility in the performance of any work; advoitness the suitable movements of the body. A person is clever at drawing who shows a taste for it, and executes it well without much instruction; he is skilful in drawing if he understands it both in theory and practice; he is expert in the use of the bow if he can use it with expedition and effect; he is dexterous at any game when he goes through the manœuvres with celerity and an unerring hand; he is adroit if by a quick, sudden, and well-directed movement of his body, he effects the object he has in view.

Cleverness is mental power employed in the ordinary concerns of life: a person is clever in business or

amusements:

My friends bade me welcome, but struck me quite dumb. With tidings that Johnson and Burke would not come 'And I knew it," he cried, "both eternally fail, The one at the House, and the other with Thrale But no matter; I'll warrant we'll make up the party, With two full as clever and ten times as hearty." GOLDSMITH

Skill is both a mental and corporeal power, exerted m mechanical operations and practical sciences; a physician, a lawyer, and an artist, are skilful: one may have a skill in divination, or a skill in painting. There is nothing more graceful than to see the play stand still for a few moments, and the audience kept m an agreeable suspense, during the silence of a skilful actor.'-Addison. Expertness and dexterity require more corporeal than mental power exerted in minor arts and amusements: one is expert at throwing the quoit; dexterous in the management of horses;

O'er bar and shelf the watery path they sound, With dext'rous arm, sagacious of the ground; Fearless they combat every hostile wind, Wheeling in many tracts with course inclin'd, Expert to moor where terrours line the road. FALCONER.

'He applied himself next to the coquette's heart, which he likewise laid open with great dexterity. ADDISON. Adroitness is altogether a corporeal talent. employed only as occasion may require: one is adroit at eluding the blows aimed by an adversary; 'Use yourself to carve advoitly and genteelly.'—Chesterfield.

Cleverness is rather a natural gift; skill is cleverness improved by practice and extended knowledge expertness is the effect of long practice; dexterity arises from habit combined with agility; adroitness is a species of dexterity arising from a natural agility and pliability of body.

INABILITY, DISABILITY.

Inability denotes the absence of ability (v. Ability) in the most general and abstract sense; 'It is not from inability to discover what they ought to do that men err in practice."—BLAIR. Disability implies the absence of ability only in particular cases: the inability lies in the nature of the thing, and is irremediable; the disability lies in the circumstances, and may sometimes be removed; weakness, whether physical or mental, will occasion an inability to perform a task; there is a total inability in an infant to walk and act like an adult: a want of knowledge or of the requisite quali fications may be a disability; in this manner mi-nority of age, or an objection to take certain oaths may be a disability for filling a publick office; 'Want of age is a legal disability to contract a mar riage.'—Blackstone.

INCAPABLE, INSUFFICIENT, INCOMPETENT, INADEQUATE.

Incapable, that is, not having capacity (v. Ability) insufficient, or not sufficient, or not having what is suf ficient; incompetent, or not competent; are employed either for persons or things: the first in a general, the last two in a specifick sense: inadequate or not adequate or equalled, is applied more generally to things

When a man is said to be incapable, it characterizes his whole mind; 'Were a human soul incapable of farther enlargements, I could imagine it might fall away insensibly.'-Addison. If he he said to have insufficiency and incompetency, it respects the particular objects to which he has applied his power: he may be insufficient or incompetent for certain things; but he may have a capacity for other things: the term incapacity, therefore, implies a direct charge upon the erstanding, which is not implied by the insufficiency and incompetency. An incapacity consists alto-gether of a physical defect: an insufficiency and in-competency are incidental defects: the former depending upon the age, the condition, the acquisitions, moral qualities, and the like, of the individual; the latter on the extent of his knowledge, and the nature of his studies; where there is direct incapacity, a person has no chance of making himself fit for any office or employment; 'It chiefly proceedeth from natural incapa-city, and general indisposition.'—Brown. Youth is and general musposition.—Drown. Youth is naturally accompanied with insufficiency to fill sta-tions which belong to mature age, and to perform offices which require the exercise of judgement; 'The minister's aptress, or *insufficiency*, otherwise than by reading, to instruct the flock, standeth in this place as a stranger, with whom our Common Prayer has nothing to do.'—HOOKER. A young person is, therefore, still more incompetent to form a fixed opinion on any one subject, because he can have made himself mas ter of none; 'Laymen, with equal advantages of parts, are not the most incompetent judges of sacred -DRYDEN.

Incapable is applied sometimes to the moral character, to signify the absence of that which is bad; insufficient and incompetent always convey the idea of a deficiency in that which is at least desirable: it is an honour to a person to be incapable of falsehood, or incapable of doing an ungenerous action; but to be insufficient and incompetent are, at all events, qualities not to be boasted of, although they may not be expressly disgraceful. These terms are likewise applicable to disgraceful. These terms are incense approach things, in which they preserve a similar distinction; infidelity is incapable of affording a man any comfort; when the means are insufficient for obtaining the ends, it is madness to expect success; it is a sad condition of humanity when a man's resources are incompetent to supply him with the first necessaries of life.

Inadequate is relative in its signification, like insufficient and incompetent; but the relation is different A thing is insufficient which does not suffice either for the wishes, the purposes, or necessities, of any one, in particular or in general cases; thus a quantity of materials may be insufficient for a particular building; 'The insufficiency of the light of nature is, by the light of Scripture, fully supplied.'—Hooker. Incompetency is an insufficiency for general purposes, in things of the first necessity; thus, an income may be incompetent to support a family, or perform an office; ' Every speck does not blind a man, nor does every infirmity make one unable to discern, or incompetent to reprove, the grosser faults of others.'—Government of the TONGUE. Inadequacy is still more particular, for it denotes any deficiency which is measured by comparison with the object to which it refers; thus, the strength of an animal may be inadequate to the labour which is required, or a reward may be inadequate to the service; 'All the attainments possible in our present state are evidently inadequate to our capacities of enjoyment.'—Johnson.

WIT, HUMOUR, SATIRE, IRONY, BURLESQUE.

Wit, like wisdom, according to its original, from weissen to know, signifies knowledge, but it has so

extended its meaning as to signify that faculty of the mind by which knowledge or truth is perceived. The first property of wit, as an exertion of the intellectual faculty, is that it be spontaneous, and as it were instinctive: laboured or forced vot is no voit. Reflection and experience supply us with wisdom; study and labour supply us with learning; but voit seizes with an eagle eye that which escapes the notice of the deep thinker, and elicits truths which are in vain sought for with any severe effort: 'Wit lies more in the asnor with any severe enort: With the more in the assemblage of ideas, and putting those together with quickness and variety.—Addison. Humour is a pecies of wit which flows out of the humour of a

person; For sure by wit is chiefly meant: Applying well what we invent: What humour is not, all the tribe Of logick-mongers can describe: Here nature only acts her part. Unhelp'd by practice, books, or art .- Swift.

Wit, as distinguished from humour, may consist of a single brilliant thought ;

In a true piece of wit all things must be, Yet all things there agree. - COWLEY

But humour runs in a vein; it is not a striking, but an equable and pleasing flow of wit; 'There is a kind of nature, a certain regularity of thought, which must discover the writer (of humour) to be a man of sense at the same time that he appears altogether given up to caprice '—Appison. Of this description of wit Mr. Addison has given us the most admirable specimens in his writings, who knew best how to explain what wit and humour were, and to illustrate them by his practice. Humour may likewise display itself in actions as well as words, whereby it is more strikingly distinguished from wit, which displays itself only in the happy exprovided the property of the p

compinment paid to his young wife (whom he made promise, on his dying bed, that she would not marry an old man again).—Pope.

Satire, from satyr, probably from sat and ira abounding in anger, and irony, from the Greek τορωνια simulation and dissimulation, are personal and censo rious sorts of wit; the first of which openly points at the object, and the second has constructed. the object, and the second in a covert manner takes its The ordinary subjects of satire are such as ex-Bim: cite the greatest indignation in the best tempers.'-'In writings of humour, figures are some-Addison. times used of so delicate a nature, that it shall often happen that some people will see things in a direct contrary sense to what the author, and the majority of the trary sense to what the author, and the majority of the readers understand them: to such the most innocent front may appear irreligion.'—CAMBRIDGE. Burlesque is rather a species of humour than direct wit, which consists in an assemblage of ideas extravagantly discordant; 'One kind of burlesque represents mean persons in the accourtements of heroes.'— The satire and irony are the most ill-natured kinds of wit; burlesque stands in the lowest rank.

TASTE, GENIUS.

Taste, in all probability from the Latin tactum and tango to touch, seems to designate the capacity to derive pleasure from an object by simply coming in contact with it; 'This metaphor would not have been so general had there not been a conformity between the general had there not been a committy between the mental taste and that sensitive taste which gives a relish of every flavour.'—Addison. Genius designates the power we have for accomplishing any object; 'Taste consists in the power of judging, genius in the power of executing.'—Blair. He who derives particular pleasure from musick may be said to have a taste for musick; he who makes very great proficiency in the theory and practice of musick may be said to have a theory and practice of interests may be said to have a genius for it. Taste is in some degree an acquired faculty, or at least is dependant on cultivation, as also on our other faculties, for its perfection; 'The cause of a wrong taste is a defect of judgement.'—Burke. Genius, from the Latin gigno to generate, is a perfectly natural gift which rises to perfection by its own native strength; the former belongs to the critick, and the lat-ter to the poet;

'Tis with our judgements as our watches, none Go just alike, yet each believes his own; In poets as true genius is rare,

True taste as seldom is the critick's share .- POPE.

It is obvious, therefore, that we may have a taste without having genius; but it would not be possible to have genius for a thing without having a taste for it: for nothing can so effectually give a taste for any ac-complishment, as the capacity to learn it, and the sus ceptibility of all its beauties, which circumstances ar inseparable from genius.

INGENUITY, WIT.

Both these terms imply acuteness of understanding, and differ mostly in the mode of displaying themselves. Ingenuity, in Latin ingenuitas, signifies literary free-dom of birth, in distinction from slavery, with which condition have been naturally associated nobleness of character and richness in mental endowments, in which latter sense it is allied to wit. Ingenuity comprehends invention; wit comprehends knowledge. Ingenuity displays itself in the mode of conducting an argument; 'Men were formerly won over to opinions, by the candour, sense, and ingenuity of those who had the right on their side.'—Addison. Wit is mostly displayed in aptness of expression and illustration; 'When I broke loose from that great body of writers, who have employed their wit and parts in propagating vice and irreligion, I did not question but I should be treated as an odd kind of fellow.'—Addison. One is ingenious in matters either of art or science; one is witty only in matters of sentiment: things may, therefore, be ingenious, but not witty; witty, but not ingenious, or both
witty and ingenious. A mechanical invention, or any
ordinary contrivance, is ingenious but not witty; an ordinary continuous, is ingenious but not wite; an ingenious, not a writty solution of a difficulty; a flash of wit, not a flash of ingenuity; a writty humour, a writty conversation; not an ingenious humour or conversation: on the other hand, a conceit is ingenious, as it is the fruit of one's own mind; it is witty, as it contains point, and strikes on the understanding of others.

SENSE, JUDGEMENT.

Sense, from the Latin sensus and sentio to feel or perceive, signifies in general the faculty of feeling corperceity, significant and the processing section of the processing or perceiving mentally; in the first case it is allied to feeling (v. Feeling), in the second it is synonymous with judgement, which is a special operation of the mind. *The sense is that primitive portion of the understanding which renders an account of things through the medium of the senses;

Then is the soul a nature, which contains The power of sense within a greater power.

And the judgement, that portion of the reason which selects or rejects from this account. The sense is, so to speak, the reporter which collects the details, and to speak, the reporter winer context the details, and exposes the facts; the judgement is the judge that passes sentence upon them. According to the strict import of the terms, the judgement depends upon the sense, and varies with it in degree. He who has no sense, has no judgement; and he who loses sense, losses judgement; since sense suntiles the knowledge loses judgement: since sense supplies the knowledge of things, and judgement pronounces upon them, it is evident that there must be sense before there can be judgement.

On the other hand, sense, when taken to denote the mental faculty of perceiving, may be so distinguished from judgement, that there may be sense without judgement, and judgement without sense; sense is the faculty of perceiving in general; it is applied to abstract science as well as general knowledge: judgement is the faculty of determining either in matters of pracis the faculty of determining enter in matters of pac-tice or theory. It is the lot of many, therefore, to have sense in matters of theory, who have no judgment in matters of practice; while others, on the contrary, who have nothing above common sense, will have a soundness of judgement that is not to be surpassed

Nay, further, it is possible for a man to have good sense, and yet not a solid judgement: as they are both natural faculties, men are gifted with them as

^{*} Vide Ribaud: "Sens, jugement"

variously as with every other faculty. By good sense a man is enabled to discern, as it were intuitively, that which requires another of less sense to ponder over and study :

There's something previous ev'n to taste: 'tis sense, Good sense; which only is the gift of heav'n, And, though no science, fairly worth the seven; A light within yourself you must perceive Jones and Le Notre have it not to give .-- POPE

By a solid judgement a man is enabled to avoid those errours in conduct, which one of a weak judgement is always falling into; 'In all instances, where our experience of the past has been extensive and uniform, our judgement concerning the future amounts to moral certainty.'-BEATTIE. There is, however, this distinction between sense and judgment, that the deficiencies of the former may be supplied by diligence and attention; but a defect in the latter is to be supplied by no efforts of one's own. A man may improve his sense in proportion as he has the means of information; but a weakness of judgement, is an irremediable evil.

When employed as epithets, the term sensible and judicious serve still more clearly to distinguish the two primitives. A writer or a speaker is said to be sensible; 'I have been tired with accounts from sensible men, furnished with matters of fact, which have happened within their own knowledge.—Abuson. A friend, or an adviser, to be judicious; 'Your observations are so judicious,' lwish you had not been so sparing of them.—Sir W. Jones. The sense displays itself. in the conversation, or the communication of one's ideas; the judgment in the propriety of one's actions. A sensible man may be an entertaining companion; but a judicious man, in any post of command, is an inestimable treasure. Sensible remarks are always calculated to please and interest sensible people; judicious measures have a sterling value in themselves, that is appreciated according to the importance of the object. Hence, it is obvious, that to be sensible is a desirable thing; but to be judicious is an indispensable requisite.

DISCERNMENT, PENETRATION, DISCRIMINATION, JUDGEMENT.

Discernment expresses the judgement or power of discerning, which, from the Latin discerno, or dis and cerno, signifies to look at apart, so as to form a true estimate of things; penetration denotes the act or power of penetrating, from penetrate, in Latin penetratus, participle of penetro and penitus, within, signifying to see into the interiour; discrimination denotes Tyling to see Into the interminal intermination variances the act or power of discriminating, from discrimination, in Latin discriminatus, participle of discrimino, to make a difference; judgement denotes the power of judging, from judge, in Latin judico, compounded of and dico, signifying to pronounce right.

The first three of these terms do not express different powers, but different modes of the same power; namely, the power of seeing intellectually, or exerting the intellectual sight.

Discernment is not so powerful a mode of intellec tual vision as penetration; the former is a common faculty, the latter is a higher degree of the same faculty; it is the power of seeing quickly, and seeing in spite of all that intercepts the sight, and keeps the object out of view: a man of common discernment dis-cerns characters which are not concealed by any par-ticular disguise; 'Great part of the country was abandoned to the spoils of the soldiers, who, not troubling themselves to discern between a subject and a rebel while their liberty lasted, made indifferently profit of both."—HAYWARD. A man of penetration is not to be deceived by any artifice, however thoroughly cloaked or secured, even from suspicion; 'He is as slow to decide as he is quick to apprehend, calmly and deliberately weighing every opposite reason that is offered, and tracing it with a most judicious penetration.

Melmoth (Letters of Pliny).

Discernment and penetration serve for the discovery of individual things by their outward marks; discrimi nation is employed in the discovery of differences between two or more objects; the former consists of simple observation, the latter combines also comparison; discernment and penetration are great aids

towards discrimination; he who can discern the springs of human action, or penetrate the views of men, will be most fitted for discriminating between the characters of different men; 'Peilaps there is no character through all Shakspeare drawn with more spirit and just discrimination than Shylock's.'— HENLEY.

Although judgement derives much assistance from the three former operations, it is a totally distinct power: the former only discover the things that are; it acts on external objects by seeing them: the latter is creative; it produces by deduction from that which passes inwardly. The former are speculative; they are directed to that which is to be known, and are confined to present objects; they serve to discover truth or falsehood, perfections and defects, metives and pretexts: the latter is practical; it is directed to that which is to be done, and extends its views to the future; it marks the relations and connexions of things: it foresees their consequences and effects; 'I

(Letters of Pliny). Of discernment, we say that it is clear; it serves to remove all obscurity and confusion: of penetration, we say that it is acute; it pierces every veil which falsehood draws before truth, and prevents us from being deceived: of discrimination, we say that it is nice; it renders our ideas accurate, and serves to pre-

love him, I contess, extremely; but my affection does by no means prejudice my judgement.')—Месмотв

vent us from confounding objects: of judgement, we say that it is solid or sound; it renders the conduct prudent, and prevents us from committing mistakes, or involving one's self in embarrassments. When the question is to estimate the real qualities

of either persons or things, we exercise discernment; Cool age advances venerably wise,

Turns on all hands its deep discerning eyes .- Pops. When it is required to lay open that which art or cunning has concealed, we must exercise penetration; 'A penetration into the abstruse difficulties and depths of modern algebra and fluxions, is not worth the labour of those who design either of the three learned professions,"—Watts. When the question is to determine the proportions and degrees of qualities in persons or things, we must use discrimination; 'A satire should expose nothing but what is corrigible, and make a due discrimination between those who are, and these who are propose objects of it. and those who are not, proper objects of it.'--ADDISON. When called upon to take any step, or act any part, we must employ the judgement; 'Judgement, a cool and slow faculty, attends not a man in the rapture of poetical composition."—DENNIS. Dissernment is more or less indispensable for every man in private or public station; he who has the most promiscuous dealings with men, has the greatest need of it: penetration is of peculiar importance for princes and statesmen: dis crimination is of great utility for commanders, and all who have the power of distributing rewards and punishments: judgement is an absolute requisite for all to whom the execution or management of concerns is

REASONABLE, RATIONAL,

intrusted

Are both derived from the same Latin word ratio, reason, which, from ratus and reor, to think, signifies the thinking faculty.

Reasonable signifies accordant with reason; rational signifies having reason in it: the former is more com-monly applied in the sense of right reason, propriety, or fairness; the latter is employed in the original sense of the word reason: hence we term a man reasonable who acts according to the principles of right reason; and a being rational, who is possessed of the rational or reasoning faculty, in distinction from the brutes. It is to be lamented that there are much fewer reasonable than there are rational creatures. The same distinction exists between them when applied to things; 'A law may be reasonable in itself, although a man does not allow it, or does not know the reason of the lawgivers."
—Swift. 'The evidence which is afforded for a future state is sufficient for a rational ground of conduct.'— BLAIR.

* Vide Abbe Girard. "Discernement, jugement"

MENTAL, INTELLECTUAL.

There is the same difference between mental and intellectual as between mind and intellect : the mind comprehends the thinking faculty in general with all its operations; the intellect includes only that part of it which consists in understanding and judgement: mental is therefore opposed to corporeal; intellectual is opposed to sensual or physical: mental exertions are not to be expected from all; intellectual enjoyments fall to the lot of comparatively few.

Objects, pleasures, pains, operations, gifts, &c. are denominated mental; 'To collect and reposite the various forms of things is far the most pleasing part of mental occupation.'—Johnson. Subjects, converration, pursuits, and the like, are entitled intellectual;

Man's more divine, the master of all these, Lord of the wide world, and wide wat'ry seas, Endued with intellectual sense and soul.

SHAKSPEARE

It is not always easy to distinguish our mental pleasures from those corporeal pleasures which we enjoy in com-mon with the brutes; the latter are however greatly heightened by the former in whatever degree they are blended: in a society of well-informed persons the conversation will turn principally on intellectual subjects.

MEMORY, REMEMBRANCE, RECOLLECTION, REMINISCENCE.

Memory, in Latin memoria or memor, Greek μνήμων and μνάομαι, comes, in all probability, from μένος, the mind, because memory is the principal faculty of the mind; remembrance, from the verb remember, continuous properties of the mind; remembrance, from the verb remember, continuous properties and the properties of t tracted from re and memoro, to bring back to the mind. is a verbal substantive, denoting the exercise of that faculty; recollection, from recollect, compounded of re and collect, signifies collecting again, i. e. carefully, and from different quarters by an effort of the memory; reminiscence, in Latin reminiscentia, from reminiscor and memor, is the bringing back to the mind what was there before.

Memory is the power of recalling images once made on the mind; remembrance, recollection, and reminis-cence, are operations or exertions of this power, which

vary in their mode.

The memory is a power which exerts itself either in-dependently of the will, or in conformity with the will; but all the other terms express the acts of conscious agents, and consequently are more or less connected with the will. In dreams the memory exerts itself, but we should not say that we have then any remembrance or recullection of objects.

Remembrance is the exercise of memory in a conscious agent; it is the calling a thing back to the mind

which has been there before, but has passed away Forgetfulness is necessary to remembrance.'—JOHN-This may be the effect of repetition or habit, as in the case of a child who remembers his lesson after having learned it several times; or of a horse who remembers the road which he has been continually passing; or it may be the effect of association and cir cumstances, by which images are casually brought back to the mind, as happens to intelligent beings continually as they exercise their thinking faculties;

Remember thee!

Ah, thou poor ghost, while memory holds a seat In this distracted globe .- SHAKSPEARE.

In these cases remembrance is an involuntary act; for things return to the mind before one is aware of it, as in the case of one who hears a particular name, and remembers that he has to call on a person of the same name; or of one who, on seeing a particular tree, remembers all the circumstances of his youth which were connected with a similar tree.

Remembrance is however likewise a voluntary act, and the consequence of a direct determination, as in the case of a child who strives to remember what it has been told by its parent; or of a friend who remembers the hour of meeting another friend in consequence of the interest which it has excited in his mind: nay indeed experience teaches us that scarcely any thing in ordinary cases is more under the subservience of the will than the memory; for it is now become almost a maxim to say, that one may remember whatever one wishes.

The power of memory, and the simple exercise of that power in the act of remembering, are possessed in common, though in different degrees, by man and brute; but recollection and reminiscence are exercises of the memory that are connected with the higher faculties of man, his judgement and understanding. To remember is to call to mind that which has once been presented to the mind; but to recollect is to remember afresh, to remember what has been remember. bered tefore. Remembrance busies itself with objects that are at hand; recollection carries us back to distant periods: simple remembrance is engaged in things that have but just left the mind, which are more or less easily to be recalled, and more or less faithfully to be represented; but recollection tries to retrace the faint images of things that have been so long unthought of as to be almost obliterated from the memory. In this manner we are said to remember in one half hour what was told us in the preceding half hour, or to remember what passes from one day to another; but we recollect the incidents of childhood; we recollect what happened in our native place after many years' absence from it. The remembrance is that homely every-day exercise of the memory which renders it of essential service in the the memory which renders it of essential service in the acquirement of knowledge, or in the performance of one's duties; 'Memory may be assisted by method, and the decays of knowledge repaired by stated times of recollection.'—Johnson. The recollection is that exalted exercise of the memory which affords us the purest of enjoyments, and serves the noblest of purposes; the recollection of all the minute incidents of childhood is a more sincere pleasure than any which the present a more sincere pleasure than any which the present moment can afford.

Reminiscence, if it deserve any notice as a word of English use, is altogether an abstract exercise of the memory, which is employed on purely intellectual ideas in distinction from those which are awakened by sensible objects; the mathematician makes use of reminiscence in deducing unknown truths from those which he already knows; 'Reminiscence is the retrieving a thing at present forgot, or confusedly remembered, by setting the mind to hunt over all its notions."-South.

Reminiscence among the disciples of Socrates was the remembrance of things purely intellectual, or of that natural knowledge which the souls had had before their union with the body; while the memory was exercised upon sensible things, or that knowledge which was acquired through the medium of the senses; therefore the Latins said that reminiscentia belonged exclusively to man, because it was purely intellectual, but that memory was common to all animals, because it was merely the depot of the senses; but this distinction, from what has been before observed, is only pre-

served as it respects the meaning of reminiscence.

Memory is a generic term, as has been already shown: it includes the common idea of reviving former impressions, but does not qualify the nature of the ideas revived: the term is however extended in its application to signify not merely a power, but also a seat or resting place, as is likewise remembrance and recollection; but still with this difference, that the memory is spacious, and contains every thing; the remembrance and recollection are partial, and comprehend only passing events: we treasure up knowledge in our memory; the occurrences of the preceding year are still fresh in our remembrance or recollection.

FORGETFULNESS, OBLIVION.

Forgetfulness characterizes the person, or that which is personal; oblivion the state of the thing: the former refers to him who forgets; 'I have read in ancient authors invitations to lay aside care and anxiety, and give a loose to that pleasing forgetfulness wherein men put off their characters of business.'—Stelle The latter to that which is forgotten;

O'er all the rest, an undistinguished crew, Her wing of deepest shade oblivion drew .- FALCONER.

We blame a person for his forgetfulness; but we sometimes bury things in oblivion.

FANCY, IMAGINATION.

Fancy, considered as a power, simply brings the ob ject to the mind, or makes it appear, from the Latin phantasia, and the Greek φαντασίη and ψαίνω, to appear; but imagination, from image, in Latin imago, or initiation, or initiatio, is a power which presents the images or likenesses of things. The fancy, therefore, only employs itself about things without regarding their nature; but the imagination aims at tracing a resemblance, and getting a true copy;

And as imagination bodies forth The forms of things unknown, the poet's pen Turns them to shape .- SHAKSPEARE.

The fancy consequently forms combinations, either real or unreal, as chance may direct; but the imagina-ion is seldomer led astray. The fancy is busy in lreams, or when the mind is in a disordered state; There was a certain lady of thin airy shape, who was very active in this solemnity: her name was Fancy.'—Addison. But the imagination is supposed to act when the intellectual powers are in full play. The fancy is employed on light and trivial objects, which are present to the senses; the imagination soar above all worldly objects, and carries us from the world of matter into the world of spirits, from time present to the time to come. A milliner or mantua-maker may employ her fancy in the decorations of a cap or gown;

Philosophy! I say, and call it He; For whatsoe'er the painter's fancy be, It a male virtue seems to me.-Cowley.

But the poet's imagination depicts every thing grand, every thing bold, and every thing remote; 'Whatever be his subject, Milton never fails to fill the imagina-

tion.'-Johnson.

Although Mr. Addison has thought proper, for his convenience, to use the words fancy and imagination promiscuously when writing on this subject, yet the distinction, as above pointed out, has been observed both in familiar discourse and in writing. We say that we fancy, not that we imagine, that we see or hear something; the pleasures of the imagination, not of the fancy.

IDEA, THOUGHT, IMAGINATION.

Idea, in Latin idea, Greek ειδέα, signifies the form or image of an object, from ειδέω to see, that is, the thing Thought literally signifies the thing seen in the mind. thought, and imagination the thing imagined.

The *idea* is the simple representation of an object; the *thought* is the reflection; and the *imagination* is the combination of *ideas*; we have *ideas* of the sun, the moon, and all material objects; we have thoughts on moral subjects; we have imaginations thoughts on moral sunjects, we have imagentations drawn from the ideas already existing in the mind. The ideas are formed; they are the rude materials with which the thinking faculty exerts itself: the thoughts arise in the mind by means of association, or recur in the mind by the power of the memory; they are the materials with which the thinking faculty employs itself: the imaginations are created by the mind's re action on itself; they are the materials with which the

understanding seeks to enrich itself.

'The word idea is not only the most general in sense. but the most universal in application; thought and imagination are particular terms used only in connexion with the agent thinking or imagining. All these words have therefore a distinct office, in which they cannot properly be confounded with each other. Idea is used in all cases for the mental representation, abstractedly from the agent that represents them: hence ideas are either clear or distinct; ideas are attached to words; ideas are analyzed, confounded, and the like; in which cases the word thought could not be substituted: Every one finds that many of the ideas which he desired to retain have slipped away irretrievably The thought belongs only to thinking and rational beings: the brutes may be said to have ideas, but not thoughts: hence thoughts are either mean, fine, grovelling, or sublime, according to the nature of the mind in which they exist:

The warring passions, and tumultuous thoughts That rage within thee!-Rowg.

Hence we say with more propriety, to indulge a thought, than to indulge an idea; to express one's thoughts, rather than one's ideas, on any subject: although the latter term idea, on account of its comprehensive use, may without violation of any express rule

be indifferently employed in general discourse for thought; but the former term does not on this account

lose its characteristic meaning.

The imagination is not only the fruit of thought, but of peculiar thought: the thought may be another the imagination is one's own: the thought occurs and recurs; it comes and it goes; it is retained or rejected at the pleasure of the thinking being: the imagination is framed by special desire; it is cherished with the par-tiality of a parent for its offspring. The thoughts are busied with the surrounding objects; the imaginations are employed on distant and strange objects; hence the thoughts are denominated sober, chaste, and the like; the imaginations, wild and extravagant. The thoughts engage the mind as circumstances give rise to them; they are always supposed to have a foundation in some thing: the *imaginations*, on the other hand, are often the mere fruit of a disordered brain; they are always regarded as unsubstantial, if not unreal; they frequently owe their origin to the suggestions of the appetites and passions; whence they are termed the imagi-nations of the heart: 'Different climates produce in men, by a different mixture of the humours, a different and unequal course of imaginations and passions. TEMPLE.

IDEAL, IMAGINARY.

Ideal does not strictly adhere to the sense of its pri mitive idea (v. Idea): the idea is the representation of a real object in the mind; but ideal signifies belonging to the idea independent of the reality or the external object. Imaginary preserves the signification of its primitive imagination (v. Fancy, also v. Idea), as denoting what is created by the mind itself.

is created by the mind itself. The idead is not directly opposed to, but abstracted from, the reality; 'There is not, perhaps, in all the stores of idead anguish, a thought more painful than the consciousness of having propagated corruption.'—JOHNSON. The imaginary, on the other hand, is directly opposed to the reality; it is the unreal thing formed by the imagination; 'Superiour beings know well the vanity of those imaginary perfections that swell the heart of man.'—Addison. Idead happiness is the happiness which is formed in the mind, without having any direct and actual prototype in nature: but having any direct and actual prototype in nature; but it may, nevertheless, be something possible to be real it may be above nature, but not in direct contradiction to it: the imaginary is that which is opposite to some positive existing reality; the pleasure which a lunatic derives from the conceit of being a king is altogether imaginary.

INHERENT, INBRED, INBORN, INNATE.

The inherent, from hareo to stick, denotes a perma nent quality or property, as opposed to that which is adventitious and transitory. *Inbred* denotes that pro perty which is derived principally from habit or by a gradual process, as opposed to the one acquired by actual efforts. *Inborn* denotes that which is purely actual efforts. Indoorn denotes that which is purely natural, in opposition to the artificial. Inherent is in its sense the most general; for what is inbred and inborn is naturally inherent, but all is not inbred and inborn which is inherent. Inanimate objects have inherent properties; but the inbred and inborn exist. only in that which receives life; solidity is an inherent, but not an inhered or inhorn property of matter: a love of truth is an *inborn* property of the human mind: it is consequently *inherent*, in as much as nothing can totally destroy it;

When my new mind had no infusion known, Thou gav'st so deep a tincture of thine own, That ever since I vainly try
To wash away th' inherent dye.—Cowley.

That which is inbred is bred or nurtured in us from our birth; hence, likewise, the properties of animals are inbred in them, in as much as they are derived through the medium of the breed of which the parent partakes, the medium of the breed of which the paren partners, that which is inborn is simply horn in us: a property may be inborn, but not inbred; it cannot, however, be; inbred and not inborn. Habits which are ingrafted into the natural disposition are properly inbred; whence the vulgar proverb that 'what is bred in the bone will never be out of the flesh;' to denote the influence

Savage).

which parents have on the characters of their children, | Apprehending is a momentary or sudden act; both physically and morally;

But he, my inbred enemy, Forth issu'd, brandishing his fatal dart, Made to destroy; I fled, and cry'd out death! MILTON.

Propensities, on the other hand, which are totally independent of education or external circumstances, are properly inborn, as an inborn love of freedom;

Despair, and secret shame, and conscious thought Of inborn worth, his lab'ring soul oppress'd.

Inborn and innate, from the Latin natus born, are precisely the same in meaning, yet they differ somewhat in application. Poetry and the grave style have adopted inhorn; philosophy has adopted innate: genius is inhorn in some men; nobleness is inhorn in others: there is an inborn talent in some men to command, and an inborn fitness in others to obey. Mr. Locke and his followers are pleased to say, there is no such thing as innate ideas; and if they only mean that there are no sensible impressions on the soul, until it is acted upon by external objects, they may be right: but if they mean to say that there are no inborn characters or powers in the soul, which predispose it for the reception of certain impressions, they contradict the experience of the learned and the unlearned in all ages, who believe, and that from close observation on themselves and others, that man has, from his birth, not only the general character, which belongs to him in common with his species, but also those peculiar characteristicks which distinguish individuals from their earliest infancy: all these characters or characteristicks are, therefore, not supposed to be produced, but elicited, by circumstances and the ideas, which are but the sensible forms that the soul assumes in its connexion with the body, are, on that account, in vulgar language termed innate;

Grant these inventions of the crafty priest, Yet such inventions never could subsist, Unless some glimmerings of a future state Were with the mind coeval and innate.

TO CONCEIVE, APPREHEND, SUPPOSE, IMAGINE.

To conceive, from the Latin concipio, or con and capio to put together, is to put an image together in the mind, or to form an idea; to apprehend, from apprehend to lay hold of, is to seize with the understanding; to suppose, in French supposer, Latin supposui, perfect of suppono, or sub and pono to put one thing in the place of another, is to have one thing in one's mind in lieu of another; to imagine, in French imaginer, Latin imagino, from imago an image, signifies to reflect as an image or phantom in the mind.

as an image or planton in the finite.

Conceive, in the strict sense of the word, is the generick, the others the specifick terms: since in apprehending, imagining, and supposing, we always conceiver form an idea, but not vice versa; the difference consists in the mode and object of the action; we conceive of things as proper or improper, and just or unjust, right or wrong, good or bad, this is an act of the judgement; 'Conceive of things clearly and distinctly in judgement; *Conceive of things completely in all their own natures; conceive of things completely in all their own parts; conceive of things comprehensively in all their properties and relations; conceive of things extensively in all their kinds; conceive of things orderly, or in a proper method.*—WATTS. We apprehend the meaning of another; this is by the power of simple perception;

Yet this I apprehend not, why to those Among whom God will deign to dwell on earth So many and so various laws are given .- MILTON.

Apprehension is considered by logicians as the first power or operation of the mind being employed on the simplest objects; 'Simple apprehension denotes no more than the soul's naked intellection of an object, without either composition or deduction.'-GLANVILLE.

Conceiving is applied to objects of any magnitude which are not above the stretch of human power;

I nam'd them as they pass'd, and understood Their nature, with such knowledge God inducd My sudden apprehension.—MILTON

Conceiving, which is a process of nature, is often slow and gradual, as to conceive a design; 'This man conceived the duke's death, but what was the motive of that felonious conception is in the clouds.'—Wolton.

What is conceived, is conclusive or at least deter-inate; 'A state of innocence and happiness is so remote from all that we have ever seen, that although we can easily conceive it is possible, yet our speculations upon it must be general and confused.'—Johnson. What is apprehended may be dubious or indeterminate: hence the term apprehend is taken in the sense of fear:

Nothing is a misery,

Unless our weakness apprehend it so.

Conceive and apprehend are exercises of the under standing; suppose and imagine of the imagination; but the former commonly rests on some ground of reality, the latter may be the mere offspring of the brain. Suppose is used in opposition to positive knowledge. The property exercise that of which he is positive. brain. Suppose is used in opposition to positive know-ledge; no person supposes that, of which he is posi-tively informed; 'It can scarce be supposed that the mind is more vigorous when we sleep, than when we are awake.'-HAWKESWORTH. Imagine is employed for that which, in all probability, does not exist; shall not imagine what is evident and undeniable; "The Earl of Rivers did not imagine there could exist, in a human form, a mother that would ruin her own son without enriching herself."—Johnson (Life of

TO CONCEIVE, UNDERSTAND, COM PREHEND.

These terms indicate the intellectual operations of forming ideas, that is, ideas of the complex kind in distitution from the simple ideas formed by the act of perception. To conceive, is to put together in the mind; to understand, is to stand under, or near to the mind; to comprehend, from the Latin com or cum and prehendo to take, signifies to seize or embrace in the mind.

Conception is the simplest operation of the three; when we conceive we may have but one idea, when we understand or comprehend we have all the ideas which the subject is capable of presenting. We can-not understand or comprehend without conceiving; but we may often conceive that which we neither understand nor comprehend; 'Whatever they cannot immediately conceive they consider as too high to be reached, or too extensive to be comprehended.'—

That which we cannot conceive is to us nothing; but the conception of it gives it an existence, at least in our minds; but understanding or comprehending is not essential to the belief of a thing's existence. Sc long as we have reasons sufficient to conceive a thing as possible or probable, it is not necessary either to understand or comprehend them in order to authorize our belief. The mysteries of our holy religion are objects of conception, but not of comprehension

Our finite knowledge cannot comprehend The principles of an abounded sway .- SHIRLEY.

We conceive that a thing may be done without underexist without comprehending the nature of its exist-ence. We conceive clearly, understand fully, comprehend minutely

Conception is a species of invention; it is the fruit of the mind's operation within itself; 'If, by a more noble and more adequate conception that be considered as wit which is at once natural and new, that which, though not obvious, is, upon its first production, acknowledged to be just; if it be that, which he that never found it, wonders how he missed; to wit of this kind the metaphysical poets have seldom risen.' Conceiving is applied to objects of any magnitude hich are not above the stretch of human power; Ohnson. Understanding and comprehension are employed solely on external objects; we understand and comprehend that which actually exists before us, and the highly favour'd, among women blest.—Milton. ration; he always understands himself, and his readers always understand him.'-Johnson. Conceiving is the office of the imagination, as well as the judgement; understanding and comprehension are the office

of the reasoning faculties exclusively.

* Conceiving is employed with regard to matters of taste, to arrangements, designs, and projects; under-standing is employed on familiar objects which present themselves in the ordinary discourse and business of men; comprehending respects principles, lessons, and speculative knowledge in general. The artist conceives a design, and he who will execute it must understand it; the poet conceives that which is grand and sublime, and he who will enjoy the perusal of his conceptions must have refinement of mind, and capacity to comprehend the grand and sublime. The builder conceives plans, the scholar understands lan-guages, the metaphysician comprehends subtle questions.

A ready conception supplies us with a stock of ideas on all subjects; a quick understanding catches the intentions of others with half a word; a penetrating mind comprehends the abstrusest points. There are human beings involved in such profound ignorance, that they cannot conceive of the most ordinary things that exist in civilized life: there are those who, though slow at und standing words, will be quick at understanding looks and signs: and there are others who, though dull at conceiving or understanding common matters, will have a power for comprehending the abstruser parts of the mathematics.

CONCEPTION, NOTION.

Conception, from conceive (v. To conceive), signifies the thing conceived; notion, in French notion, Latin notio, from notus participle of nosco to know, signifies the thing known.

Conception is the mind's own work, what it pictures to itself from the exercise of its own powers; signify not immediately and primely things themselves, but the conceptions of the mind concerning things.'— South. Notion is the representation of objects as they are drawn from observation; 'The story of Telemachus is formed altogether in the spirit of Homer, and will give an unlearned reader a notion of that great poet's manner of writing.'—Addison. Conceptions are the fruit of the imagination; 'It is natural r the imaginations of men who lead their lives in too solitary a manner to prey upon themselves, and form from their own conceptions beings and things which have no place in nature.'—Stelle. Notions are the result of reflection and experience; 'Considering that the happiness of the other world is to be the happiness of the whole man, who can question, but there is an infinite variety in those pleasures we are speaking of? Revelation, likewise, very much confirms this notion under the different views it gives us of our future happiness.'—Addison. Conceptions are formed; notions are entertained. Conceptions are either grand or mean, gross or sublime, either clear or indistinct, crude or distinct, notions are either true or false, just or absurd. Intellectual culture serves to elevate the conceptions; the extension of knowledge serves to correct and refine

Some heathen philosophers had an indistinct conception of the Deity, whose attributes and character are unfolded to us in his revelation: the ignorant have often false notions of their duty and obligations to their superiours. The unenlightened express their gross and crude conceptions of a Superiour Being by some material and visible object: the vulgar notion of ghosts and spirits is not entirely banished from the most cultivated parts of England.

PERCEPTION, IDEA, CONCEPTION, NOTION.

Perception expresses either the act of perceiving or the impression produced by that act; in this latter sense it is analogous to an idea (v. Idea). The impression of an object that is present to us is termed a perception; the revival of that impression, when the object is removed, is an idea. A combination of ideas by which any image is presented to the mind is a con-

* Vide Abbe Girard: "Entendre, comprendre, concevoir.'

ception (v. To comprehend); the association of two or more ideas, so as to constitute it a decision, is a notion Perceptions are clear or confused, according to the state of the sensible organs, and the perceptive faculty, ideas are faint or vivid, vague or distinct, according to the nature of the perception, conceptions are gross of refined according to the number and extent of one's ideas; notions are true or false, correct or incorrect, according to the extent of one's knowledge. The percention which we have of remote objects is sometimes so indistinct as to leave hardly any traces of the image on the mind; we have in that case a perception, but

What can the fondest mother wish for more,

Ev'n for her darling son, than solid sense, Perceptions clear, and flowing eloquence.-WYNNE.

If we read the description of any object, we may have an idea of it; but we need not have any immediate perception: the idea in this case being complex, and formed of many images of which we have already had a perception; 'Imagination selects ideas from the

treasures of remembrance.'-Johnson.

If we present objects to our minds, according to dif ferent images which have already been impressed, we are said to have a conception of them: in this case, however, it is not necessary for the objects really to exist; they may be the offspring of the mind's operation within itself; 'It is not a head that is filled with extravagant conceptions, which is capable of furnishing the world with diversions of this nature (from humour).'—Addison. But with regard to notions it is different, for they are formed respecting objects that do really exist, although perhaps the properties or circumstances which we assign to them are not real; 'Those notions which are to be collected by reason, in opposi-tion to the senses, will seldom stand forward in the mind, but be treasured in the remoter repositories of the memory.'—Johnson. If I look at the moon, I have a perception of it; if it disappear from my sight, impression remains, I have an idea of it; if an object, differing in shape and colour from that or any thing else which I may have seen, present itself to my mind, it is a conception; if of this moon I conceive that it is no bigger than what it appears to my eye, this is a notion, which in the present instance, assigns an unreal property to a real object.

TO THINK, SUPPOSE, IMAGINE, BELIEVE, DEEM.

To think, in Saxon thincan, German denken, &c. from the Hebrew 17 to rule or judge, is the generick term. It expresses, in common with the other terms, the act of having a particular idea in the mind; but it is indefinite as to the mode and the object of the action. To think may be the act of the understanding, or merely of the imagination: to suppose and imagine are rather the acts of the imagination than of the understanding. To think, that is, to have any thought or opinion upon a subject, requires reflection: it is the work of time:

If to conceive how any thing can be From shape extracted, and locality, Is hard: what think you of the Deity?—Jenyns.

To suppose and imagine may be the acts of the mo-We think a thing right or wrong; we suppose ment. ment. We than a thing lagter at the suppose that while the relations, in which we stand to our fellow-creatures, naturally call forth certain sentiments and affections, there should be none to correspond to the first and greatest of all beings.'—BLAIR. We imagine it to be real or unreal. To think is employed promis-We imagine cuously in regard to all objects, whether actually existing or not: to suppose applies to those which are uncertain or precarious; imagine, to those which are unreal; 'How ridiculous must it be to imagine that the clergy of England favour popery, when they cannot be clergymen without renouncing it."—Beverioge. Think and imagine are said of that which affects the senses immediately; suppose is only said of that which oc cupies the mind. We think that we hear a noise as soon as the sound catches our attention; in certain states of the body or mind we imagine we hear noises which were never made: we think that a person will come to-day, because he has informed us that he in tends to do so; we suppose that he will come to-day, at a certain hour, because he came at the same hour

When applied to the events and circumstances of life, to think may be applied to any time, past, present, or to come, or where no time is expressed: to suppose is more aptly applied to a future time; and imagine to a plast or present time. We think that a person has done a thing, is doing it, or will do it; we suppose that he will do it; we imagine that he has done it, or is doing it. A person thinks that he will die; imagines that he is in a dangerous way: we think that the weather will be fine to-day, we suppose that the affair will be decided.

In regard to moral points, in which case the word deem may be compared with the others; to think is a conclusion drawn from certain premises. I think that a man has acted wrong: to suppose is to take up an idea arbitrarily or at pleasure; we argue upon a supposed case, merely for the sake of argument: to imagine is to take up an idea by accident, or without any connexion with the truth or reality; we imagine that a person is offended with us, without being able to assign a single reason for the idea; imaginary evils are even more numerous than those which are real: to deem is to form a conclusion; things are deemed hurtfal or otherwise in consequence of observation; 'An empty house is by the players deemed the most dreadful sign of popular disapprobation.'—Hawkes-

To think and believe are both opposite to knowing or perceiving; but to think is a more partial action than to believe: we think as the thing strikes us at the time; we believe from a settler deduction: hence, it expresses much less to say that I think a person speaks the truth, than that I believe that he speaks the truth;

For they can conquer who believe they can .- DRYDEN

I think, from what I can recollect, that such and such were the words, is a vague mode of speech, not admissible in a court of law as positive evidence: the natural question which follows upon this is, do you armly believe it? to which, whoever can answer in the affirmative, with the appearance of sincerity, must be idmitted as a testimony. Hence it arises, that the word can only be employed in matters that require but ittle thought in order to come to a conclusion; and believe is applicable to things that must be admitted only on substantial evidence. We are at liberty to say har I think, or I believe, that the account is made out dont; but we must say, that I believe, not think, that the Bible is the word of God.

TO THINK, REFLECT, PONDER, MUSE.

Think, in Saxon thincan, German denken, &c., comes from the Hebrew 17, to direct, rule, or judge; reflect, in Latin reflecto, signifies literally to bend back, that is, to bend the mind back on itself; ponder, from pondus a weight, signifies to weigh; muse, from musa, a song, signifies to dwell upon with the imagination

To think is a general and indefinite term; to reflect is a particular mode of thinking; to ponder and muse are different modes of reflecting, the former on grave matters, the latter on matters that interest either the affections or the imagination: we think whenever we receive or recall an idea to the mind; but we reflect only by recalling, not one only, but many ideas: we think if we only suffer the ideas to revolve in succession in the mind: but in reflecting we compare, combine, and judge of those ideas which thus pass in the mind. we think, therefore, of things past, as they are pleasurable or otherwise; we reflect upon them as they are applicable to our present condition: we may think on things past, present, or to come; we reflect, ponder, and muse mostly on that which is past or present. The man thinks on the days of his childhood, and wishes them back; the child thinks on the time when he shall be a man, and is impatient until it is come No man was ever weary of thinking, much less of thinking that he had done well or virtuously.'-South. A man reflects on his past follies, and tries to profit by experience; 'Let men but reflect upon their own observation, and consider impartially with themselves how few in the world they have known made better by age. '- South. One ponders on any serious concern that affects his destiny;

Stood on the brink of hell, and look'd awhile, Pond'ring his voyage.-MILTON.

One muses on the happy events of his childhood; 'I was sitting on a sofa one evening, after I had been caressed by Amurath, and my imagination kindled as I mused."—HAWKESWORTH.

TO CONTEMPLATE, MEDITATE, MUSE.

Contemplate, in Latin contemplatus, participle of contemplor, probably comes from templum the temple, that being the place most fitted for contemplation. Meditate, in Latin meditatus, participle of meditor, is probably changed from meditor, in Greek μελετάω, to inodulate, or attune the thoughts, as sounds are harmondzed. Muse is derived from musa, owing to the connexion between the harmony of a song, and the harmony of the thoughts in musing.

Different species of reflection are marked by these

We contemplate what is present or before our eyes; we meditate on what is past or absent; we muse on

what is present or past.

The heavens, and all the works of the Creator, are objects of contemplation; 'I sincerely wish myself with you to contemplate the wonders of God in the firmament, rather than the madness of man on the earth.'-Pope. The ways of Providence are fit subjects for meditation; 'But a very small part of the noments spent in meditation on the past, produce any reasonable caution or salutary sorrow.'—Johnson. One muses on the events or circumstances which have been just passing.

We may contemplate and meditate for the future, but never muse. In this case the two former terms have the sense of contriving or purposing: what is contemplated to be done, is thought of more indistinctly than when it is meditated to be done; many things are had in contemplation which are never seriously meditated upon; 'Life is the immediate gift of God, a right inherent by nature in every individual, and it begins in contemplation of law as soon as an infant is able to stir in the mother's womb.'-BLACK-STONE. Between contemplating and meditating there is oftener a greater difference than between meditating and executing;

Thus plung'd in ills and meditating more, The people's patience, tried, no longer bore The raging monster.—DRYDEN.

Contemplation may be a temporary action directed to a single object; 'There is not any property or cir-cumstances of my being that I contemplate with more joy than my immortality.'—Berkeley. Meditating is a permanent and serious action directed to several objects; 'Meditate till you make some act of piety upon the occasion of what you meditate, either get some new arguments against sin, or some new encouragement to virtue.'—Taylor. Musing is partial and unimportant: meditation is a religious duty, it cannot be neglected without injury to a person's spiritual improvement; musing is a temporary employment of the mind on the ordinary concerns of life, as they happen to excite an interest for the time;

Musing as wont on this and that, Such trifles as I know not what.—Francis.

Contemplative and musing, as epithets, have a strong analogy to each other.

Contemplative is a habit of the mind; musing is a particular state of the mind. A person may have a contemplative turn, or be in a musing mood.

TO CONSIDER, REFLECT.

Consider, in French considerer, Latin considere, a factative, from consider to sit down, signifies to make to settle in the mind. Reflect, in Latin reflecte, compounded of re and flecto, signifies to turn back, or upon itself, after the manner of the mind.

The operation of thought is expressed by these two words, but it varies in the circumstances of the action.

Consideration is employed for practical purposes, reflection for matters of speculation or moral improvement. Common objects call for consideration; the workings of the mind itself, or objects purely spiritual, occupy reflection. It is necessary to consider what is

proper to be done, before we take any step; 'It seems necessary, in the choice of persons for greater employments, to consider their bodies as well as their minds, and ages and health as well as their abilities.'-TEM-PLE. It is consistent with our natures, as rational beings, to reflect on what we are, what we ought to be and what we shall be: 'Whoever reflects frequently on the uncertainty of his own duration, will find out that the state of others is not more permanent than his own.'-Johnson.

Without consideration we shall naturally commit the most flagrant errors; without reflection we shall never understand our duty to our Maker, our neigh-

bour, and ourselves.

TO CONSIDER, REGARD.

To consider (v. To consider) signifies to take a view of a thing in the mind, which is the result of thought; to regard is literally to look back upon, from the French regarder, that is, re and garder, to keep or watch, which is derived from the old German wahren. to see, of which there are still traces in the words bewahren to guard against, warten to wait and the English to be aware of.

There is more caution or thought in considering ; more personal interest in regarding. A man may consider his reputation so as to be deterred from taking a particular step; if he regards his reputation, this regard has a general influence on all he does. 'The king had not, at that time, one person about him of his council, who had the least consideration of his own honour, or friendship for those who sat at the helm of affairs, the Duke of Lennox excepted.' CLARENDON.

If much you note him, You offend him; feed and regard him not. SHAKSPEARE.

A similar distinction exists between these words when not expressly personal: to consider a thing in a certain light, is to take a steady view of it; 'I consider the soul of man as the ruin of a glorious pile of buildings. —STEELE. To regard a thing is to view it with a certain interest; 'I regard trade not only as highly advantageous to the commonwealth in general, but as the most natural and likely method of making a man's fortune.'-Bungell.

CONSIDERATION, REASON.

Consideration, or that which enters into a person's consideration, has a reference to the person considering. Reason, or that which influences the reason, is taken absolutely: considerations are therefore for the most part partial, as affecting particular interests, or most part partial, as affecting particular interests, or dependent on particular circumstances. 'He had been made general upon very partial, and not enough deliberated considerations.'—CLARENDON.

Reasons on the contrary may be general, and vary according to the nature of the subject; 'The reasons assigned in a law of the 36th year of Edward III. for having pleas and judgements in the English tongue,

might have been urged for having the laws themselves in that language.'—Tyrwhitt.

When applied to matters of practice the considera-tion influences the particular actions of an individual or individuals; no consideration of profit or emolument should induce a person to forfeit his word; 'He was obliged, antecedent to all other considerations, to

obliged, antecept to all other tonoise autors, we search an asylum.'—DRYDEN.

The reason influences a line of conduct; the reasons which men assign for their conduct are often as absurd

as they are false

I mask the business from the common eye For sundry weighty reasons .- SHAKSPEARE.

In the same manner, when applied to matters of theory, the consideration is that which enters into a man's consideration, or which he offers to the considerman's consideration, or which he ohers to the consideration of others; 'The folly of ascribing temporal punishments to any particular crimes, may appear from several considerations.'—Addison. The reason is that several considerations.'—Addison. The reason is that which flows out of the nature of the thing: 'If it be natural, ought we not rather to conclude that there is some ground or reason for those fears, and that nature hath not planted them in us to no purpose ?'-Til-LOTSON.

TO ARGUE, EVINCE, PROVE.

To argue, from the Latin argue, and the Greek άργος clear, signifies to make clear; to evince, in Latin evinco, compounded of vinco to prove or make out, and e forth, signifies to bring to light, to make to appear clear; to prove, in French prouver, in Latin probe, from probus good, signifies to make good, or make to appear good.

These terms in general convey the idea of evidence, but with gradations: argue denotes the smallest degree, and prove the highest degree. To argue is to serve as an indication amounting to probability; to evince denotes an indication so clear as to remove doubt; to prove marks an evidence so positive as to produce con-

It argues a want of candour in any man to conceal circumstances in his statement which are any ways calculated to affect the subject in question; 'It is not the being singular, but being singular for something, that argues either extraordinary endowments of nature or benevolent intentions to mankind, which draws the admiration and esteem of the world.—Berrkeley. The tenour of a person's conversation may evince the refinement of his mind and the purity of his taste; 'The nature of the soul itself, and particularly its immateriality, has, I think, been evinced almost to a demonstration.'—Addison. When we see men sacrificing their peace of mind and even their integrity of character to ambition, it proves to us how important it is even in early life to check this natural, and in some measure laudable, but still insinuating and dangerous passion:

What object, what event the moon beneath, But argues or endears an after-scene ? To reason proves, or weds it to desire ?-Young

ARGUMENT, REASON, PROOF.

Argument, from argue (v. To argue), signifies either the thing that argues, or that which is brought forward in arguing: reason, in French raison, Latin ratto, from ratus, participle of reor to think, signifies the thing thought or estimated in the mind by the power of reason; proof, from to prove, signifies the thing that proves.

An argument serves for defence; a reason for justi-An argument serves for defence; a reason to justification; a proof for conviction. Arguments are adduced in support of an hypothesis or proposition; 'When the arguments press equally on both sides in matters that are indifferent to us, the safest method is to give up ourselves to neither.'—Addison. Reasons are assigned in matters of belief and practice;

The reasons, with his friend's experience join'd, Encourag'd much, but more disturb'd his mind.

DRYDEN.

Proofs are collected to ascertain a fact:

One soul in both, whereof good proof This day affords .- MILTON.

Arguments are either strong or weak; reasons solid or futile; proofs clear and positive, or vague and indefinite. We confute an argument, overpower a reason, and invalidate a proof. Whoever wishes to defend and invalidate a proof. Whoever wishes to defend Christianity will be in no want of arguments; 'This, hefore revelation had enlightened the world, was the very best argument for a future state.'-ATTERBURY. The believer need never be at a loss to give a reason The believer need never be at a loss to give a reason for the hope that is in him; 'Virtue and vice are not arbitrary things, but there is a natural and eternal reason for that goodness and virtue, and against vice and wickedness.—TILLOTSON. Throughout the whole of Divine revelation there is no circumstance that is substantiated with such irrefragable proofs as the resurrection of our Saviour;

Are there (still more amazing!) who resist The rising thought, who smother in its birth The glorious truth, who struggle to be brutes? Who fight the proofs of immortality ?-Young.

CAUSE, REASON, MOTIVE.

Cause is supposed to signify originally the same as case; it means however now, by distinction, the case or thing happening before another as its cause; the reason is the thing that acts on the reason or under standing; the motive, in French motif, from the Latin

reason the movements and operations of the mind; motives the movements of the mind and body. Cause is properly the generick; reason and motive are specifick: very reason or motive is a cause, but every cause is not a reason or motive.

tacts is said of all inanimate objects; reason and motive of rational agents; whatever happens in the world, happens from some cause mediate or immediate; the primary or first cause of all, is God; 'The wise and learned among the very heathens themselves, have all acknowledged some first cause, whereupon originally the being of all things dependent, neither have they otherwise spoken of that cause, than as an agent which, knowing what and why it worketh, observeth in working a most exact order or law.'— Whatever opinions men hold, they ought to HOOKER. be able to assign a substantial reason for them; " commemorate any mystery of our redemption, or article of our faith, we ought to confirm our belief of it by considering all those reasons upon which it is built.'-NELSON. For whatever men do they ought to have a sufficient motive; 'Every principle that is a motive to good actions ought to be encouraged.'-Addison.

As the cause gives birth to the effect, so does the reason give birth to the conclusion, and the motive gives birth to the action. Between cause and effect there is a necessary connexion; whatever in the natural world is capable of giving birth to another thing is an ade-

quate cause :

Cut off the causes, and the effects will cease, And all the moving madness fall to peace

But in the moral world there is not a necessary connexion between reasons and their results, or motives and their actions: the state of the agent's mind is not always such as to be acted upon according to the nature of things; every adequate reason will not be followed by its natural conclusion, for every man will not believe who has reasons to believe, nor yield to the reasons that would lead to a right belief: and every motive will not be accompanied with its corresponding action, for every man will not act who has a motive for acting, nor act in the manner in which his motives ought to dictate: the causes of our diseases often lie as hidden as the reasons of our opinions, and the motives for our actions.

CONCLUSION, INFERENCE, DEDUCTION.

Conclusion, from conclude, and the Latin conclaudo, or con and cludo to shut up, signifies literally the winding up of all arguments and reasoning; inference, from infer, in Latin infero, signifies what is brought in; deduction, from deduct, in Latin deductus and deduce to bring out, signifies the bringing or drawing one thing from another.

A conclusion is full and decisive; an inference is partial and indecisive: a conclusion leaves the mind in no doubt or hesitation; it puts a stop to all farther rea-

soging:

I only deal by rules of art, Such as are lawful, and judge by Conclusions of astrology.-Hudibras.

Inferences are special conclusions from particular circumstances; they serve as links in the chain of reason-Though it may chance to be right in the conclusion, it is yet unjust and mistaken in the method of '-GLANVILLE Conclusion in the logical sense is the concluding proposition in a syllogism, drawn from the two others, which are called the premises, and may each of them be inferences.

Conclusions are drawn from real facts, inferences are drawn from the appearances of things, deductions only from arguments or assertions. Conclusions are practical; inferences ratiocinative; deductions are tinal

We conclude from a person's conduct or declarations what he intends to do, or leave undone;

He praises wine, and we conclude from thence He lik'd his glass, on his own evidence.-Addison. We infer from the appearance of the clouds, or the thickness of the atmosphere, that there will be a heavy

motus, participle of moveo to move, is that which fall of rain or snow; 'You might, from the single peoblemgs into action.

Cause respects the order and connexion of things; how many there are left unmarried.'—Stelle. We deduce from a combination of facts, inferences, and assertions, that a story is fabricated; 'There is a consequence which seems very naturally deducible from the foregoing considerations. If the scale of being rises by such a regular progress so high as man, we may by a parity of reason suppose that it still proceeds gradually through those beings which are of a superior nature to him.'—Addison. Hasty conclusions betray a want of judgement, or firmness of mind: contrary inferences are frequently drawn from the same circumstances to serve the purposes of party, and support a favourite position; the deductions in such cases are not unfrequently true when the inferences are false.

BELIEF, CREDIT, TRUST, FAITH.

Belief, from believe, in Saxon gelyfan, geleavan, in German glauben, kilauban, &c. comes, in all possibility, from lief, in German belieben to please, and the Latin libet it pleaseth, signifying the pleasure or assent of the Credit, in French credit, Latin creditus, participle of credo, compounded of cor the heart, and do to give, signifies also giving the heart. Trust is connected with the old word trow, in Saxon treowian, German trauen, old German thravahn, thruven, &c. to hold true, and probably from the Greek θάρρειν to have confidence, signifying to depend upon as true. Faith, in Latin fides, from fide to confide, signifies also de-Faith, pendence upon as true.

Belief is the generick term, the others specifick; we believe when we credit and trust, but not always vice versa. Belief rests on no particular person or thing; but credit and trust rest on the authority of one or more individuals. Every thing is the subject of belief which produces one's assent: the events of human life are credited upon the authority of the narrator; the words, promises, or the integrity of individuals are the power of persons and the virtue of things

are objects of faith.

Belief and credit are particular actions, or sentitrust and faith are permanent dispositions of d. Things are entitled to our belief; persons the mind. the mind. Things are entitled to our bettef; persons are entitled to our credit; but people repose a trust in others; or have a fatth in others.

Our belief or unbelief is not always regulated by our reasoning faculties, or the truth of things: we often

believe from prejudice and ignorance, things to be true which are very false;

Oh! I've heard him talk Like the first-born child of love, when every word Spoke in his eyes, and wept to be believ'd, And all to ruin me .- Southern.

With the bulk of mankind, assurance goes further than any thing else in obtaining credit: gross false-hoods, pronounced with confidence, will be credited sooner than plain truths told in an unvarnished style;

Oh! I will credit my Scamandra's tears! Nor think them drops of chance like other women's.

There are no disappointments more severe than those which we feel on finding that we have trusted to men of base principles:

Capricious man! To good or ill inconstant Too much to fear or trust is equal weakness. JOHNSON.

Ignorant people have commonly a more implicit faith in any nostrum recommended to them by persons of their own class, than in the prescriptions of professional men regularly educated;

For faith repos'd on seas and on the flatt'ring sky Thy naked corpse is doomed on shores unknown to lie

Belief, trust, and faith have a religious application, which credit has not. Belief is simply an act of the understanding; trust and faith are active moving principles of the mind in which the heart is concerned. principles of the final in which the least is concerned. Belief does not extend beyond an assent of the mind to any given proposition; trust and faith are lively sentiments which impel to action. Belief is to trust and faith, as cause to effect: there may be belief without either trust or faith; but there can be no trust or

faith without belief; we believe that there is a God, who is the creator and preserver of all his creatures; we therefore trust in him for his protection of ourselves. we believe that Jesus Christ died for the sins of men; we have therefore faith in his redeeming grace

to save us from our sins.

Belief is common to all religions; 'The Epicureans contented themselves with the denial of a Providence, asserting at the same time the existence of gods in general; because they would not shock the common belief of mankind?—Addison. Trust is peculiar to the believers in Divine revelation; 'What can be a stronger motive to a firm trust and reliance on the mercies of our Maker, than the giving us his Son to suffer for us?—Addison. Faith is employed by dis-tinction for the Christian faith; 'The faith or persua-sion of a Divine revelation is a Divine faith, not only with respect to the object of it, but likewise in respect of the author of it, which is the Divine Spirit.'-Til-LOTSON. Belief is purely speculative; and trust and faith are operative: the for mer operates on the mind; the latter on the outward conduct. Trust in God serves to dispel all auxious concern about the future. "Faith," says the Apostle, "is dead without works." Theorists substitute belief for faith; enthusiasts mistake passion for faith. True faith must be grounded on a right belief, and accompanied with a right practice

FAITH, CREED.

Faith (v. Belief) denotes either the principle of trusting, or the thing trusted; creed, from the Latin creto to believe, denotes the thing believed.

These words are synonymous when taken for the thing trusted in or believed; but they differ in this, that faith has always a reference to the principle in the mind; creed only respects the thing which is the object of faith: the former is likewise taken generally and indefinitely; the latter particularly and definitely, signifying a set form or a code of faith; hence we say, to be of the same faith, or to adopt the same creed. The holy martyrs died for the faith, as it is in Christ Jesus: 'St. Paul affirms that a sinner is at first justified and received into the favour of God, by a sincere profession of the Christian faith.'—TILLOTSON. Every established form of religion will have its peculiar creed. The Church of England has adopted that creed which it considers as containing the purest principles of Christian faith; 'Supposing all the great points of atheism were formed into a kind of creed, I would fain ask whether it would not require an infinitely greater measure of faith than any set of articles which they so violently oppose ?'-Addison.

CONVICTION, PERSUASION.

Conviction, from convince, denotes either the act of convincion, from concline, tenores ettler the act of convincing or the state of being convinced; persuasion, which, from the Latin persuadeo, or suadeo, and the Greek folgs sweet, signifies to make thoroughly agreeable to the taste, expresses likewise the act of persuasion.

able to the taste, expresses incomes and suading, or the state of being persuaded.

What convinces binds; what persuades attracts. We convince by arguments; it is the understanding which determines we are persuaded by entreaties and personal influence; it is the imagination, the passions, or the will which decide. Our conviction respects solely matters of belief or faith; 'When therefore the Apostle requireth ability to convict hereticks, can we think he judgeth it a thing unlawful, and not rather needful, to use the principal instrument of their conviction, the light of reason.'—HOOKER. Our persuasion respects matters of belief or practice; 'I should be glad if I could persuade him to write such another critique on any thing of mine, for when he condemns any of my poems, he makes the world have a better opinion of them.'-DRYDEN. We are convinced that a thing is true or false; we are persuaded that it is either right or wrong, advantageous or the contrary. A person will have half effected a thing who is convinced that it is in his power to effect it; he will be easily persuaded to do that which fayours his own interests.

Conviction respects our most important duties 'Their wisdom is only of this world, to put false colours upon things, to call good evil, and evil good, against the conviction of their own consciences."

Swift Persuasion is frequently applied to matters of indifference: 'Philoclea's beauty not only persuaded, but so persuaded that all hearts must yield.—Sidney
The first step to true repentance is a thorough conviction of the enormity of sin. The cure of people's maladies is sometimes promoted to a surprising degree by their persuasion of the efficacy of the remedy.

As conviction is the effect of substantial evidence, it is solid and permanent in its nature; it cannot be so easily changed and deceived; persuasion, depending on our feelings, is influenced by external objects, and exposed to various changes; it may vary both in the degree and in the object. Conviction answers in our minds to positive certainty; persuasion answers to pro-

bability.

The practical truths of Christianity demand our deepest conviction; 'When men have settled in themselves a conviction that there is nothing honourable which is not accompanied with innocence; nothing mean but what has guilt in it; riches, pleasures, and honours will easily lose their charms, if they stand be tween us and our integrity.'-STELLE. Of the speculative truths of Christianity we ought to have a rational persuasion; 'Let the mind be possessed with the perpersistasion; Let the immo be possessed with the persistasion of immortal happiness annexed to the act, and there will be no want of candidates to struggle for the glavious pretogative.'—Cumberland.

The conviction of the truth or falsehood of that

which we have been accustomed to condemn or admire cannot be effected without powerful means; but we may be persuaded of the propriety of a thing to-day, which to-morrow we shall regard with indifference We ought to be convinced of the propriety of avoiding every thing which can interfere with the good order of society; we may be persuaded of the truth of a person's narrative or not, according to the representation made to us; we may be persuaded to pursue any study or lay

it aside.

UNBELIEF, INFIDELITY, INCREDULITY

Unbelief (v. Belief) respects matters in general; infi delity, from fides faithful, is unbelief as respects Divine revelation; incredulity is unbelief in ordinary matters Unbelief is taken in an indefinite and negative sense; it is the want of belief in any particular thing that may or may not be believed: infidelity is a more active state of mind; it supposes a violent and total rejection of that which ought to be believed: incredulity is also an active state of mind, in which we oppose a belief to matters that may be rejected. Unbelief does not of itself con vey any reproachful meaning; it depends upon the thing disbelieved; we may be unbelievers in indifferent as well as the most important matters; but absolutely taken it means one who disbelieves sacred truths; 'Such a universal acquaintance with things will keep you from an excess of credulity and unbelief; i. e. a you from all excess of cleanly wine autocopy, i.e. a readiness to believe or deny every thing at first hearing.'

—Watts. 'One gets by heart a catalogue of title pages and editions; and immediately, to become conspicuous, declares that he is an unbeliever.'—Addison. Infidelity is taken in the worst sense for a blind and senseless perversity in refusing belief; 'Belief and pro-fession will speak a Christian but very faintly, when thy conversation proclaims thee an infidel.'-Incredulity is often a mark of wisdom, and not unfrequently a mark of the contrary; 'I am not altogether incredulous that there may be such candles as are made of salamander's wood, being a kind of mineral which whiteneth in the burning and consumeth not.'-BACON. 'The youth hears all the predictions of the aged with obstinate incredulity."—Johnson. The Jews are unbe-lievers in the mission of our Saviour; the Turks are infidels, inasmuch as they do not believe in the Biblo; Deists and Atheists are likewise infidels, inasmuch as they set themselves up against Divine revelation; wellinformed people are always incredulous of stories respecting ghosts and apparitions.

DISBELIEF, UNBELIEF

Disbelief properly implies the believing that a thing is not, or refusing to believe that it is. Unbelief expresses properly a believing the contrary of what one has believed before: disbelief is qualified as to its nature by the thing disbelieval; 'The belief or disbelief of a thing does not alter the nature of the thing.'—Titlorson. Our disbelief of the idle tales which are told b

beggars, is justified by the frequent detection of their falsehood; 'The atheist has not found his post tenable and is therefore retired into deism, and a disbelief of revealed religion only.'-Addison. compassion on Thomas for his unbelief, and gave him such evidences of his identity, as dissipated every doubt; 'The opposites to faith are unbeltaf and credudoubt; 'The oppositiv.'-Tillotson,

DOCTRINE, PRECEPT, PRINCIPLE.

Doctrine, in French doctrine, Latin doctrina, from doce to teach, signifies the thing taught; precept, from the Latin pracipio, signifies the thing laid down; and principle, in French principe, Latin principium, signifies the beginning of things, that is, their first or originate the second principium of things, that is, their first or originate the second principium of things, that is, their first or originate the second principium of things, that is, their first or originate the second principium of things, that is, their first or originate the second principium of things, that is, their first or originate the second principium of the se

nal component parts.

The doctrine requires a teacher; the precept requires a superiour with authority; the principle requires only an illustrator. The doctrine is always framed by an inustrator. The doctrine is always trained by some one; the precept is enjoined or laid down by some one; the principle lies in the thing itself. The doctrine is composed of principles; the precept rests upon principles or doctrines. Pythagoras taught the doctrine of the metempsychosis, and enjoined many precepts on his disciples for the regulation of their conduct, particularly that they should abstain from eating animal food, and be only silent hearers for the first five years of their scholarship: the former of these rules depended upon the preceding doctrine of the soul's depended upon the preceding acciring of the sours transmigration to the bodies of animals; the latter rested on that simple principle of education, the entire devotion of the scholar to the master.

We are said to believe in doctrines; to obey precepts; to imbibe or hold principles. The doctrine is

cepts; to imbibe or hold principles. The doctrine is that which enters into the composition of our faith; To make new articles of faith and doctrine no man thinketh it lawful; new laws of government what church or commonwealth is there which maketh not either at one time or other."—HOOKER. 'This seditions, unconstitutional doctrine of electing kings is now publickly taught, avowed, and printed.—Burke. The precept is that which is recommended for practice; Pythagoras's first rule directs us to worship the gods, as is ordained by law, for that is the most natural interpretation of the precept."—A prison. Both are the subjects of rational assent, and suited only to the matured understanding: principles are often admitted without examination; and imbibed as frequently from observation and circumstances, as from any direct research of the behinden as well as prometry with the property of the prop personal efforts; children as well as men get principles; 'If we had the whole history of zeal, from the days of Cain to our times, we should see it filled with so many scenes of slaughter and bloodshed, as would make a wise man very careful not to suffer himself to be actuated by such a principle, when it regards matters of opinion and speculation. —Addison.

DOCTRINE, DOGMA, TENET.

The doctrine (v. Doctrine) originates with the individual who teaches, in application to all subjects; the doctrine is whatever is taught or recommended to the belief of others; the dogma, from the Greek $\delta\delta\gamma\mu\alpha$ and $\delta\alpha\rho$ to think significants the thing the significant of the standard of the significant of the standard of th δοκέω to think, signifies the thing thought, admitted, or taken for granted; this lies with a body or number of individuals; the tenet, from the Latin teneo to hold or maintain, signifies the thing held or maintained, and is a species of principle (v. Doctrine) specifically main-The doctrine rests on the authority of the individual

by whom it is framed;

Unpractis'd he to fawn or seek for power By doctrines fashion'd to the varying hour; Far other aims his heart had learn'd to prize, More skill'd to raise the wretch'd, than to rise. GOLDSMITH.

The doma rests on the authority of the body by whom The dagma resis on the authority of the body by whom it is maintained; 'Our poet was a stoick philosopher, and all his moral sentences are drawn from the dagmas of that sect.'—Dayden. The tenet rests on its own intrinsick merits or denerits; 'One of the puritanical tenets was the illegality of all games of chance.'— Joinson. Many of the doctrines of our blessed Saviour are held by faith in him; they are subjects of persuasion by the exercise of our rational powers: the wymas of the Romish church are admitted by none

but such as admit its authority: the tenets of repuslicans, levellers, and freethinkers, have been unblushingly maintained both in publick and private.

TENET, POSITION.

The tenet (v. Doctrine) is the opinion which we hold in our own minds; the position is that which we lay down for others. Our tenets may be hurfful, our positions false. He who gives up his tenets readily evinces an unstable mind; he who argues on a false position shows more tenacity and subtlety than good The tenets of the different denominations of Christians are scarcely to be known or distinguished; they often rest upon such trivial points; 'The occasion of Luther's heing first disgusted with the tenets of the Romish church, is known to every one, the least conversant with history.'—Robertson. The positions which an author lays down must be very definite and clear when he wishes to build upon them any theory or system; 'To the position of Tully, that if virtue could be seen, she must be loved, may be added, that if truth could be heard, she must be obeyed.'—Johnson.

THEORY, SPECULATION.

Theory, from the Greek θεάομαι to behold, and specu lation, from the Latin speculor to watch for or espy, are both employed to express what is seen with the mind's eye. Theory is the fruit of reflection, it serves mind's eye. Theory is the fruit of reflection, it serves the purposes of science; practice will be incomplete when the theory is false;

True piety without cessation tost By theories, the practice past is lost .- DENHAM.

Speculation belongs more to the imagination; it has spectation beings more to the imagnation; it has therefore less to do with realities: it is that which cannot be reduced to practice, and can therefore never be brought to the test of experience; 'In all these things being fully persuaded that what they did, it was obedience to the will of God, and that all men should do the like; there remained after speculation practice whereunto the whole world might be framed.'— HOOKER. Hence it arises that theory is contrasted sometimes with the practice to designate its insufficiency to render a man complete;

True Christianity depends on fact. Religion is not theory, but act.-HARTE.

And speculation is put for that which is fanciful or 'This is a consideration not to be neglected or thought an indifferent matter of mere speculation.' Leslie. A general who is so only in theory will acquit himself miserably in the field; a religionist who is only so in speculation will make a wretched Christian.

OPINION, SENTIMENT, NOTION.

Opinion, in Latin opinio from opinor, and the Greek έπινοέω, to think or judge, is the work of the head; sentiment, from sentio to feel, is the work of the heart: notion (vide Perception) is a simple operation of the thinking faculty.

We form opinions; we have sentiments; we get notions. Opinions are formed on speculative matters; they are the result of reading, experience, or reflection: sentiments are entertained on matters of practice; they are the consequence of habits and circumstances: notions are gathered upon sensible objects, and arise out of the casualties of hearing and seeing, We have opinions on religion as respects its doctrines we have sentiments on religion as respects its practice and its precepts. The unity of the Godhead in the general sense, and the doctrine of the Trinity in the particular sense, are opinions; honour and gratitude towards the Deity, the sense of our dependence upon him, and obligations to him, are sentiments.

Opinions are more liable to errour than sentiments:

the former depend upon knowledge, and must therefore be inaccurate; the latter depend rather upon infore be inaccurate; the latter depend rather upon instinct, and a well organized frame of mind; 'Time wears out the fictions of opinion, and doth by degreea discover and unmask that fallacy of ungrounded persuasions, but confirms the dictates and sentiments of nature.'—WILKINS. Notions are still more liable to errour than either; they are the immatured decisions of the uninformed mind on the appearances of things; There is nothing made a more common subject of discourse than nature and its laws, and yet few agree in their notions about these words.'—CHEYNE.

The difference of opinion among men, on the most important questions of human life, is a sufficient evidence that the mind of man is very easily led astray in matters of opinion; 'No, cousin, (said Henry IV. when charged by the Duke of Bouillon with having changed his religion) I have changed no religion, but an opinion.'—Howel. Whatever difference of opinion there may be among Christians, there is but one sentiment of love and good-will among those who follow the example of Christ, rather than their own passions; 'There are never great numbers in any nation who can raise a pleasing discourse from their own stock of sentiments and images.'—Johnson. The notions of a Deity are so imperfect among savages in general, that they seem to amount to little more than an indistinct idea of some superiour invisible agent; 'Being we are at this time to speak of the proper nation of the church, therefore I shall not look upon it as any more than the sons of men.'—Pearson.

DEITY, DIVINITY.

Deity, from Deus a God, signifies a divine person. Divinity, from divinus, signifies the divine essence or power: the deities of the heathens had little of divinity in them; 'The first original of the drama was religious worship, consisting only of a chorus, which was nothing else but a hymn to a Deity.'—Additional the Christian faith;

The about of the Christian faith;

Why shrinks the soul

Back on herself, and startles at destruction?

'Tis the divinity that stirs within us.—Addison.

CELESTIAL, HEAVENLY.

Celestial and heavenly derive their difference in signification from their different origin: they both literally imply belonging to heaven; but the former, from the Latin calestum, signifies belonging to the heaven of heathens; the latter, which has its origin among believers in the true God, has acquired a superiour sense, in regard to heaven as the habitation of the Almighty. This distriction is pretty faithfully observed in their application: celestial is applied mostly in the natural sense of the heavens; heavenly is employed more commonly in a spiritual sense. Hence we speak of the Alstial globe as distinguished from the terrestrial, of the celestial bodies, of Olympus as the celestial abode A Jupiter, of the celestial delities;

Twice warn'd by the *celestial* messenger, The pious prince arose, with hasty fear.—Dryden. Unhappy son! (fair Thetis thus replies,

While tears celestial trickle from her eyes.)—Pope.

But on the other hand, of the heavenly habitation, of heavenly joys or bliss, of heavenly spirits and the like. There are doubtless many cases in which celestial may be used for heavenly in the moral sense;

Thus having said, the hero bound his brows
White leafy branches, then perform'd his vows;
Adoring first the genius of the place,
Then Earth, the mother of the heavenly race.
DRYDEN.

But there are cases in which heavenly cannot so properly be substituted by celestial; 'As the love of heaven makes one heavenly, the love of virtue virtuous, so deth the love of the world make one become worldly.'—Sidney. Heavenly is frequently employed in the sense of superexcellent;

But now he seiz'd Briseis' heav'nly charms, And of my valour's prize defrauds my arms.—Pope. The poets have also availed themselves of the license to use celestial in a similar sense, as occasion might serve.

TO ADORE, WORSHIP.

Adore, in French adorer, Latin adoro, or ad and oro, signifies literally to pray to. Worship, in Saxon weorthscype, is contracted from worthship, implying either the object that is worth, or the worth itself;

whence it has been employed to designate the action of doing suitable homage to the object which has worth and, by a just distinction, of paying homage to our Maker by religious rites.

Adoration, strictly speaking, is the service of the heart towards a Superiour Being, in which we acknowledge our dependence and obedience, by petition and thanksgiving: voorship consists in the outward form of showing reverence to some supposed superiour being. Adoration can with propriety be paid only to the one true God; 'Menander says, that "God, the Lord and Father of all things, is alone worthy of our humble adoration, being at once the maker and giver of all blessings." —Cumberland. But worship is offered by heathers to stocks and stones;

By reason, man a Godhead can discern, But how he should be worship'd cannot learn.

DRYDEN.

We may adore our Maker at all times and in all places, whenever the heart is lifted up towards him; but we worship him only at stated times, and according to certain rules; 'Solemn and serviceable worship we name, for distinction sake, whatsoever belongeth to the church or publick society of God, by way of external adoration.'—Hooker. Outward signs are but secondary in the act of adoration; and in divine worship there is often nothing existing but the outward form. We seldom adore without worshipping; but we too frequently worship without adoring.

TØ ADORE, REVERENCE, VENERATE, REVERE.

Adoration has been before considered only in relation to our Maker; it is here employed in an improper and extended application to express, in the strongest possible manner, the devotion of the mind towards sensible objects: Reverence, in Latin reverentia, reverence or awe, implies to show reverence, from revereor, to stand in awe of: Venerate, in Latin veneratus, participle of reneror, probably from venere beauty, signifying to hold in very high esteem for its superiour qualities: revere is another form of the same verb.

Reverence is equally engendered by the contemplation of superiority in a being, whether of the Supreme Being, as our Creator, or any earthly being as our parent. It differs, however, from adoration, in as much as it has a nixture of itear arising from the consciousness of weakness and dependence, or of obligation for favours received; 'The fear acceptable to God, is a flital fear, an awful veverence of the Divine Nature, proceeding from a just esteem for his perfections, which produces in us an inclination to his service, and an unwillingness to offend him.'—ROGERS.

To revere and venerate are applied only to human beings, and that not so much from the relation we stand in to them, as from their characters and endow ments; on which account these two latter terms are applicable to inanimate as well as animate objects.

applicable to inanimate as well as animate objects.

Adoration in this case, as in the former, essentially requires no external form of expression; it is best expressed by the devotion of the individual to the service of him whom he adores; ""There is no end of his greatness." The most exalted creature he has made is only capable of adoring it; none but himself can comprehend it."—Additions. Reverencing our Maker is altogether an inward feeling; but reverencing our parents includes in it an outward expression of our sentiments by our deportment towards them;

The war protracted, and the siege delay'd, Were due to Hector's and this hero's hand, Both brave alike, and equal in command; Æneas, not inferiour in the field,

In pious reverence to the gods excell'd .-- DRYDEN

Revering and venerating are confined to the breast of the individual, but they may sometimes display them selves in suitable acts of homage.

Good princes are frequently adored by their subjects: it is a part of the Christian character to reverence our spiritual pastors and masters, as well as all temporal authorities; 'It seems to be remarkable that death increases our veneration for the good, and extenuates our hatred of the bad.'—JOHNSON. We ought to venerate all truly good men while living, and to revere their memories when they are dead:

And had not men the hoary head rever'd, And boys paid reverence when a man appear'd, Both must have died, though richer skins they wore, And saw more heaps of acorns in their store

CREECH.

OFFERING, OBLATION.

Offering, from offer, and oblation, from oblatio and Offering, from offer, and obtains, from obtains and obtains or offutus, come both from offers (v. To offer): the former is however a term of much more general and familiar use than the latter. Offerings are both moral and religious; obtains, in the proper sense, is religious only; the money which is put into the sacramental plate is an offering; the consecrated bread and wine at the sacrament is an obtains. The offering, in a religious sense, is whatever one offers as a gift by way of reverence to a superiour;

They are polluted offerings, more abhorr'd Than spotted livers in the sacrifice SHAKSPEARR.

The winds to heav'n the curling vapours bore, Ungrateful off'ring to the immortal pow'rs, Whose wrath hung heavy o'er the Trojan tow'rs.

The oblation is the offering which is accompanied with some particular ceremony; 'Many conceive in the oblation of Jephtha's daughter, not a natural but a civil kind of death."—Brown. The wise men made an offering to our Saviour; but not properly an obla-tion; the Jewish sacrifices, as in general all religious sacrifices, were in the proper sense oblations. The term oblation, in a figurative sense, may be as generally applied as offering;

Ye mighty princes, your oblations bring, And pay due honours to your awful king .- PITT. The kind oblation of a falling tear.- DRYDEN.

MALEDICTION, CURSE, IMPRECATION, EXECRATION, ANATHEMA.

Malediction, from male and dico, signifies a saying ill, that is, declaring an evil wish against a person: curse, in Saxon kursian, comes in all probability from the Greek κυρόω, to sanction or ratify, signifying a bad wish declared upon oath, or in a solemn manner: imprecation, from im and preco, signifies a praying down evil upon a person: execration, from the Latin exeeror, that is, & sacris excludere, signifies the same as to excommunicate, with every form of solemn imprecation: anotherms, in Greek $a\nu d\theta \epsilon \mu a$, signifies a setting out, that is, a putting out of a religious community by way of penance.

The malediction is the most indefinite and general term, signifying simply the declaration of evil: curse is a solemn denunciation of evil: the former is emis a solemn demunciation of evil: the former is employed mostly by men; the latter by God or man: the rest are species of the curse pronounced only by man. The malediction is caused by simple anger: the curse is occasioned by some grievous offence: men, in the heat of their passions, will utter maledictions against any object that offends them; With many praises of his good play, and many maledictions on the power of chance, he took up the cards and threw them in the fire. MACKENSIE. God pronounced a curse upon Adam, and all bis posterity, after the fall: Adam, and all his posterity, after the fall;

But know, that ere your promis'd walls you build, My curses shall severely be fulfill'd.—DRYDEN.

The curse differs in the degree of evil pronounced or wished; the imprecation and execution always imply some positive great evil, and, in fact, as much evil as can be conceived by man in his anger; 'Thus either host their imprecations join'd.'—Pope. The The anathema respects the evil which is pronounced according to the canon law, by which a man is not only put out of the church, but held up as an object of The malediction is altogether an unallowed offence. expression of private resentment; the curse was admitted, in some cases, according to the Mosaic law and that, as well as the anathema, at one time formed a part of the ecclesiastical discipline of the Christian church; 'The bare anathemas of the church fall like so many bruta fulmina upon the obstinate and schismatical.'—Sourn. The imprecation formed a part of the heathenish ceremony of religion, whereby they

invoked the Diræ to bring down every evil on the heads of their enemies. They had different formulas of speech for different occasions, as to an enemy on his departure; 'Abeas nunquam rediturus.' Mela informs us that the Abrantes, a people of Africa, used to salute the rising and setting sun after this manner.

The execution is always the informal expression of the most violent personal anger; 'I have seen in Bedlam a man that has held up his face in a posture of adoration towards heaven to utter execrations and blasphemies.'-Sfeele.

TEMPLE, CHURCH.

These words designate an edifice destined for the exercise of religion, but with collateral ideas, which sufficiently distinguish them from each other. The templum of the Latin signified originally an open elevated spot marked out by the augurs with their lituus, or sacred wand, whence they could best survey the heavens on all sides; the idea, therefore, of spa-cious, open, and elevated, enters into the meaning of this word in the same manner as it does in the Hebrew word היכל, derived from הובל, which in the Arabick signifies great and lofty. The Greek אים, from אים to inhabit, signifies a dwelling-place, and by distinction the dwelling-place of the Almighty, in which sense the the dwelling-place of the Almignly, in which sense the Hebrew word is also taken to denote the high and holy place where Jehovah peculiarly dwelleth, other-wise called the holy heavens, Jehovah's dwelling or resting-place; whence St. Paul calls our bodies the temples of God when the spirit of God dwelleth in us. The Roman poets used the word templum in a similar sense:

- Cœli tonitralia templa.-Lucret. (Lib. I.) Qui templa cœli summa sonitu concutit.

TERENT. (Eun.)

Contremuit templum magnum Jovis altitonantis.

The word temple, therefore, strictly signifies a spacious open place set apart for the peculiar presence and worship of the Divine Being, and is applied with peculiar propriety to the sacred edifices of the Jews.

Church, which, through the medium of the Saxon circe, cyric, and the German kirche, is derived from the Greek κυριακός, signifying literally what belonged to $\kappa i \rho_{000}$, the Lord; whence it became a word among the earliest Christians for the Lord's Supper, the Lord's day, the Lord's house, and also for an assembly of the faithful, and is still used in the two latter meaning. 'That churches were consecrated unto none but the Lord only, the very general name chiefly doth sufficiently show; church doth signify no other thing than the Lord's house.'—HOOKER. 'The church being a supernatural society, doth differ from natural societies in this; that the persons unto whom we associate ourselves in the one, are men simply considered as men; but they to whom we be joined in the other, are God, angels, and holy men.'-HOOKER. The word church, having acquired a specifick meaning, is never used by the poets, or in a general application like the word temple; 'Here we have no temple but the wood, no assembly but horn-beasts.'—Shakspeare. On the other hand, it has a diversity of particular meanings; being taken sometimes in the sense of the ecclesiastical power in distinction from the state, sometimes for holy orders, &c.

TO DEDICATE, DEVOTE, CONSECRATE, HALLOW.

Dedicate, in Latin dedicatus, participle from de and dice, signifies to set apart by a promise; devote, in Latin devotus, participle from devovee, signifies to vow for an express purpose; consecrate, in Latin consecratus, from consecro or con and sacre, signifies to make sacred by a special act; hallow from holy, or the German heilig, signifies to make holy.

There is something more positive in the act of dedicating than in that of devoting; but less so than in that

To dedicate and devote may be employed in both temporal and spiritual matters; to consecrate and hallow only in the spiritual sense; we may dedicate on devote any thing that is at our disposal to the service of some object; but the former is employed mostly in regard to superiours, and the latter to persons without distinction of rank: we dedicate a house to the service of God;

Warn'd by the seer, to her offended name We raise and dedicate this wond'rous frame. DRYDEN.

Or we devote our time to the benefit of our friends, or the relief of the poor; 'Gilbert West settled himself in a very pleasant house at Wickham in Kent, where he devoted himself to piety.'—Johnson. We may dedicate or devote ourselves to an object; but the former always implies a solemn setting apart, springing from a sense of duty; the latter an entire application of one's self from zeal and affection; in this manner he who dedicates himself to God abstracts himself from every object which is not immediately connected with the service of God; he who devotes himself to the ministry pursues it as the first object of his attention and regard; such a dedication of ourself is hardly consistent with our other duties as members of society; but a devotion of one's powers, one's time, and one's knowledge to the spread of religion among men is one of the most honourable and sacred kinds of devotion.

To consecrate is a species of formal dedication by vitue of a religious observance; it is applicable mostly to places and things connected with religious works; 'The greatest conqueror in this holy nation did not only compose the works of his divine odes, but generally set them to musick himself; after which his works, though they were consecrated to the tabernacle, became the national entertainment.'—Addison Hallow is a species of informal consecrated; particular days are injects: the clurch is consecrated; particular days are

sallowed;

Without the walls a ruin'd temple stands, To Ceres hallowed once.—DRYDEN.

FORM, CEREMONY, RITE, OBSERVANCE.

Form in nis sense respects the form or manner of the action; ceremony, in Latin ceremona, is supposed to signify the rites of Ceres; rite, in Latin ritus, is probably changed from ratus, signifying a custom that a observed to observe the results of the rites of the results of the rites of t

All these terms are employed with regard to particular modes of action in civil society. Form is here the most general in its sense and application; ceremony, rite, and observance are particular kinds of form, suited to particular cocasions. Form, in its distinct application, respects all modes of acting and speaking, that are adopted by society at large, in every transaction of life; ceremony respects those forms of outward behaviour which are made the expressions of respect and deference; rite and observance are applied to national ceremonies in matters of religion. A certain form is requisite for the sake of order, method, and decorum, in every social matter, whether in affairs of state, in a court of law, in a place of worship, or in the private intercourse of friends. So long as distinctions are admitted in society, and men are agreed to express their sentiments of regard and respect to each other, it will be necessary to preserve the ceremonies of politeness which have been established. Every country has adopted certain rites founded upon its peculiar religious faith, and prescribed certain observances by which individuals could make a publick profession of their faith. Administering oaths by the magistrate is a necessary form in law; 'A long table and a square table, or seat about the walls, seem things of form, but are things of substance; for at a long table, a few at the upper end, in effect, sway all the business: but in the other form, there is more use of the counsellors' opinions that sit lower.'—Bacon. Kissing the king's hand 'ka ceremony practised at court;

And what have kings that privates have not too, Save ceremony?—SHAKSPEARE.

Baptism is one rite of initiation into the Christians church, and confirmation another; prayer, reading the Scriptures, and preaching are different religious observances.

As respects religion, the forms the established practice, comprehending the rite, ceremony, and observance, but the word is mostly applied to that which is external, and suited for a community; 'He who affirmeth speech to be necessary among all men throughout the world doth not thereby import that all men unust necessarily speak one language; even so the necessity of polity and regimen in all churches may be held without holding any one certain form to be necessary in them all. —HOOKER. The ceremony may be said either of an individual or a community; the rite is said only of a community; the observance, more properly of the individual either in publick or private. The ceremony of kneeling during the time of prayer is the most becoming posture for a suppliant, whether in publick or private;

Bring her up to the high altar, that she may The sacred ceremonies there partake.—Spenser

The discipline of a Christian church consists in its rites, to which every member, either as a layman or a priest, is obliged to conform;

Live thou to mourn thy love's unhappy fate, To bear my mangled body from the foe,

Or buy it back, and fun'ral rites bestow.—Dryden.

Publick worship is an observance which no Christian thinks himself at liberty to neglect; 'Incorporated minds will always feel some inclination towards exteriour acts and ritual observances.'—Johnson.

riour acts and iliual observances.'—Johnson.

It betrays either gross ignorance or wilful impertinence, in the man who sets at nought any of the established forms of society, particularly in religious matters; 'You may discover tribes of men without policy, or laws, or cities, or any of the arts of life; but no where will you find them without some form of religion.'—Blair. When ceremonies are too numerous, they destroy the ease of social intercourse; but the absence of ceremony destroys all deency; 'Not to use ceremonies at all, is to teach others not to use them again, and so diminish respect to himself.'—Bacon. In publick worship the excess of ceremony is apt to extinguish the warmth and spirit of devotion; but the want of ceremony derives it of all solemnity.

LORD'S SUPPER, EUCHARIST, COMMUNION, SACRAMENT.

The Lord's supper is a term of 'amiliar and general use among Christrus, as designating in literal terms the supper of our Lord; that is, either the last solemn supper which he took with his disciples previous to his crucifixion, or the commemoration of that event which conformably to his commands has been observed by conformably on the commands has been observed by the professors of Christianity; 'To the worthy participation of the Lord's supper, there is indispensably required a suitable preparation.'—South. Encharist is a term of peculiar use among the Roman Catholicks, from the Greek evaps(\omega to give thanks, because personal adoration, by way of returning thanks, constitutes in their estimation the chief part of the ceremony; 'This ceremony of feasting belongs most proceed both to previous up to the persons. perly both to marriage and to the eucharist, as both of them have the nature of a covenant.'—South. As the social affections are kept alive mostly by the common participation of meals, so is brotherly love, the essence of Christian fellowship, cherished and warmed in the highest degree by the common participation in this holy festival: hence, by distinction, it has been denominated the communion; 'One woman he could not bring to the communion, and when he reproved or exhorted her, she only answered that she was no scholar.'-Johnson. As the vows which are made at the altar of our Lord are the most solemn which a devotion of himself to Christ, the general term sagra-ment, signifying an oath, has been employed by we're of emphasis for this ordinance; 'I could not have the consent of the physicians to go to church yesterday; I therefore received the holy sacrament at home.'JOHNSON. The Roman Catholicks have employed JOHNSON. the same term to six other ordinances; but the Pro-testants, who attach a similar degree of sacredness to no other than baptism, annex this appellation only to these two.

MARRIAGE, WEDDING, NUPTIALS.

Marriage, from to marry, denotes the act of marry ing; wording and nuptials denote the ceremony obeing recried. As marry, in French marrier, comes from the Latin marito to be joined to a male; hence

marriage comprehends the act of choosing and being marriage comprehensing the act of crossing and being legally bound to a man or a woman: weedding, from weed, and the Teutonick weetten, to promise or betroth, implies the ceremony of marriage, inasmuch as it is binding upon the parties. Nuptials comes from the Latin nubo to veil, because the Roman ladies were veiled at the time of marriage; hence the word has been put for the whole ceremony itself. Marriage is a general term, which conveys no collateral meaning.

Marriage is an institution which, by those who have been blessed with the light of Divine revelation, has always been considered as sacred;

O fatal maid! thy marriage is endow'd With Phrygian, Latian, and Rutulian blood.

Wedding has always a reference to the ceremony; with some persons, particularly among the lower orders of society, the day of their wedding is converted into a day of riot and intemperance; 'Ask any one how he has been employed to-day; he will tell you, perhaps, I have been at the ceremony of taking the manly robe: this friend invited me to a wedding; that de-sired me to attend the hearing of his cause. —Mel-Moth (Letters of Pliny). Nuptials may either be used in a general or particular import; among the Roman Catholicks in England it is a practice for them to have their nuptials solemnized by a priest of their own persuasion as well as by the Protestant clergyman;

Fir'd with disdain for Turnus dispossess'd, And the new nuptials of the Trojan guest.—DRYDEN.

MARRIAGE, MATRIMONY, WEDLOCK.

Marriage (v. Marriage) is oftener an act than a state; matrimony and wedlock both describe states

Marriage is taken in the sense of an act, when we speak of the laws of marriage, the day of one's marspeak of the laws of marriage, the day of one's marriage, at congratulations upon one's marriage, as happy or unhappy marriage, &c.; 'Marriage is rewarded with some honourable distinctions which celibacy is forbidden to usurp. —Johnson. It is taken in the sense of a state, when we speak of the pleasures or pains of marriage; but in this latter case, matri-mony, which signifies a married life abstractedly from many, which sends a state of the sends all agents or acting persons, is preferable; so likewise, to think of matrimony, and to enter into the holy state of matrimony, are expressions founded upon the signification of the term. As matrimony is derived from mater a mother, because married women are in general mothers, it has particular reference to the domestick state of the two parties; broils are but too frequently the fruits of matrimony, yet there are few cases in which they might not be obviated by the good sense of those who are engaged in them. Hasty marriages cannot be expected to produce happiness; young people who are eager for matrimony before they are fully aware of its consequences will purchase their experience at the expense of their peace; 'As love generally produces matrimony, so it often happens that matrimony produces love.'—Spectator.

Wedlock is the old English word for matrimony, and is in consequence admitted in law, when one speaks of children born in wedlock; agreeably to its deriva-tion it has a reference to the bond of union which follows the marriage: hence one speaks of living hap pily in a state of wedlock, of being joined in holy wedlock; 'The men who would make good hysbards' is ock; 'The men who would make good husbands, if they visit publick places, are frighted at wedlock and resolve to live single.'—Johnson.

FUNERAL, OBSEQUIES.

Funeral, in Latin funus, is derived from funis a cord, because lighted cords, or torches, were carried before the bodies which were interred by night; the funeral, therefore, denotes the ordinary solemnity which attends the consignment of a body to the grave. Obsequies, in Latin exequies, are both derived from sequor, which, in its compound sense, significs to per-

form or execute; they comprehend, therefore, funerals attended with more than ordinary solemnity.

We speak of the funeral as the last sad office which we perform for a friend; it is accompanied by nothing but by mourning and sorrow;

That pluck'd my nerves, those tender strings of life, Which, pluck'd a little more, will toll the bell That calls my few friends to my funeral.—Young.

We speak of the obsequies as the tribute of respect

which can be paid to the person of one who was high in station or publick esteem;

His body shall be royally interr'd. I will, myself,

Be the chief mourner at his obsequies .- DRYDEN

The funeral, by its frequency, becomes so familiar an object that it passes by unheeded; the obsequies which are performed over the remains of the great, attract our notice from the pomp and grandeur with which they are conducted. The funeral is performed for one immediately after his decease; but the obsequies may be performed at any period afterward, and in this sense is not confined alone to the great;

Some in the flow'r-strewn grave the corpse have lay'd, And annual obsequies around it paid.—Jenyns.

BURIAL, INTERMENT, SEPULTURE.

Burial, from bury, in Saxon birian, birigan, Ger man bergen, signifies, in the original sense, to conceal man bergen, signifies, in the original sense, to concear Interment, from inter, compounded of in and terra, signifies the putting into the ground. Sepulture, in French sepulture, Latin sepultura, from sepultus, participle of sepelio to bury, comes from sepes 2 hedge, signifying an enclosure, and probably likewiso from the Hebrew שבת to put to rest, or in a state

of privacy.

Under burial is comprehended simply the purpose of the action; under interment and sepulture, the manner as well as the motive of the action. We bury in order to conceal; 'Among our Saxon ancestors, th dead bodies of such as were slain in the field were not laid in graves; but lying upon the ground were covered with turves or clods of earth, and the more in reputation the persons had been, the greater and higher were the turves raised over their bodies. This some used to call briging, some beorging of the dead; all being one thing though differently pronounced, and from whence we yet retain our speech of burying the dead, that is, hiding the dead.—Verstean Interment and sepulture are accompanied with reli

gious ceremonies.

*Bury is confined to no object or place; we bury whatever we deposite in the earth, and wherever we please:

When he lies along After your way his tale pronounc'd, shall bury His reasons with his body. - SHAKSPEARE.

But interment and sepulture respect only the bodies of the deceased when deposited in a sacred place.

Burnal requires that the object be conceded under

ground; interment may be used for depositing in

vaults. Self-murderers are buried in the highways;

Chrisians in general are buried in the church-yard;

If you have kindness left, there see me laid; To bury decently the injur'd maid Is all the favour.—WALLER.

The kings of England were formerly interred in West minster Abbey;

His body shall be royally interr'd, And the last funeral pomps adorn his hearse DRYDEN.

Burial is a term in familiar use; interment serves frequently as a more elegant expression;

But good Æneas ordered on the shore

A stately tomb, whose top a trumpet bore; Thus was his friend interr'd, and deathless fame Still to the lofty cape consigns his name. - DRYDEN.

Sepulture is an abstract term confined to particular cases, as in speaking of the rights and privileges of sepulture;

Ah! leave me not for Grecian dogs to tear, The common rites of sepulture bestow; To sooth a father's and a mother's wo Let their large gifts procure an urn at least, And Hector's ashes in his country rest .- POPE

* Vide Trussler: "To bury, inter."

Interment and sepulture never depart from their by idleness; 'Many worthy persons urged how great religious import; bury is used figuratively for other objects and purposes. A man is said to bury himself alive who shuts himself out from the world; he is said to bury the talent of which he makes no use, or to bury in oblivion what he does not wish to call to mind;

This is the way to make the city flat And bury all, which yet distinctly ranges In heaps and piles of ruin .- SHAKSPEARE.

Inter is on one occasion applied by Shakspeare also to other objects;

> The evil that men do lives after them, The good is oft interred with their bones. SHAKSPEARE.

BEATIFICATION, CANONIZATION.

These are two acts emanating from the pontifical authority, by which the Pope declares a person, whose life has been exemplary and accompanied with mira-cles, as entitled to enjoy eternal happiness after his death, and determines in consequence the sort of worship which should be paid to him.

In the act of beatification the Pope pronounces only as a private person, and uses his own authority only in granting to certain persons, or to a religious order, the privilege of paying a particular worship to a beati-

fied object

In the act of canonization, the Pope speaks as a judge after a judicial examination on the state, and decides the sort of worship which ought to be paid by the whole

FEAST, FESTIVAL, HOLIDAY.

Feast, in Latin festum, or festus, changed most probably from festæ, or feriæ, which, in all probability, comes from the Greek [ερδς, sacred, because these days were kept sacred or vacant from all secular labour: festival and holiday, as the words themselves denote, have precisely the same meaning in their original sense, with this difference, that the former derives its origin from heathenish superstition, the latter owes its rise to the establishment of Christianity in its reformed state.

A feast, in the Christian sense of the word, is applied to every day, except Sundays, which are regarded as sacred, and observed with particular solemnity; a holyday, or, according to its modern orthography, a holiday, is simply a day on which the ordinary business is suspended: among the Roman Catholicks, there are many days which are kept holy, and consequently by them denominated feasts, which in the English reformed church are only observed as holidays, or days of exemption from publick business; of this description are the Saints' days, on which the publick offices are shut: on the other hand, Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, are regarded in both churches more as feasts than as holidays.

Feast, as a technical term, is applied only to certain specified holidays,

First, I provide myself a nimble thing, To be my page, a varlet of all crafts; Next, two new suits for feasts and gala days. CUMBERLAND.

A holiday is an indefinite term, it may be employed for any day or time in which there is a suspension of business; there are, therefore, many feasts where there are no holidays, and many holidays where there are no feasts: a feast is altogether sacred; a holiday has frequently nothing sacred in it, not even in its cause; it may be a simple, ordinary transaction, the act of an individual;

It happen'd on a summer's holiday, That to the green wood shade he took his way. DRVDEN.

festival has always either a sacred or a serious object; 'In so enlightened an age as the present, I shall perhaps be ridiculed if I hint, as my opinion, that the observation of certain festivals is something more than a mere political institution.'—Walpole. A feast is kept by religious worship; a holiday is kept

* Girard: "Beatification, canonization."

by the harmony was between the holidays and their attri-butes (if I may call them so), and what a confusion would follow if Michaelmas-day, for instance, was would lollow it Michaelmas-day, for instance, was not to be celebrated when stubble geese are in their highest perfection.'—Walpole. A festival is kept by mirth and festivity: some feasts are festivals, as in the case of the carnival at Rome; some festivals are holidays, as in the case of weddings and publick thereferities. thanksgivings.

CLERGYMAN, PARSON, PRIEST, MINISTER.

Clergyman, altered from clerk, clericus, signified Clergyman, altered from clerk, clericus, signified any one holding a regular office, and by distinction one who held the holy office; parson is either changed from person, that is, by distinction the person who spiritually presides over a parish, or contracted from parochianus; priest, in German, &c. priester, is contracted from presbyter, in Grewk πρεσβυτερος, signifying an elder who holds the sacerdotal office; minister, in Latin minister, a servant, from minus, less or inferior, significal literally one who performs a subordinate office. signifies literally one who performs a subordinate office, and has been extended in its meaning, to signify generally one who officiates or performs an office.

The word clergyman applies to such as are regularly bred according to the forms of the national religion, and applies to none else. In this sense we speak of the English, the French, and Scotch clergy, without distinction; 'By a clergyman I mean one in holy orders.'— STEKLE. 'To the time of Edward III. it is probable that the French and English languages subsisted to-gether throughout the kingdom; the higher orders, both of the clergy and laity, speaking almost universally French; the lower retaining the use of their native tongue.—Tyrkwaitt. A parson is a species of cler-gyman, who ranks the highest in the three orders of inferiour clergy; that is, parson, vicar, and curate; the parson being a technical term for the rector, or him who holds the living: in its technical sense it has now acquired a definite use; but in general conversation it is become almost a nickname. The word clergyman is always substituted for parson in polite society. When priest respects the Christian religion it is a species of clergyman, that is, one who is ordained to officiate at the altar in distinction from the deacon, who is only an assistant to the priest. But the term priest has likewise an extended meaning in reference to such as hold the sacerdotal character in any form of religion, as the *priests* of the Jews, or those of the Greeks, Romans, Indians, and the like; 'Call a man a *priest*, or *parson*, and you set him in some men's esteem ten deparson, and you set thin in some men's esteen ten degrees below his own servant."—South. A minister is one who actually or habitually officiates. Clergymen are therefore not always strictly ministers; nor are all ministers clergymen. If a clergyman delegates his functions altogether he is not a minister; cor is he who presides over a dissenting congregation a clergy-man. In the former case however it would be included. man. In the former case, however, it would be invidious to deprive the clergyman of the name of minister of the gospel, but in the latter case it is a misuse of the term clergyman to apply it to any minister who does not officiate according to the form of an established religion;

With leave and honour enter our ahodes, Ye sacred ministers of men and gods.-Pope.

BISHOPRICK, DIOCESS.

Bishoprick, compounded of bishop and rick or reich empire, signifies the empire or government of a bishop: Diocess, in Greek διοίχησις, compounded of δια and δικέω, signifies an administration throughout.

Both these words describe the extent of an episcopal jurisdiction; the first with relation to the person who officiates, the second with relation to the charge: There may, therefore, be a bishoprick, either where there are many diocesses or no diocess; but according there are many uncesses, of the decess, to the import of the term, there is properly no diocess where there is no bishoprick. When the jurisdiction is merely titular, as in countries where the Catholick is merely itular, as in countries winere the cathorick religion is not recognised, it is a bishoprick, but not a diocess. On the other hand, the bishoprick of Rome or that of an archbishop comprehends all the diocesses of the subordinate bishops. Hence it arises that when we speak of the ecclesiastical distribution of a country, we term the divisions bishopricks; but when we speak

England is t of the actual office, we term it a diocess. divided into a certain number of bishopricks, not dio-Every bishop visits his diocess, not his beshop. rick, at stated intervals.

ECCLESIASTICK, DIVINE, THEOLOGIAN.

An ecclesiastick derives his title from the office which An eccessastic derives his the thoring which he bears in the eccles are church; a divine and theologian from their pursuit after, or engagement in, divine or theological matters. An ecclesiastick is connected with an episcopacy; a divine or theologian is not essentially connected with any form of church government.

An ecclesiastick need not in his own person perform any office, although he fills a station: a divine not only fills a station, but actually performs the office of teaching; a theologian neither fills any particular station, nor discharges any specifick duty, but merely fol-lows the pursuit of studying theology. An ecclesiastick is not always a divine, nor a divine an ecclesiastick; a divine is always more or less a theologian, but every

theologian is not a divine.

Among the Roman Catholicks all monks, and in the Church of England the various dignitaries who perform the episcopal functions, are entitled ecclesiasticks; Our old English monks seldom let any of their kings depart in peace, who had endeavoured to diminish the power or wealth of which the ecclesiasticks were in those times possessed.'-Addison. There are but few denominations of Christians who have not appointed teachers who are called divines; 'Nor shall I dwell on our excellence in metaphysical speculations; because, he that reads the works of our divines will easily dis-cover how far human subtilty has been able to penecover now lar numan southly has been able to gene-trate."—Johnson. Professors or writers on theology are peculiarly denominated theologians; 'I looked on that sermon (of Dr. Price's) as the publick declaration of a man much connected with literary caballers. intrigning philosophers, and political theologians. BURKE.

CLOISTER, CONVENT, MONASTERY.

Cloister, in French * cloitre, from the word clos close, signifies a certain close place in a convent, or an enclosure of houses for canons, or in general a religious house ; convent, from the Latin conventus, a meeting, and convenio to come together, signifies a religious as sembly; monastery, in French monastère, signifies a habitation for monks, from the Greek μόνος alone.

The proper idea of closter is that of seclusion; the

proper idea of convent is that of community; the proper idea of a manustern is that of solitude. One is slut idea of a monastery is that of solitude. up in a cloister, put into a convent, and retires to a

monastery.

Whoever wishes to take an absolute leave of the world, shuts himself up in a cloister;

Some solitary cloister will I choose, And there with holy virgins live immur'd. DRYDEN.

Whoever wishes to attach himself to a community that has renounced all commerce with the world, goes into a convent; 'Nor were the new abbots less industrious to stock their convents with foreigners.'-Tyrwhite. Whoever wishes to shun all human inter-course retires to a monastery; 'I drove my suitor to forswear the full stream of the world, and to live in a nook merely monastick.'-Shakspeare.

In the cloister our liberty is sacrificed: in the convent our worldly habits are renounced, and those of a regular religious community being adopted, we submit to the yoke of established orders; in a monastery we impose a sort of voluntary exile upon ourselves; we live with

the view of living only to God.

In the ancient and true monasteries, the members divided their time between contemplation and labour; but as population increased, and towns multiplied, monasteries were, properly speaking, succeeded by convents.

In ordinary discourse, closster is employed in an absolute and indefinite manner: we speak of the cloister to designate a monastick state; as entering a cloister;

* Vide Abbe Roubaud: "Cloitre, convent, monastère.

burying one's self in a cloister; penances and mortifi cations are practised in a cloister; but it is not the same thing when we speak of the cloister of the Bensdictines and of their monastery; or the claster of the Capuchins and their convent.

CONVERT, PROSELYTE.

Convert, from the Latin converto, signifies changed to something in conformity with the views of another; proselyte, from the Greek προσήλυτος and προσέρχομαι, signifies come over to the side of another.

Convert is more extensive in its sense and application than proselyte: connert in its full sense includes every change of opinion, without respect to the subject; proselyte in its strict sense refers only to changes from one religious belief to another: there are many converts to particular doctrines of Christianity, and proselytes from the Pagan, Jewish, or Mahomedan, to the Christian faith: there are political as well as religious converts, who could not with the same strict propriety be termed

Conversion is a more voluntary act than proselytism; it emanates entirely from the mind of the agent, independent of foreign influence; it extends not merely to the abstract or speculative opinions of the individual, but to the whole current of his feelings and spring of his actions: it is the conversion of the heart and soul. Proselytism is an outward act, which need not extend beyond the conformity of one's words and actions to a certain rule; convert is therefore always taken in a good sense: it bears on the face of it the stamp of sin ' A believer may be excused by the most hardened atheist for endeavouring to make him a convert, because he does it with an eye to both their interests.'-Addison. Proselyte is a term of more ambiguous meaning; the proselyte is often the creature and tool of a party; there may be many proselytes where there are no converts; 'False teachers commonly make use of base, and low, and temporal considerations, of little tricks and devices, to make disciples and gain proselytes.'-TILLOTSON.

The conversion of a sinner is the work of God's grace, either by his special interposition, or by the ordinary influence of his Holy Word on the heart; it is an act of great presumption, therefore, in those men who rest so strongly on their own particular modes and forms in bringing about this great work: they may without any breach of charity be suspected of rather wishing to make proselytes to their own party.

TO TRANSFIGURE, TRANSFORM, METAMORPHOSE.

Transfigure is to make to pass over into another figure; transform and metamorphose is to put into another form; the former being said mostly of spiritual beings, and particularly in reference to our Saviour; the other two terms being applied to that which has a corporeal form.

Transformation is commonly applied to that which changes its outward form; in this manner a harlequin transforms himself into all kinds of shapes and likenesses:

Something you have heard Of Hamlet's transformation; so I call it, Since not the exteriour, nor the inward man Resembles what it was .- SHAKSPRARE.

Sometimes however the word is applied to moral objects; 'Can a good intention, or rather a very wicked one so miscalled, transform perjury and hypocrisy into merit and perfection?—South. Metamorphosis is applied to the form internal as well as external, that is, to the whole nature; in this manner Ovid describes among others, the motamorphoses of Narcissus into a flower, and Daphne into a laurel: with the same idea we may speak of a rustick being metamorphosed, by the force of art, into a fine gentleman; 'A lady's shift may be metamorphosed into billets-doux, and come into her possession a second time."—Addison. Transfiguration is frequently taken for a painting of our Saviour's transfiguration; 'We have of this gentleman a piece of the transfiguration, which I think is held a work second to none in the world.'-STEELE.

Prayer, from the Latin preco, and the Greek mapa and ευχομαι to pray, is a general term, including the common idea of application to some person for any common idea of application to some person for any favour to be granted; petition, from peto to seek; request, from the Latin requisitus and require, or re, and quæro to look after, or seek for with desire; en treaty, from the French en and traiter, signifying to act upon; suit, from sue, in French suivere, Latin sequer to follow after; denote different modes of prayer, varying in the circumstances of the action and

the object acted upon.

The prayer is made more commonly to the Supreme Being; the petition is made more generally to one's fellow-creatures; we may, however, pray our fellow-creatures, and petition our Creator: the prayer is made for every thing which is of the first importance to us as living beings; the petition is made for that which may satisfy our desires: hence our prayers to the Al-mighty respect all our circumstances as moral and responsible agents; our petitions respect the temporary circumstances of our present existence. When the term prayer is applied to one's fellow-creatures it carries with it the idea of earnestness and submission; Prayer among men is supposed a means to change the person to whom we pray; but prayer to God doth not change him, but fits us to receive the things prayed for.'-STILLINGFLEET.

Torture him with thy softness, Nor till thy prayers are granted set him free. OTWAY.

The petition and request are alike made to our fellowcreatures; but the former is a publick act, in which many express their wishes to the Supreme Authority : the latter is an individual act between men in their private relations; the people petition the king or the parliament; a school of boys petition their master;

She takes petitions, and dispenses laws, Hears and determines every private cause

DRVDEN.

A child makes a request to its parent; one friend makes a request to another;

Thus spoke Ilioneus; the Trojan crew, With cries and clamours his request renew

DRYDEN.

The request marks an equality, but the entreaty defines no condition; it differs, however, from the former in the nature of the object and the mode of preferring: the request is but a simple expression; the enthe request is out a simple expression; the entreaty is urgent: the request may be made in trivial matters; the entreaty is made in matters that deeply interest the feelings: we make the request of a friend to lend a book; we use every entreaty in order to discovered. vert a person from the purpose which we think detrimental: one complies with a request; one yields to entreaties. It was the dying request; one state they would sacrifice a cock to Asculapius; Regulus was deaf to every entreaty of his friends, who wished him not to return to Carthage; 'Arguments, entreaties, and promises were employed in order to sooth them (the followers of Cortes).'—ROBERTSON.

The suit is a higher kind of prayer, varying both in the nature of the subject, and the character of the agent. A gentleman pays his suit to a lady; a courtier makes his suit to the prince; 'Scidom or never is there much spoke, whenever any one comes to prefer a suit to another.'—South.

TO ATONE FOR, EXPIATE.

Atone, or at one, signifies to be in unity, at peace. or good friends; expiate, in Latin expiatus, participle of expio, compounded of ex and pio, signifies to put

out or make clear by an act of piety.

Both these terms express a satisfaction for an offence; but atone is general, expiate is particular. may atone for a fault by any species of suffering: we exprate a crime only by suffering a legal punishment. A female often sufficiently atones for her violation of chastity by the misery she entails on herself;

O let the blood, already spilt, atone
For the past crimes of curs'd Laomedon.—DRYDEN

PRAYER, PETITION, REQUEST, ENTREATY, There are too many unfortunate wretches in England who expitate their crimes on a gallows;

How sacred ought kings' lives be held,

When but the death of one

Demands an empire's blood for expiation .- LEE

Neither atonement nor expiation always necessarily require punishment or even suffering from the offender. The nature of the atonement depends on the will of the individual who is offended; and oftentimes the word implies simply an equivalent given or offered for something; 'I would earnestly desire the story-teller to consider, that no wit or mirth at the end of a story to consider, that no wit or mirth at the end of a story can atone for the half hour that has been lost before they come at it.'—STELLE. Expiations are frequently made by means of performing certain religious rites or acts of piety. Offences between man and man are sometimes atoned for by an acknowledgment of errour; but offences towards God require an accountable to the constitution of the constitution but offences towards God require an expiatory sacrifice, which our Saviour has been pleased to make of himself, that we, through Him, might become partakers of eternal life. Expiation, therefore, in the religious sense, is to atonement as the means to the end: atonement is often obtained by an expiation, but there may be expiations where there is no atonement.

Atonement replaces in a state of favour; expiation produces only a real or supposed exemption from sin and its consequences. Among the Jews and heathens there was expiation, but no atonement; under the Christian dispensation there is atonement as well as

expiation.

ABSTINENCE, FAST.

Abstinence is a general term, applicable to any object from which we abstain; fast is a species of absti-nence, namely, an abstaining from food; 'Fridays are appointed by the Church as days of abstinence; and Good Friday as a day of fast. —Taylor. The general term is likewise used in the particular sense, to imply a partial abstinence from particular food; but fast signifies an abstinence from food altogether; 'I am verily persuaded that if a whole people were to enter into a course of abstinence, and eat nothing but water gruel for a fortnight, it would abate the rage and animosity of parties;' 'Such a fast would have the natural tendency to the procuring of those ends for which a fast is proclaimed.'—Addison.

TO FORGIVE, PARDON, ABSOLVE, REMIT.

Forgive, compounded of the privative for and give; and pardon, in French pardonner, compounded like-wise of the privative par or per and donner to give, both signify not to give the punishment that is due, to relax from the rigour of justice in demanding retribution. For give is the familiar term; pardon is adapted to the serious style. Individuals for give each other personal offences; they pardon offences against law and morals: the former is an act of Christian charity; and morals: the former is an actor constant actor, the latter an act of clemency: the former is an act that is confined to no condition; the latter is peculiarly the act of a superiour. He who has the right of being offended has an opportunity of forgiving the offender:

No more Achilles draws His conqu'ring sword in any woman's cause. The gods command me to forgive the past, But let this first invasion be the last .- POPE.

He who has the authority of punishing the offence may pardon; 'A being who has nothing to pardon in himself may reward every man according to his works; but he whose very best actions must be seen with a grain of allowance, cannot be too mild, moderate, and forgiving."—Addison. Next to the principle of not taking offence easily, that of forgiving real injuries should be instilled into the infant mind: it is the happy prerogative of the monarch that he can extend his pardon to all criminals, except to those whose crimes have rendered them unworthy to live: they may be both used in relation to our Maker, but with a similar distinction in sense. God forgives the sins of his creatures as a father pitying his children; he pardons their sins as a judge extending mercy to criminals, as far as is consistent with justice.

*Pardon, when compared with remission, is the consequence of offence: it respects principally the person offending; it depends upon him who is offended; it produces reconciliation when it is sincerely granted and sincerely demanded. Remission is the consequence of the crime; it has more particular regard to the punishment; it is granted either by the prince or magistrate; it arrests the execution of justice;

With suppliant prayers their powers appease; The soft Napsan race will soon repent Their anger, and remit the punishment.—DRYDEN.

Remission, like pardon, is peculiarly applicable to the sinner with regard to his Maker. Absolution is taken in no other sense: it is the consequence of the fault or the sin, and properly concerns the state of the culprit; it properly loosens him from the tie with which he is hound; it is pronounced either by the civil judge or the ecclesiastical minister; it re-establishes the accused or the penitent in the rights of innocence;

Round in his urn the blended balls he rolls, Absolves the just, and dooms the guilty souls.

The pardon of sin obliterates that which is past, and restores the sinner to the Divine favour; it is promised throughout Scripture to all men on the condition of faith and repentance; remission of sin only averts the Divine vengeance, which otherwise would fall upon those who are guilty of it; it is granted peculiarly to Christians upon the ground of Christ's explatory sacrifice, which satisfies Divine justice for all offences: absolution of sin is the work of God's grace on the heart; it acts for the future as well as the past, by lessening the dominion of sin, and making those free who were before in bondage. The Roman Catholicks look upon absolution as the immediate act of the Pope, by virtue of his sacred relationship to Christ; but the Protestants look to Christ only as the dispenser of this blessing to men, and his ministers simply as messengers to declare the Divine will to men.

REPENTANCE, PENITENCE, CONTRITION, COMPUNCTION, REMORSE.

Repentance, from re back, and panitet to be sorry, signifies looking back with sorrow on what one has done amiss; penitence, from the same source, signifies simply sorrow for what is amiss. Contrition, from contero to rub together, or bruise as it were with sorrow; compunction, from compung to prick thoroughly; and remorse, from remordeo to have a guawing pain; all express modes of penitence differing in degree and circumstance.

Repentance refers more to the change of one's mind with regard to an object, and is properly confined to the time when this change takes place; we therefore, strictly speaking, repent of a thing but once; we may, however, have pentence for the same thing all our lives. Repentance may be felt for trivial matters; we may repent of going or not going, speaking or not speaking: pentence refers only to serious matters; we are pentient only for our sins. Errours of judgement will always be attended with repentance in a mind that is striving to do right; there is no human being so perfect but that, in the sight of God, he will have occasion to be pentent for many acts of commission.

Repentance may be felt for errours which concern only ourselves, or at most offences against our fellow creatures; penitence, and the other terms, are applicable only to offences against the moral and divine law, that law which is engraven on the heart of every man. We may repent of not having made a bargain that we afterward find would have been advantageous, or we may repent of having done any injury to our neighbour; but our penance is awakened when we reflect on our unworthiness or sinfulness in the sight off our Maker. This penitence is a general sentiment, which belongs to all men as offending creatures; but contrition, compunction, and remores are awakened by reflecting on particular offences: contrition is a continued and severe sorrow, appropriate to one who has been in a continued state of peculiar sinfulness:

Vide Abbe Girard: "Absolution, pardon, remission."

compunction is rather an occasional, but sharp sorrow provoked by a single offence, or a moment's reflection, remorse may be temporary, but it is a still sharper pain awakened by some particular offence of peculiar magnitude and atrocity. The prodigal son was a contrite sinner; the brethren of Joseph felt great compunction when they were carried back with their sacks to Egypt; David was struck with remorse for the murder of Uriah.

These four terms depend not so much on the measure of guilt as on the sensibility of the offender Whoever reflects most deeply on the enormity of sin, will be most sensible of repentance, when he sees his own liability to offend; 'This is the sinner's hard lot; that the same thing which makes him need repentance, makes him also in danger of not obtaining it. 'SOUTH In those who have most offended, and are come to a sense of their own condition, penitence will rise to deep contrition:

Heaven may forgive a crime to penitence,

For heaven can judge if penitence be true:—DRYDEN.

'Contrition, though it may melt, ought not to sink, or overpower the heart of a Christian.'—BLAIR. There is no man so hardened that he will not some time or other feel compunction for the crimes he has committed; 'All men, even the most depraved, are subject more or less to compunctions of conscience.'—BLAIR He who has the liveliest sense of the Divine goodness, will feel keen remorse whenever he reflects on any thing that he has done, by which he fears to have for feited the favour of so good a Being;

The heart,
Piere'd with a sharp remorse for guilt, disclaims
The costly poverty of hecatombs,
And offers the best sacrifice itself.—Jeffky.

CONSCIENTIOUS, SCRUPULOUS.

Conscientious marks the quality of having a nice conscience; scrupulous, that of having a scruple. Conscience, in Latin conscientia, from consciens, signifies that by which a man becomes conscious to hinself of right and wrong. Scruple, in Latin scrupulus, a little hard stone, signifies that which gives pain to the mind, as the stone does to the foot in walking.

Conscientious is to scrupulous as a whole to a part. A conscientious man is so altogether; a scrupulous man may have only particular scruples: the one is therefore always taken in a good sense; and the other at least in an indifferent, if not a bad sense.

A conscientious man does nothing to offend his conscience; 'A conscientious person would rather distrust his own judgement than condemn his species. He would say, I have observed without attention, or judged upon erroneous maxims; I have trusted to profession when I ought to have attended to conduct. Burke.—But a scrupulous man has often his scrupules on trifling or minor points; 'Others by their weakness, and fear, and scrupulousness, cannot fully satisfy their own thoughts.'—Puller. The Pharisees were scrupulous without being conscientious; we must therefore strive to be conscientious without being over scrupulous; 'I have been so very scrupulous in this particular, of not hurting any man's reputation, that I have forborne mentioning even such authors as I could not name with honour.'—Addition.

HOLINESS, SANCTITY.

Holiness, which comes from the northern languages, has altogether acquired a Christian signification; it respects the life and temper of a Christian; sanctivy which is derived from the Latin sanctus and sanctio, to sanction, has merely a moral signification, which it derives from the sanction of human authority.

Holiness is to the mind of a man what sanctity is to his exteriour; with this difference, that holiness to a certain degree, ought to belong to every man professing Christianity; but sanctity, as it lies in the manners, the outward garb, and deportment, is becoming only to certain persons, and at certain times.

Holiness is a thing not to be affected; it is that gentine characteristick of Christianity which is altogether spiritual, and cannot be counterfeited; 'Habitual preparation for the Sacrament consists in a perma nent habit or principle of holiness,'—South. Sanctity,

on the other hand, is from its very nature exposed to falsehood, and the least to be trusted; when it displays itself in individuals, either by the sorrowfulness of their looks, or the singular cut of their garments, or other singularities of action and gesture, it is of the most questionable nature; but in one who performs the sacerdotal office, it is a useful appendage to the solemnity of the scene, which excites a reverential regard to the individual in the mind of the beholder, and the most exalted sentiments of that religion which he thus adorns by his outward profession; 'About an age ago it was the fashion in England for every one that would be thought religious, to throw as much sanctity as possible into his face.'—Addison. 'It was an observation of the ancient Romans, that their empire had not increased more by the strength of their arms, than by the sanctity of their manners.'—Ap-DIRON.

HOLY, PIOUS, DEVOUT, RELIGIOUS.

Holy is here taken in the sense of holiness, as in the preceding article; pious, in Latin pius, is most probabably changed from dius or deus, signifying regard for the gods; devout, in Latin devotus, from devoveo to engage by a vow, signifies devoted or consecrated religious, in Latin religiosus, comes from religio and religo, to bind, because religion binds the mind, and

retigo, to bind, because religion binds the mind, and produces in it a fixed principle.

A strong regard to the Supreme Being is expressed by all these epithets; but holy conveys the most comprehensive idea; pious and devout designate most fervour of mind; religious is the most general and abstract in its signification. A holy man is in all respects heavenly-minded; he is more fit for heaven than earth; holiness, to whatever degree it is possessed abstracts the thoughts from sublunary objects. sessed, abstracts the thoughts from sublunary objects, and fixes them on things that are above; it is therefore a Christian quality, which is not to be attained in its full perfection by human beings, in their present imperfect state, and is attainable by some to a much greater degree than by others. Our Saviour was a perfect pattern of holiness; his apostles after him, and innumerable saints and good men, both in and out of the ministry, have striven to imitate his example, by the holiness of their life and conversation: in such, however, as have exclusively devoted themselves to his service, this holiness may shine brighter than in those who are entangled with the affairs of the world; 'The holiest man, by conversing with the world in sensibly draws something of soil and taint from it.'-SOUTH.

Pious is a term more restricted in its signification, and consequently more extended in its application, than holy: piety is not a virtue peculiar to Christians, it is common to all believers in a Supreme Being; it is the homage of the heart and the affections to a superiour Being: from a similarity in the relationship between a heavenly and an earthly parent, devotedness of the mind has in both cases been denominated piety. Piety towards God naturally produces piety towards parents; for the obedience of the heart, which gives rise to the virtue in the one, seems instantly to dictate the exercise of it in the other. The difference between holiness and piety is obvious from this, that our Saviour and his apostles are characterized as holy, but not and ms aposties are characterized as noty, but not pinus, because pitty is swallowed up in holiness. On the other hand, Jew and Gentile, Christian and Heathen, are allek termed pious, when they cannot be called holy, because piety is not only a more practicable virtue, but because it is more universally applicable to the dependant condition of man; age the practice has prevailed of substituting certain appearances of piety in the place of the great duties of humanity and mercy.'-BLAIR.

Devotion is a species of piety peculiar to the worshipper; it bespeaks that devotedness of mind which displays itself in the temple, when the individual seems by his outward services solemnly to devote himself, soul and body, to the service of his Maker 'Devotion expresses not so much the performance of any particular duty, as the spirit which must animate all religious duties. -Blair. Picty, therefore, lies in the heart, and may appear externally; but devotion does not properly exist except in an external ob-servance: a man piously resigns himself to the will of God, in the midst of his afflictions; he prays devoutly

in the bosom of his family: A state of temperance. sobriety, and justice, without devotion, is a lifeless insipid condition of virtue.'—Addison.

Religious is a term of less import than either of the

Religious is a term of less import than either of the other terms; it denotes little more than the simple existence of religion, or a sense of religion in the mind: the religious man is so, more in his principles than in his affections; he is religious in his sentiments, in as much as he directs all his views according to the will of his Maker; and he is religious in his conduct, in as much as he observes the outward formalities of homage that are due to his Maker. A holy man fits himself for a higher state of existence, after which he is always aspiring; a pious man has God in all his thoughts, and seeks to do his will; a devout man bends himself in humble adoration and pays his vows of prayer and thanksgiving; a religious man conforms in all things to what the dictates of his conscience require from him, as a responsible being, and a member of society.

When applied to things they preserve a similar distinction: we speak of the holy sacrament; of a pious discourse, a pious ejaculation; of a devout exercise, a devout air; a religious sentiment, a religious life, a religious education, &cc.

HOLY, SACRED, DIVINE.

Holy is here, as in the former article, a term of higher import than either sacred or divine: sacred, in Latin sacer, is derived either from the Greek aylog holy or σάος whole, perfect, and the Hebrew zacah pure Whatever is most intimately connected with religion and religious worship, in its purest state, is holy, is un-hallowed by a mixture of inferiour objects, is elevated in the greatest possible degree, so as to suit the nature of an infinitely perfect and exalted Being. Among the Jews, the holy of holies was that place which was intended to approach the nearest to the heavenly abode, consequently was preserved as much as possi ble from all contamination with that which is earthly: among Christians, that religion or form of religion is termed holy, which is esteemed purest in its doctrine, discipline, and ceremonies, and is applied with equal propriety by the Roman Catholicks and the English Protestants to that which they have in common; fit us for a due access to the holy Sacrament, we add actual preparation to habitual.'—SOUTH. Upon this ground we speak of the church as a holy place, of the sacrament as the holy sacrament, and the ordinances of the church as holy.

Sacred is less than holy; the sacred derives its sance.

tion from human institutions, and is connected rather with our moral than our religious duties: what is holy is altogether spiritual, and abstracted from the earthly; what is sacred may be simply the human purified from what is gross and corrupt: what is holy must be regarded with awe, and treated with every possible mark of reverence; what is sacred must not be violated nor infringed upon. The laws are sacred, but not holy: a man's word should be sacred, though not holy: The laws are sacred, but not for neither of these things is to be reverenced, but both are to be kept free from injury or external violence. The holy is not so much opposed to, as it is set above every thing else; the sacred is opposed to the profane the Scriptures are properly denominated holy, because they are the word of God, and the fruit of his Holy Spirit; but other writings may be termed sacred which appertain to religion, in distinction from the profane, which appertain only to worldly matters; 'Common sense could tell them, that the good God could not be pleased with any thing cruel, nor the most holy God with any thing filthy and unclean.'—SOUTH. 'Religion properly consists in a reverential esteem of things sacred.'—South.

Divine is a term of even less import than sacred; it signifies either belonging to the Deity, or being like the Deity; but from the looseness of its application it has lost in some respects the dignity of its meaning. divine is often contrasted with the human: but there are many human things which are denominated divine: Milton's poem is entitled a divine poem, not merely on account of the subject, but from the exalted manner in which the poet has treated his subject: what is divine, therefore, may be so superlatively excellent as to be conceived of as having the stamp of inspiration from the

Deity, which of course, as it respects human perform ances, is but a hyperbolical mode of speech.

From the above explanation of these terms, it is clear that there is a manifest difference between them, and yet that their resemblance is sufficiently great for them to be applied to the same objects. We speak of the Holy Spirit, and of Dieine inspiration; by the first of which epithets is understood not only what is superhuman, but what is a constituent part of the Deity: by the second is represented merely in a general manner the source of the inspiration as coming from the Deity, and not from man; When a man resteth and assureth himself upon Divine protection, he gathereth a force and faith which human nature in itself could not obtain."—Bacon. Subjects are denominated either obtain.'-Bacon. Subjects are denominated either sacred or divine, as when we speak of sacred poems, or dreine hymns; sacred here characterizes the subjects of the poems, as those which are to be held sacred; and divine designates the subject of the hymns as not being ordinary or merely human; it is clear, therefore, that what is holy is in its very nature sacred, but not vice versa; and that what is holy and sacred is in its very nature divine; but the divine is not always either holy or sacred.

GODLIKE, DIVINE, HEAVENLY.

Godlike bespeaks its own meaning, as like God, or after the manner of God; divine, in Latin divinus from divus or Deus, signifies appertaining to God; heavenly, or heavenlike, signifies like or appertaining to heaven.
Godlike is a more expressive, but less common term

than divine; the former is used only as an epithet of peculiar praise for a particular object; divine is gene rally employed for that which appertains to a superiour being, in distinction from that which is human. volence is a godlike property:

Sure he that made us with such large discourse, Looking before and after, gave us not That capability and godlike reason, To rust in us unus'd.—Shakspeare.

The Divine image is stamped on the features of man, whence the face is called by Milton 'the human face Divine.' 'The benefit of nature's light is not thought excluded as unnecessary, because the necessity of a divine light is magnified.—Hooker. Divine is however frequently used by the poets for what is superexcellent

> Of all that see or read thy comedies, Whoever in those glasses looks may find The spots return'd, or graces of his mind; And by the help of so divine an art, At leisure view and dress his nobler part.
>
> WALLER.

As divine is opposed to human, so is heavenly to earthly: the Divine Being is a term of distinction for the Creator from all other beings; but a heavenly being denotes the angels or inhabitants of heaven, in distinction from earthly beings or the inhabitants of earth. A divine influence is to be sought for only by prayer to the Giver of all good things; but a heavenly temper may be acquired by a steady contemplation of heavenly things, and an abstraction from those which are earthly. The *Divine* will is the foundation of all moral law and obligation;

Instructed you'd explore

Divine contrivance, and a God adore. - BLACKMORE Heavenly joys are the fruit of all our labours in this earthly course;

Reason, alas! It does not know itself; But man, vain man! would with his short-lin'd

plummet Fathom the vast abyss of heavenly justice. - DRYDEN.

GODLY, RIGHTEOUS.

Godly is a contraction of godlike (v. Godlike); righteous signifies conformable to right or truth.
These epithets are both used in a spiritual sense, and

cannot, without an indecorous affectation of religion, be introduced into any other discourse than that which is properly spiritual. Godliness, in the strict sense, is that outward deportment which characterizes a heavenly temper; prayer, reading of the Scriptures, publick Worship, and every religious act, enters into the signifi-

cation of godliness, which at the same time supposes a temper of mind, not only to delight in, but to profit by such exercises: 'The same church is really holy in this world, in relation to all godly persons contained in it, by a real infused sanctity. —Pearson. Righteousness on the other hand comprehends Christian morality, in distinction from that of the heathen or unbeliever; a righteous man does right, not only because it is right, but because it is agreeable to the will of his Maker, and the example of his Redeemer: righteousness is therefore to godliness as the effect to the cause; "T is the gospel's work to reduce man to the principles of his first creation, that is, to be both good and wise. Our ancestors, it seems, were clearly of this opinion. He that was pious and just was reckoned a righteous man. Godliness and integrity was called and accounted righteousness. And in their old Saxon righteous was rightwise, and righteousness was originally rightwiserightense, and rightensess was nightally lightenses."—Feltham. The godly man goes to the sanctuary and by converse with his Maker assimilates all his affections to the character of that being whom he worships; when he leaves the sanctuary he proves the efficacy of his godliness by his righteous converse with his fellow-creatures. It is easy however for men to mistake the means for the end, and to rest with godliness without rightcoursess, as too many are apt to do who seem to make their whole duty to consist in an attention to religious observances, and in the indul-gence of extravagant feelings; 'It hath been the great design of the devil and his instruments in all ages to design of the devit and his histometris in a lages to undermine religion, by making an unhappy separation and divorce between goddiness and morality. But let us not deceive ourselves; this was always religion, and the condition of our acceptance with God, to endeavour to be like God in purity and holiness, in justice and righteousness.'-TILLOTSON.

SECULAR, TEMPORAL, WORLDLY.

Secular in Latin secularis, from seculum an age or division of time, signifies belonging to time, or this life; temporal, in Latin temporalis, from tempus time, signi lasting only for a time; worldly signifies after the manner of the world.

Secular is opposed to ecclesiastical or spiritual, temporal and worldly are opposed to spiritual or eternal.

The ideas of the world, or the outward objects and pursuits of the world, in distinction from that which s set above the world, is implied in common by all Un; terms; but secular is an indifferent term, applicable to the allowed pursuits and concerns of men; temporal is used either in an indufferent or a bad sense; and worldly mostly in a bad sense, as contrasted with things of more value

The office of a clergyman is ecclesiastical, but that of a schoolmaster is secular, which is frequently vested in the same hands; 'This, in several men's actions of common life, appertaineth unto moral; in publick and common me, appertunent unto morar; in publick and politick secular affairs, unto civil wisdom. "Hooker, The upper house of parliament consists of lords spiritual and temporal; 'There is scarce any of those decisions but gives good light, by way of authority or reason, to some questions that arise also between temporal in the content of the content o poral dignities, especially to cases wherein some of our subordinate temporal titles have part in the controersy.'—Selden. Worldly interest has a more powerful sway upon the minds of the great bulk of mankind, than their spiritual interests; 'Compare the hapraind, than their spiritual interests; "Compare the hap-piness of men and beasts no farther than it results from worldly advantages."—ATTERBURY. Whoever enters not the holy office of the ministry with merely secular views of preferment, chooses a very unfit source of emolument; 'Some saw nothing in what has been done in France but a firm and temperate exertion of freedom, so consistent with morals and piety, as to make it de serving not only of the secular applause of dashing Machiavelian politicians, but to make it a fit theme for all the devout effusions of sacred eloquence.'—BURKE A too eager pursuit after temporal advantages and temporal pleasures is apt to draw the mind away from its regard to those which are eternal; 'The ultimate purregard to those which are eternar, 'The didinate purpose of government is temporal, and that of religion is eternal happiness.'—Johnson. Wordly applause will weigh very light when set in the balance against the reproach of one's own conscience; 'Worldly things are or such quality as to lessen upon dividing.'—Grovs

ENTHUSIAST, FANATICK, VISIONARY.

The enthusiast, fanatick, and visionary have disordered imaginations; but the enthusiast is only affected inwardly with an extraordinary fervour, the fanatick and visionary betray that fervour by some outward mark; the former by singularities of conduct, the latter by singularities of doctrine. Fanaticks and visionaries are therefore always more or less enthusiasts; but enthusiasts are not always fanaticks or numerics. Evolutias at among the Greeks, from $\ell \nu$ in and $\theta \ell \delta \varsigma$ God, signified those supposed to have, or pretending to have, Divine inspiration. Fanatici were so called among the Latins, from fana the temples in which they spent an extraordinary portion of their time; they, like the ἐνθυσιας αὶ of the Greeks, pretended time: they. to revelations and inspirations, during the influence of which they indulged themselves in many extravagant tricks, cutting themselves with knives, and distorting themselves with every species of antick gesture and

Although we are professors of a pure religion, yet we cannot boast an exemption from the extravagancies which are related of the poor heathens; we have many who indulge themselves in similar practices under the idea of honouring their Maker and Redeemer. There are fanaticks who profess to be under extraordinary influences of the spirit; and there are enthusiasts whose intemperate zeal disqualifies them for taking a beneficial part in the sober and solemn services of the church. Visionary signifies properly one who deals in visions, that is, in the pretended appearance of supernatural objects; a species of enthusiasts who have sprung up in more modern times. The leaders of sects are commonly visionaries, having adopted this artifice to establish their reputation and doctrines among their deluded followers; Mahomet was one of the most sucdeluded followers; Mahomet was one of the most suc-cessful visionaries that ever pretended to divine inspiration; and since his time there have been visionaries, particularly in England, who have raised religious par-ties, by having recourse to the same expedient: of this description was Swedenborg, Huntington, and Brothers.

Fanatick was originally confined to those who were under religious frenzy, but the present age has presented us with the monstrosity of fanaticks in irrelisented us with the monstrosity of favanticks in irreli-zion and anarchy; 'They who will not believe that the philosophical favanticks who guide in these mat-ters have long entertained the design (of abolishing religion), are utterly ignorant of their character?— BURKE. Enthusiast is a term applied in general to every one who is filled with an extraordinary degree

Her little soul is ravish'd, and so pour'd Into loose ecstasies, that she is placed Above herself, Musick's enthusiast .- CRASHAW.

Enthusiasts pretend that they have the gift of prophecy by dreams.'—PAGITT'S HERESTOGRAPHY. Visionary is a term_applied to one who deals in fanciful speculation; 'This account exceeded all the Noctanibuli or visionaries I have met with.'-TURNER. The former may sometimes be innocent, if not laudable, according to the nature of the object; the latter is always censurable: the enthusiast has mostly a warm heart; the visionary has only a fanciful head. The enthusiast will mostly be on the side of virtue even though in an errour; the visionary pleads no cause but his own. The enthusiast suffers his imagination to follow his heart; the visionary makes his understanding bend to his imagination. Although in matters of religion, enthussasm should be cautiously guarded against, yet we admire to see it roused in behalf of one's country and one's friends; 'Cherish true religion as preciously as you will, fly with abhorrence and contempt, superstition and enthusiasm.'—Chatham Visionaries, whether in religion, politicks, or science, are dangerous as members of society, and offensive as companions; The sons of infamy ridicule every thing as romantick that comes in competition with their present interest, and treat those persons as visionaries who dare stand up in a corrupt age, for what has not its immediate reward joined to it."—Addison.

DREAM, REVERIE.

Dream, in Dutch drom, &c. comes either from the Celtic drem, a sight, or the Greek δράμα, a fable, or as probably from the word roam, signifying to wander, in Hebrew 177 to be agitated; reverse, in French reverse, like the English rave, comes from the Latin rabies, signifying that which is wandering or incoherent.

Dreams and reveries are alike opposed to the reality, and have their origin in the imagination; but the former commonly pass in sleep, and the latter when awake: the dream may and does commonly arise when the imagination is in a sound state; the reverie is the fruit of a heated imagination; 'Revery is when ideas float in our mind, without reflection or regard of the understanding.'-Locks. Dreams come in the course of nature; reveries are the consequence of a

peculiar ferment.

When the dream is applied to the act of one that is awake, it admits of another distinction from reverie. They both designate what is confounded, but the dream is less extravagant than the reverie. Ambitious men please themselves with dreams of future greatness; enthusiasts debase the purity of the Christian religion by blending their own wild reveries with the doctrines of the Gospel. He who indulges himself in idle dreams lays up a store of disappointment for himself when he recovers his recollection, and finds that it is nothing but a dream; 'Gay's friends persuaded him to sell his share of South-sea stock, but he dreamed of dignity and splendour, and could not bear to obstruct his own fortune.'—Johnson. 'A love of singularity operating on an ardent mind will too often lead men to indulge in strange reveries; 'I continued to sit motionless, with my eyes fixed upon the curtain, some moments after it fell. When I was roused from my reverie I found myself almost alone.'—HAWKES-WORTH.

IRRATIONAL, FOOLISH, ABSURD, PREPOS TEROUS.

Irrational, compounded of ir or in and ratio, signi fies contrary to reason, and is employed to express the want of the faculty itself, or a deficiency in the exer want of the faculty risen, or a denote by the caser cise of this faculty; foolish denotes the perversion of this faculty; absurd, from surdus, deaf, signifies that to which one would turn a deaf ear; preposterous, from prue before and post behind, signifies literally that side foremost which is unnatural and contrary to com mon sense.

Irrational is not so strong a term as foolish: it is applicable more frequently to the thing than to the person, to the principle than to the practice; 'The schemes of freethinkers are altogether irrational, and require the most extravagant credulity to embrace them.'—Addition. Foolish on the contrary is commonly applicable to the person as well as the thing. to the practice rather than the principle; 'The same well meaning gentleman took occasion at another time to bring together such of his friends as were addicted to a foolish habitual custom of swearing, in order to show them the absurdity of the practice.—Addison Skepticism is the most irrational thing that exists; human mind is formed to believe, but not to doubt; he is of all men most foolish who stakes his eternal salvation on his own fancied superiority of intelligence and illumination. Foolish, absurd, and preposterous, rise in degree: a violation of common sense is implied by them all, but they vary according to the degree of violence which is done to the underfoolish is applied to any thing, however standing: trivial, which in the smallest degree offends our under standings: the conduct of children is therefore often foolish, but not absurd and preposterous, which are said only of serious things that are opposed to our judgements: it is absurd for a man to persuade another to do that which he in like circumstances would object to do himself;

But grant that those can conquer, these can cheat, Tis phrase absurd to call a villain great; Who wickedly is wise or madly brave Is but the more a fool, the more a knave.-Pope.

It is preposterous for a man to expose himself to the It is preposterous for a man to expose nitiseit to the ridicule of others, and then be angry with those who will not treat him respectfully; 'By a preposterous desire of things in themselves indifferent men forego the enjoyment of that happiness which those things are instrumental to obtain.'—Berkeley. IRRELIGIOUS, PROFANE, IMPIOUS.

As epithets to designate the character of the person, they seem to rise in degree; the irreligious is negative; the profane and impious are positive; the latter being much stronger than the former. The profani of the Latins, from pro and fanum, i. e. procul a fano, far from the temple, were those not initiated, who were not permitted to take any part in the sacred mysteries and rites, whence by a natural consequence those who despised what was sacred. All men who are not positively actuated by principles of religion are *irreligious*;
¹ An officer of the army in Roman Catholick countries. 'An officer of the army in routing committee, would be afraid to pass for an irreligious man if he should be seen to go to bed without offering up his devotions.'—Addition. Who, if we include all such as show a disregard to the outward observances of religion, form a too numerous class: profanity and impicty are however of a still more heinous nature: they consist not in the mere absence of regard for reli gion, but in a positive contempt of it and open outrage against its laws; the profune man treats what is sacred as if it were profune; These have caused the weak to stumble and the profune to blaspheme, offending the one and hardening the other.'—SOUTH. What a believer holds in reverence, and utters with awe, is pronounced with an air of indifference or levity, and as a matter of common discourse, by a profane man; he knowing no difference between sacred and projane; but as the former may be converted into a source of out as the former hay executed to the secondal towards others; 'Fly, ye profane; it not, draw near with awe.'—Young. The impious man is directly opposed to the pious man; the former is filled with defiance and rebellion against his Maker, as the latter is with love and fear; the former curses, while the latter prays; the former is bloated with pride and conceit: the latter is full of humility and self-abasement: we have a picture of the former in the devils. and of the latter in the saints. When applied to things, the term *irreligious* seems to be somewhat more positively opposed to religion: an *irreligious* book is not merely one in which there is no religion, but that also which is detrimental to religion, such as skeptical or licentious writings: the profane in this case is not always a term of reproach, but is employed to distinguish what is expressly spiritual in its nature, from that which is temporal: the history of nations is profane, as distinguished from the sacred history contained in the Bible: the writings of the heathens are altogether profane as distinguished from the moral writings of Christians, or the believers in Divine Reve-On the other hand, when we speak of a profane sentiment, or a profane joke, profane lips, and the like, the sense is personal and reproachful; 'Nothing is profane that serveth to holy things .- RALEGH. Impious is never applied but to what is personal, and in the very worst sense; an impious thought, an impious wish, or an impious vow, are the fruits of an impious mind :

> Love's great divinity rashly maintains Weak impious war with an immortal God. Cumberland.

TO FORSWEAR, PERJURE, SUBORN.

Forswear is Saxon; perjure is Latin; the preposition for and per are both privative, and the words signify literally to swear contrary to the truth; this is, however, not their only distinction: to forswear is applied to all kinds of oaths; to perjure is employed only for such oaths as have been administered by the civil magistrate.

A soldier forsvears himself who breaks his oath of allegiance by desertion; and a subject forswears himself who takes an oath of allegiance to his Majesty

which he afterward violates;

False as thou art, and more than false forsworn!
Not spring from noble blood, nor goddess born;
Why should I own? what worse have I to fear?
DRYDEN.

A man perjures himself in a court of law who swears to the truth of that which he knows to be false; 'The common oath of the Scythian was by the sword and the fire, for that they accounted those two special divine powers which should work vengeance on the perjurers.'—Spenser. Forswear is used only in the proper sense: perjure may be used figuratively with

regard to lovers' vows; he who deserts his mistress to whom he has pledged his affection is a perjured man;

Be gone, for ever leave this happy sphere; For perjur'd lovers have no mansions here.—Lee.

Forsusear and perjure are the acts of individuals; suborn, from the Latin subornare, signifies to make to forsusear; a perjured man has all the guilt upon himself; but he who is suborned shares his guilt with the suborner;

They were suborn'd;
Malcolm and Donalbain, the king's two sons,
Are stole away and fled.—Shakspeare

DEVIL, DEMON.

Devil, in old German tiefel, Saxon deeft, Welsh diafol, French diable, Italian diavolo, Dutch duyfdel, Greek διάβολος, from διαβάλλο, to traduce, signifies properly a calumniator, and is always taken in the bad sense, for the spirit which incites to evil, and tempts men through the medium of their evil passions; demon, in Latin dæmon, Greek δαίμων, from δάω to know, signifies one knowing, that is, having preter natural knowledge, and is taken either in a bad or good sense for the power that acts within us and controls our actions.

Since the devil* is represented as the father of all wickedness, associations have been connected with the name that render its pronounciation in familiar discourse offensive to the chastened ear; while demon is a term of indifferent application, that is commonly substituted in its stead to designate either a good or an

evil spirit.

Among Iews and Christians the term demon is taken always in a bad sense; but the Greeks and Romans understood by the word demon any spirit or genius good or evil, but particularly the good spirit or guardian angel, who was supposed to accompany a man from his birth. Socrates professed to be always under the direction of such a demon, and his example has been followed by other heathen philosophers, particularly those of the Platonick sect. Hence the use of these terms in ordinary discourse, the devil being always considered as the supernatural agent, who, by the divine permission, acts on the hearts and minds of men; but a demon is applied generally and indefinitely in the sense of any spirit. The devil is said in proverbial discourse to be in such things as go contrary to the wish; the demon of jealousy is said to possess the mind that is altogether carried away with that passion. Men who wish to have credit for move goodness than they possess, and to throw the load of guilt off themselves, attribute to the devil a perpetual endeavour to draw them into the commission of crimes; 'The enemies we are to contend with are not men but devils.'—Tilloyson. Wherever the demon of discord has got admittance, there is a farewell to all the comforts of social life; 'My good demon, who sat at my right hand during the course of this whole vision, observing in me a burning desire to join that glorious company, told me he highly approved of that generous ardour with which I seemed transported.'—Addition.

HERETICK, SCHISMATICK, SECTARIAN OR SECTARY, DISSENTER, NONCONFORMIST.

A heretick is the maintainer of heresy (v. Heterodoz); the schismatick is the author or promoter of schism; the sectarian or sectary is the member of a sect; the dissenter is one who dissents from the establishment; and the noncomformist one who does not conform to the establishment. A man is a heretick only for matters of faith and doctrine, but he is a schismatick in matters of discipline and practice. The heretick therefore is not always a schismatick, nor the schismatick a heretick. Whoever holds the doctrines that are common to the Roman Catholick and the reformed Churches, is not a heretick in the Protestant sense of the word; although he may in many outward formalities be a schismatick. The Calvinists are not hereticks, but they are for the most part schismaticks; on the other hand, there are many members of the establishment, who hold though they do not avow heretical notions.

* Vide Abbe Girard: " Diable, demon

The heretick is considered as such with regard to the Catholick Church, or the whole body of Christians, holding the same fundamental principles; 'When a Papist uses the word hereticks he generally means Protestants, when a Protestant uses the word, he generally means any persons wilfully and contentiously obstinate in fundamental errours.'—WATTS. But the schismatick and sectarian are considered as such with regard to particular established bodies of Christians. Schism, from the Greek $\sigma\chi i\zeta \omega$, to split, denotes an action, and the schismatick is an agent who splits for action, and the schismatter is an agent who spints for himself in his own individual capacity: the sectarian does not expressly perform a part, he merely holds a relation; he does not divide any thing himself, but belongs to that which is already cut or divided. schismatick, therefore, takes upon himself the whole moral responsibility of the schism; but the sectarian does not necessarily take an active part in the measures of his sect: whatever guilt attaches to schism attaches to the schismatick; he is a voluntary agent, who acts from an erroneous principle, if not an unchristian temper: the secturian is often an involuntary agent; he follows that to which he has been incidentally attached. It is possible, therefore, to be a schismatick, and not a sectarian; as also to be a sectarian, and not a schis-matick. Those professed members of the establishment who affect the title of evangelical, and wish to palm upon the Church the peculiarities of the Calvinistick doctrine, and to ingraft their own modes and forms into its discipline, are schismaticks, but not sectarians; 'The schismaticks disturb the sweet peace of our Church.'—Howel. On the other hand, those who by birth and education are attached to a sect, are sectarians, but not always schismaticks; 'In the house of Sir Samuel Luke, one of Cromwell's officers, Butler observed so much of the character of the sectaries, that he is said to have written or begun his poem at this time.'-Johnson. Consequently, schismatick is a term of much greater reproach than sectarian.

The schismatick and sectarian have a reference to any established body of Christians of any country; but dissenter is a term applicable only to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and bearing relation only to the established Church of England: it includes not only those who have individually and personally renounced the doctrines of the Church, but those who are in a state of dissent or difference from it. Dissenters are not necessarily either schismaticks or sectarians, for British Roman Catholicks, and the Presbyterians of Scotland, are all dissenters, although they are the reverse of what is understood by schismatick and sectarians are not dissenters, because every established community of Christians, all over the world, have had individuals, or smaller bodies of individuals, setting themselves up against them: the term dissenter being in a great measure technical, it may be applied individually or generally without conveying any idea of reproach; 'Of the dissenters, Swift did not wish to infringe the toleration, but he opposed their encroachments.—Johnson. The same may be said of nonconformist, which is a more special term, including only such as do not conform to some established or national religion; 'Watts is at least one of the few poets with whom youth and ignorance may be safely pleased; and happy will that reader be, whose mind is disposed, by his verses or his prose, to initiate him in all but his nonconformity.'—Johnson. Consequently, all members of the Romish Church, or of

ke Kirk of Scotland, are excluded from the number of nonconformists; while, on the other hand, all British-born subjects, not adhering to these two forms, and at the same time renouncing the established form of their country, are of this number, among whom may be reckoned Independents, Presbyterians, Baptists, Quakers, Methodists, and all other such sects as have been formed since the reformation.

HETERODOXY, HERESY.

Heterodoxy, from the Greek Trepos and $\delta \delta \gamma_{\eta}$, signifies another or a different doctrine; heresy, from the Greek alpsay, a choice, signifies an opinion adopted by individual choice.

- To be of a different persuasion is heterodoxy; to
 - · Vide Roubaud : "Hérétique, hétérodoxe."

have a faith of one's own is keresy; the keterodoxy characterizes the opinions formed; the keresy characterizes the individual forming the opinion: the keterodoxy exists independently and for itself; 'All wrong notions in religion are ranked under the general name of keterodox.'—Golding. The keresy sets itself up against others; 'Heterodoxies, false doctrines, yea, and keresies, may be propagated by prayer as well as preaching.'—Bull. As all division supposes errour either on one side or on both, the words keterodoxy and keresy are applied only to human opinions, and strictly in the sense of a false opinion, formed in distinction from that which is better founded; but the former respects any opinions, important or otherwise; the latter refers only to matters of importance: the keresy is therefore a fundamental errour. There has been much keterodoxy in the Christian world at all times, and among these have been keresies denying the plainest and most serious truths which have been acknowledged by the great body of Christians since the Apostles.

OMEN, PROGNOSTICK, PRESAGE.

All these terms express some token or sign of what is to come; σmen , in Latin σmen , probably comes from the Greek $\sigma lopat$ to think, because it is what gives rise to much conjecture; prognostick, in Greek $\pi poy \nu \omega \sigma \kappa \omega$, to know before, signifies the sign by which one judges a thing before hand, because a prognostick is rather a deduction by the use of the understanding; the presage is the sentiment of presagng, or the thing by which one presages.

The omen and prognostick are both drawn from external objects; the presage is drawn from one's own feelings. The omen is drawn from objects that have no necessary connexion with the thing they are made to represent; it is the fruit of the imagination, and rests on superstition: the prognostick, on the contrary, is a sign which partakes in some degree of the quality of the thing denoted. Omens were drawn by the heathens from the flight of birds, or the entrails of beasts; 'Aves dant omina dira.'—TIBULLUS. And oftentimes from different incidents; thus Ulysses, when landed on his native island, prayed to Jupiter that he would give him a double sign by which he might know that he should be permitted to slay the suitors of his wife; and when he heard the thunder, and saw a maiden supplicating the gods in the tempie, he took these for omens that he should immediately proceed to put in execution his design; the omen was therefore considered as a supernatural sign sent for a particular purpose; 'A signal omen stopp'd the passing host.'—POPE. Prognosticks, on the other hand, are discovered only by an acquaintance with the objects in which they exist, as the prognosticks of a mortal disease are known to none so well as the physician; the prognosticks of a storm or tempest are best known to the mariner;

Though your prognosticks run too fast, They must be verified at last.—Swift.

In an extended sense, the word omen is also applied to objects which serve as a sign, or enable a person to draw a rational inference, which brings it nearer in sense to the prognostick and the presage: but the omen may be used of that which is either good or bad, the prognostick mostly of that which is bad. It is an omen of our success, if we find those of whom we have to ask a favour in a good humour; 'Hammond would steal from his fellows into places of his privacy, there to say his prayers, omens of his future pacific temper and eminent devotion.'—Fril. The spirit of discontent which pervades the countenances and discourse of a people is a prognostick of some popular commotion:

Careful observers

By sure prognosticks may foretell a shower.—Swift.

Presage, when signifying a sentiment, is commonly applied to what is unfavourable; 'I know but one way of fortifying my soul against these gloomy presages that is, by securing to myself the protection of that Being who disposes of events.'—Addison. But when taken for that by which one presages, it is understood favourably, or in an indifferent sense. 'The quickness of powers discoverable in a boy is sometimes a presage of his future green.ness;

ENGLISH SYNONYMES.

Ours joy fill'd, and shout presage of victory.—Milton.

30 AUGUR, PRESAGE, FOR BETOKEN, PORTEND. FOREBODE,

Augur, in French augurer, Latin augurium, comes 'rom anis a bird, as an augury was originally, and at rom ans a originary, and at all times, principally drawn from the song, the flight, or other actions of birds. The augurium of the Latins, and the οἰώνισμα of the Greeks, was a species of divination practised by the augurs, who professed to foretell events, either from the heavenly phenomena, from the chattering or flight of birds, from the sacred chickens, according to the manner of their eating their meat; from quadrupeds, such as wolves, foxes, goats, or, lastly, from what they called the dira, or the accidents which befell persons, as sneezing, stumbling, spilling salt, or meeting particular objects; whence by a natural extension in the meaning of the term, it has been used to signify any conjecture respecting futurity. peen used to signify any conjecture respecting intuity. Presage, in French presage, from the Latin pre and sagio to be instinctively wise, signifies to be thus wise about what is to come; forebode is compounded of fore, and the Saxon bodian, and the English bid, to offer or to declare, signifying to pronounce on futurity; betaken signifies to serve as a token; portend, in Latin wrtendo, compounded of por for pro and tendo, signifies to set or show forth

To augur signifies either to serve or make use of as an augury; to forbode and presage is to form a conclusion in one's own mind: to betoken or portend is to serve as a sign. Persons or things augur or presage; persons only forebode; things only betoken or portend. Auguring is a calculation of some future event, in which the imagination seems to smuch concerned smuch concerned ather a conclusion as the understanding: presaging ather a conclusion or deduction of what may be from what is; it lies in the understanding more than in the imagination: forebuding lies altogether in the imagination. Things are said to betoken, which present natural signs; those are said to partend, which present extraordinary or super-

natural signs.

It augurs ill for the prosperity of a country or a state when its wealth has increased so as to take away the ordinary stimulus to industry, and to introduce an inordinate love of pleasure; There is always an augury to be taken of what a peace is likely to be, from the preliminary steps that are made to bring it about.'—BURKE. We presage the future greatness of a man from the indications which he gives of possessa man from the indications which he gives of possessing an elevated character; 'An opinion has been long conceived, that quickness of invention, accuracy of judgement, or extent of knowledge, appearing before the usual time, presage a short life.'—Johnson. A distempered mind is apt to forebade every ill from the most trivial circumstances; 'What conscience forebades, revelation verifies, assuring us that a day is appointed when God will render to every man according to his works.'—Blair. We see with pleasure those sections in a child which betaken an ingenuous termer. actions in a child which betoken an ingenuous temper;

All more than common menaces an end:

A blaze betokens brevity of life, As if bright embers should emit a flame.—Young.

A mariner sees with pain the darkness of the sky which partends a storm;

Skill'd in the wing'd inhabitants of the air,

What auspices their notes and flights declare, O! say-for all religious rites portend

A happy voyage and a prosp'rous end .- DRYDEN

The moralist augurs no good to the morals of a nation from the lax discipline which prevails in the education of youth; he presages the loss of independence to the minds of men in whom proper principles of subor-dination have not been early engendered. Men some times forebode the misfortunes which happen to them, but they oftener forebode evils which never come.

TO FORETELL, PREDICT, PROPHESY, PROGNOSTICATE.

To foretell, compounded of fore and tell; predict, from præ and dice; prophesy, in French prophetiser. Latin prophetise, Greek προφητεύω, all signify to tell, expound, or declare what is to happen, and convey the

idea of a verbal communication of futurny to others prognosticate, from the Greek προγινώσκω to know beforehand, to bode or imagine to one's self before hand, denotes the action of feeling rather than spearing of things to come.

Foretell is the most general in its sense, and familiar in its application; we foretell common events; we may predict that which is common or uncommon; prophe cies are for the most part important; foretelling is an ordinary gift; one foretells by a simple calculation or

guess :

Above the rest, the sun, who never lies Foretells the change of weather in the skies. DRYDEN.

To predict and prophesy are extraordinary gifts; one predicts either by a superiour degree of intelligence, or by a supernatural power real or supposed; 'The consequences of suffering the French to establish themselves in Scotland, are predicted with great accuracy and discernment.'—ROBERTSON. 'In Christ they all and discernment.—ROBERTSON.—In Christ they are meet with an invincible evidence, as if they were not predictions, but after relations; and the penmen of them not prophets, but evangelists.—Sourm. One prophesies by means of inspiration real or supposed;

An ancient augur prophesied from hence, "Behold on Latian shores a foreign prince!" DRYDEN.

Men of discernment and experience easily foretell the Men of discernment and experience easily foretell the events of undertakings which fall under their notice. The priests among the heathens, like the astrologers and conjurers of more modern times, pretended to predict events that effected nations and empires. The gift of prophecy was one among the number of the supernatural gifts communicated to the primitive Christians by the Holy Ghost. 'No arguments made a stronger impression on these Pagan converts, that the predictions relating to our Saviour, in those old the predictions relating to our Saviour, in those old prophetick writings deposited among the hands of the

prophetick writings deposited among the hands of the greatest enemies to Christianity."—Addison.

Prediction as a noun is employed for both the verbs foretell and predict; it is therefore a term of less value than prophecy. We speak of a prediction being verified, and a prophety fulfilled: the predictions of almanack-makers respecting the weather are as seldom verified as the prophecies of visionaries and enthusiaste are fulfilled respecting the death of princes or the affairs of governments. To prognosticate is an act of the understanding; it is guided by outward symptoms as a rule; it is only stimulated and not guided by out ward objects; a physician prognosticates the crisis of a disorder by the symptoms discoverable in the patient, "Who that should view the small beginnings of some persons could imagine or prognosticate those vast in creases of fortune that have afterward followed them SOUTH.

CONJECTURE, SUPPOSITION, SURMISE.

Conjecture, in French conjecture, Latin conjectura from conjecture, in French conjecture, Each conjecture, signifies the thing put together or framed in the mind without design or foundation; supposition, in French supposition, from suppone, compounded of sub and pone to put in the place of a thing, signifies to me one's thoughts in the place of reality; surmise, co pounded of sur or sub and mise, Latin missus pa ciple of mitte to send or put forth, has an original to the former. meaning similar to the former.

All these terms convey an idea of something in the mind independent of the reality; but conjecture is founded less on rational inference than supposition; and surmise less than either; any circumstance, however trivial, may give rise to a conjecture; some rea sons are requisite to produce a supposition; a parti-cular state of feeling or train of thinking may of itself create a surmise.

Although the same epithets are generally applicable to all these terms, yet we may with propriety say that a conjecture is idle; a supposition false; a surmise

fanciful.

Conjectures are employed on events, their causes, consequences, and contingencies; 'In the casting of lots, a man cannot, upon any ground of reason, bring the event so much as under conjecture. South. Supposition is concerned in speculative points; 'This is

only an infallibility upon supposition, that if a thing he true it is impossible to be false. -Tillotson. Surmisc is employed on personal concerns; 'To let go private surmices whereby the thing is not made better or worse; if just and allowable reasons might lead them to do as they did, then are these censures frus-trate.—Ho MER. The secret measures of government rise to various conjectures; all the suppositions which are formed respecting comets seem at present to fall short of the truth: the behaviour of a person will often occasion a *surmise* respecting his intentions and proceedings, let them be ever so disguised. Antiquarians and etymologists deal much in conjectures; they have ample scope afforded them for asserting what can be neither proved nor denied; 'Persons of studious and contemplative natures often entertain themselves with the history of past ages, or raise schemes and conjectures upon futurity."—Addison. Religionists are pleased to build many suppositions of a doctrinal nature on the Scriptures, or, more properly, on their own partial and forced interpretations of the Scriptures; Even in that part which we have of the journey to Canterbury, it will be necessary, in the following Review of Chaucer, to take notice of certain defects and meonsistencies, which can only be accounted for upon the supposition that the work was never finished by the author.'—Tyrwhitt. It is the part of prudence, as well as justice, not to express any surmises which we may entertain, either as to the character or conduct of others, which may not redound to their credit; Any the least surmise of neglect has raised an aversion in one man to another.'-SOUTH.

TO CONJECTURE, GUESS, DIVINE.

Conjecturing, in the same sense as before (vide Con-Jecture), in nearly allied to guessing and dieming, guess, in Saxon and Low German gissen, is connected with the word ghost, and the German geist, &c. spirit, signifying the action of a spirit; divine, from the Latin divinus and Deus a God, signifies to think and know as independently as a God.

We conjecture that which may be; 'When we look we conjecture that which may be, upon such things as equally may or may not be, human reason can then, at the best, but conjecture what will be.'—South. We guess that a thing actually is or

was:

Incapable and shallow innocents You cannot guess who caused your father's death.

SHAKSPEARE.

We conjecture at the meaning of a person's actions; we guess that it is a certain hour. The conjecturing is opposed to the full conviction of a thing; the guessing is opposed to the certain knowledge of a thing;

And these discoveries make us all confess That sublunary science is but guess .- Denham.

A child guesses at that portion of his lesson which he has not properly learned; a fanciful person employs conjecture where he cannot draw any positive conclusion.

To guess and conjecture both imply, for the most part, the judging or forming an opinion without any grounds; but sometimes they are used for a judgement on some grounds; 'One may guess by Plato's writings that his meaning as to the inferiour deities, was, that they who would have them might, and they who would not might leave them alone; but that himself had a right opinion concerning the true God.'—Stilling-FLEET.

Now hear the Grecian fraud, and from this one Conjecture all the rest .- DRYDEN.

To guess and conjecture are the natural acts of the divine, in its proper sense, is a supernatural act; in this sense the heathens affected to divine that which was known only to an Omniscient Being; and impostors in our time presume to divine in matters that are set above the reach of human comprehension. The term is however employed to denote a species of guessing in different matters, as to divine the meaning of a mystery;

Walking they talk'd, and fruitlessly divin'd What friend the priestess by those words design'd. DRYDEN.

TO DOUBT, QUESTION, DISPUTE

Doubt, in French douter, Latin dubito from dubius, comes from $\delta \delta \omega$ and $\delta \delta \omega \omega$, in the same manner as our frequentiative doubt, signifying to have two opinions; question, in Latin questio, from quero, to inquire, signifies to make a question or inquiry: dispute, from the Latin dispute, or dis asunder and pute to think, sig

nifies literally to think differently.

These terms express the act of the mind in staying its decision. The doubt lies altogether in the mind; it is a less active feeling than questioning or disputing: by the former we merely suspend decision; by the latter we actually demand proofs in order to assist us in de-We may doubt in silence; we cannot question or dispute without expressing it directly or indirectly.

who suggests doubts does it with caution; who makes a question throws in difficulties with a degree of confidence. Doubts insinuate themselves into the mind oftentimes involuntarily on the part of the doubter; questions are always made with an express design. We doubt in matters of general interest, on abstruse as well as common subjects, we question mostly in ordinary matters that are of a personal interest; disputing is no less personal than questioning, but the dispute respects the opinions or assertions of another; the question respects his moral character or qualities; we doubt the truth of a position; 'For my part I think the being of a God is so little to be doubtrd, that I think it is almost the only truth we are sure of.

-Addison. We question the veracity of an author:

Our business in the field of fight Is not to question, but to prove our might .- POPE.

The existence of mermaids was doubted for a great length of time; but the testimony of creditable persons, who have lately seen them, ought now to put it out of all doubt. When the practicability of any passion and doubt. When the practicability of the person is disputed merits. When the authority of the person is disputed of the person is disputed.

Now I am sent, and am not to dispute My prince's orders, but to execute.

The doubt is frequently confined to the individual, The about is requestly commed to the marviallar, the question and dispute frequently respect others. We doubt whether we shall be able to succeed; we question another's right to interfere; we dispute a per son's claim to any homour; we doubt whether a thing will answer the end proposed; we question the utility of any one making the attempt; we dispute the justice of any legal sentence; in this application of the terms question and dispute, the former expresses a less decisive feeling and action than the latter.

There are many doubtful cases in medicine, where the physician is at a loss to decide; there are many questionable measures proposed by those who are in or out of power which demand consideration. There are many disputable points between man and man which cause much angry feeling and disposition; to doubt every thing is more inimical to the cause of truth, than the readiness to believe every thing; a disposition to question whatever is said or done by others, is much more calculated to give offence than to prevent deception. A disposition to dispute every thing another says or does renders a person very unfit to be dealt with.

DOUBT, SUSPENSE.

The doubt respects that which we should believe: the suspense, from the Latin suspensus and suspender to hang upon, has regard to that which we wish to know or ascertain. We are in doubt for the want of evidence; we are in suspense for the want of certainty. The doubt interrupts our progress in the attainment of truth; 'Could any difficulty have been proposed, the resolution would have been as early as the proposal; it could not have had time to settle into doubt.'—South. The suspense impedes us in the attainment of our objects, or in our motives to action: the former is connected principally with the understanding; the latter acts upon the hopes; it is frequently a state between acts upon the nopes; it is frequently a state between hope and fear. We have our daubts about things that have no regard to time; 'Gold is a wonderful clearer of the understanding; it dissipates every doubt and scruple in an instant.'—Addison. We are in suspense about things that are to happen in future, or that are about to be done. (The hourd of how eithers) about to be done; 'The bundle of hay on either side

striking his (the ass's) sight and smell in the same proportion, would keep him in perpetual suspense.'—Addison. Those are the least inclined to doubt who have the most thorough knowledge of a subject; those are the least exposed to the unpleasant feeling of suspense who confine their wishes to the present;

Ten days the prophet in suspense remain'd, Would no man's fate pronounce; at last constrain'd By Ithacus, he solemnly design'd Me for the sacrifice.—DRYDEN.

DOUBTFUL, DUBIOUS, UNCERTAIN, PRECARIOUS.

The doubtful admits of doubt (v. Doubt, suspense): the dubious creates suspense. The doubtful is said of things in which we are required to have an opinion; the dubious respects events and things that must speak for themselves. In doubtful cases it is adviseable for a judge to lean to the side of mercy; 'In handling the right of war, I am not willing to intermix matter doubtful with that which is out of doubt.'—Bacon. While the issue of a course is delivered. While the issue of a contest is dubious, all judgement of the parties, or of the case, must be carefully avoided:

His utmost pow'r, with adverse power oppos'd In dubious battle on the plains of heav'n.

It is worthy of remark, however, that doubtfue and dubious, being both derivations from the same Latin words dubito and dubius, are or may be indifferently used in many instances, according as it may suit the verse or otherwise;

The Greeks with slain Tlepolemus retir'd, Whose fall Ulysses view'd with fury fir'd; Doubtful if Jove's great son he should pursue. Or pour his vengeance on the Lycian crew .- Pope.

At the lower end of the room is to be a side-table for

At the lower end of the room is to be a single-table for persons of great fame, but dubious existence, such as Hercules, Theseus, Æneas, Achilles, Hector, and others.'—Swirt.

Doubtful and dubious have always a relation to the person forming the opinion on the subject in question; uncertain and precarious are epithets which designate the qualities of the things themselves. Whatever is uncertain may from that very circumstance be doubtful or dubious to those who attempt to determine upon them; but they may be designated for their uncertainty without any regard to the opinions which they may give rise to

A person's coming may be doubtful or uncertain; the length of his stay is oftener described as uncertain than as doubtful. The doubtful is opposed to that on which we form a positive conclusion; the uncertain to that which is definite or prescribed. The efficacy of any medicine is doubtful; the manner of its opera-tion may be uncertain. While our knowledge is limit-ed, we must expect to meet with many things that are doubtful; 'In doubtful cases reason still determines anothful; In aboutful cases reason son determines for the safer side; especially if the case be not only doubtful, but also highly concerning, and the venture be a soul, and an eternity.—South. As every thing in the world is exposed to change, and all that is future is entirely above our control, we must naturally expect to find every thing uncertain, but what we see passing before us

Near old Antandros, and at Ida's foot. The timber of the sacred grove we cut And build our fleet, uncertain yet to find What place the gods for our repose assign'd. DRYDEN.

Precarious, from the Latin precarius and precor to pray, signifies granted to entreaty, depending on the will or humour of another, whence it is applicable to whatever is obtained from others. *Precarious* is the highest species of uncertainty, applied to such things as nignest species of uncertainty, applied to such things as depend on future casualties in opposition to that which is fixed and determined by design. The weather is uncertain; the subsistence of a person who has no stated income or source of living must be precarious. It is uncertain what day a thing may take place until it is determined; 'Man, without the protection of a superiour Being, is secure of nothing that he enjoys, and uncertain of every thing he hopes for. TILLOTSON. There is nothing more precarious than what depends upon the favour of statesmen; 'The requent disappointments incident to hunting induced men to establish a permanent property in their flocks and herds, in order to sustain themselves in a less pre carious manner.'-BLACKSTONE.

DEMUR, DOUBT, HESITATION, OBJECTION.

The demur, the doubt, and the hesitation are here employed in the sense either of what causes demur, doubt, and hesitation, or of the states of mind themselves; the objection, from objicio, or ob and jacio to throw in the way, signifies what is thrown in the way

so as to stop our progress.

Demurs are often in matters of deliberation; doubt Demars are often in matters of lact; hesitation in matters of ordinary conduct; and objections in matters of common consideration. It is the business of one who gives counsel to make demars; it is the business of the inquirer to suggest doubts; it is the business of all occasionally to make a hesitation who are called upon to decide; it is the business of those to make objections whose opinion is consulted. Artabanes made many demurs to the proposed invasion of Greece by Xerxes: Certainly the highest and dearest concerns of a temporal life are infinitely less valuable than those of an eternal; and consequently ought, without any demur at all, to be sacrificed to them whenever they come in competition with them.'—South. Doubts have been suggested respecting the veracity of Herodotus as an historian:

> Our doubts are traitors, And make us lose, by fearing to attempt The good we oft might win.—Shakspeare.

It is not proper to ask that which cannot be granted without hesitation; 'A spirit of revenge makes him curse the Grecians in the seventh book, when they hesitate to accept Hector's challenge.'—Pope. And it is not the part of an amiable disposition to make a hesitation in complying with a reasonable request: there are but few things which we either attempt to do or recommend to others that is not liable to some kind of an objection.

A demur stops the adjustment of any plan or the determination of any question:

But with rejoinders and replies, Long bills, and answers stuff'd with lies, Demur, imparlance, and assoign, The parties ne'er could issue join .- Swift

A doubt interrupts the progress of the mind in coming to a state of satisfaction and certainty: they are both applied to abstract questions or such as are of general interest; 'This skeptical proceeding will make every sort of reasoning on every subject vain and frivolous, even that skeptical reasoning itself which has persuaded us to entertain a doubt concerning the agreement of our perceptions.—Burke.

Hesitation and objection are more individual and Hestiation and objection are more individual and private in their nature. Hesitation lies mostly in the state of the will; objection is rather the offspring of the understanding. The hesitation interferes with the action; 'If every man were wise and virtuous capable to discern the best use of time and resolute to practise it, it might be granted, Ithink, without hesitation, that total liberty would be a blessing,'—Johnson. The objection affects the measure or the mode of action; Lloyd was always raising objections and re moving them.'--Johnson.

TO DEMUR, HESITATE, PAUSE.

Demur, in French demeurer, Latin demorari, signifies to keep back; hesitate, in Latin hasitatum, participle of hasito, a frequentative from haro, signifies, first to stick at one thing and then another; pause, in Latin pausa, from the Greek $\pi a \dot{\nu} \omega$, to cease, signifies to make a stand.

The idea of stopping is common to these terms, to which signification is added some distinct collateral idea for each: we demur from doubt or difficulty; we hesitate from an undecided state of mind; we pause from circumstances. Demurring is the act of an equal: we demur in giving our assent, hesitating is often the

act of a superiour; we hesitate in giving our consent: We can never have occasion to waver, if we know and when a proposition appears to be unjust we demur in apporting it on the ground of its injustice; 'In order to banish an evil out of the world that does not only produce great uneasiness to private persons, but has also a very bad influence on the publick, I shall endeayour to show the folly of demurring.'-Appison. When a request of a dubious nature is made to us we kesitate in complying with it; 'I want no solicitations for me to comply where it would be ungenerous for me for hie to comply where it would be injected as the for refuse; for can I hesitate a moment to take upon myself the protection of a daughter of Correllius?—
Melmoth's Letters of Pliny. Prudent people are most apt to demur; but people of a wavering temper are apt to hesitate; demurring may be often unnecessary in mostly the called minimizer. sary, but it is seldom injurious; hesitating is mostly injurious when it is not necessary; the former is employed in matters that admit of delay; the latter in cases where immediate decision is requisite.

Demurring and hesitating are both employed as acts of the mind; pausing is an external action: we demur and hesitate in determining; we pause in speaking or

doing any thing;

Think, O think, And ere thou plunge into the vast abys-Pause on the verge awhile, look down and see Thy future mansion.—Porteus.

TO SCRUPLE, HESITATE, WAVER, FLUCTUATE.

To scruple (v. Conscientious) simply keeps us from deciding; the hesitation, from the Latin hæsito, frequentative of hæreo to stick, signifying to stick first at one thing and then another; the wavering, from the word wave, signifying to move backward and forward like a wave; and fluctuation, from the Latin fluctus a wave, all bespeak the variable state of the mind: we scruple simply from motives of doubt as to the proscrupte simply from motives of about as to the pro-priety of a thing; we hesitate and waver from various motives, particularly such as affect our interests. Conscience produces scruptes, fear produces hesitation, passion produces wavering; a person scruptes to do an action which may hurt his neighbour or offend his Maker; he hesitates to do a thing which he fears may not prove advantageous to him; he wavers in his mind between going or staying, according as his inclinations impel him to the one or the other a man who does not scruple to say or do as he pleases will be an offensive companion, if not a dangerous member of society; 'The Jacobins desire a change, and they will have it if they can; if they cannot have it by English cabal, they will make no sort of scruple to have it by the cabal of France.'-BURKE. He who hesitates only when the doing of good is proposed, evinces himself a worthless member of society; 'The lords of the congregation did not hesitate a moment whether they should employ their religion and liberty from impending destruction. -ROBERTSON. He who wavers between his duty and his inclination, will seldom maintain a long or doubtful contest; 'It is the greatest absurdity to be wavering and unsettled without closing with that side which ap

pears the most safe and probable.'—Addison.

To fluctuate conveys the idea of strong agitation; to waver, that of constant motion backward and forward: when applied in the moral sense, to fluctuate designates the action of the spirits or the opinions; to waver is said only of the will or opinions: is alternately merry and sad in quick succession is said to be fluctuating; or he who has many opinions in quick succession is said to fluctuate; but he who cannot form an opinion, or come to a resolution, is said to

maner.

Fluctuations and waverings are both opposed to a manly character; but the former evinces the uncontrolled influence of the passions, the total want of that equanimity which characterizes the Christian; the latter denotes the want of fixed principle, or the necessary decision of character: we can never have occasion to fluctuate, if we never raise our hopes and wishes beyond what is attainable;

The tempter, but with show of zeal and love To man, and indignation at his wrong, New part puts on, and as to passion mov'd Fluctuates disturb'd.—MILTON.

feel what is right, and resolve never to swerve from it: Let a man, without trepidation or wavering, proceed in discharging his duty.'-BLAIR.

TO HESITATE, FAULTER, STAMMER, STUTTER.

Hesitate signifies the same as in the preceding article; falter or faulter seems to signify to commit a fault or blunder, or it may be a frequentative of to fall, signifying to stumble; stammer, in the Teutonic stammern, comes most probably from the Hebrew DDD to obstruct; stutter is but a variation of stammer

A defect in utterance is the idea which is common in A detect in uterance is the least which is common to the signification of all these terms: they differ either as to the cause or the mode of the action. With regard to the cause, a hesitation results from the state of the mind, and an interruption in the train of thoughts; falter arises from a perturbed state of feeling; stammer and stutter arise either from an incidental circumstance, or more commonly from a physical defect in the organs of utterance. A person who is not in the habits of publick speaking, or of collecting his thoughts into a set form, will be apt to hesitate even in familiar conversation; he who first addresses a publick assembly will be apt to falter. Children who first begin to read will stammer at hard words: and one who has an impediment in his speech will statter when he attempts to speak in a hurry

With regard to the mode or degree of the action, hesitate expresses less than falter: stammer less than

The slightest difficulty in uttering words constitutes a hesitation; a pause or the repetition of a word may be termed hesitating; 'To look with solicitude and speak with hesitation is attainable at will; but the show of wisdom is ridiculous when there is nothing to cause doubt, as that of valour when there is nothing to be feared.'—Johnson. To fulter supposes a failure in the voice as well as the lips when they refuse to do their office ;

And yet was every faultering tongue of man, Almighty Father! silent in thy praise, Thy works themselves would raise a general voice.

THOMSON.

Stammering and stuttering are confined principally to the useless moving of the mouth;

Will stamm'ring tongues and stagg'ring feet produce.
DRYDEN.

He who stammers brings forth sounds, but not the right sounds, without trials and efforts; he who stutters remains for some time in a state of agitation without uttering a sound.

QUESTION, QUERY.

The question is the thing called in question, or that which is sought for by a question; query is but a variation of quære, from the verb quære to seek or inquire, signifying simply the thing sought for.

Questions and queries are both put for the sake of obtaining an answer; but the former may be for a reasonable or unreasonable cause; a query is mostly a rational question: idlers may put questions from mere curiosity; learned men put queries for the sake of information.

TO ASK, INQUIRE, QUESTION, INTERROGATE.

Ask, comes from the Saxon ascian, low German ken, eschen, German heischen, Danish adske, &c. esken, eschen, German heischen, Danish adske, &c. which for the most part signify to wish for, and come from the Greek dictou to think worthy; whence this word in English has been employed for an expression of our wishes, for the purpose of obtaining what we want from others; inquire, Latin inquire, compounded of in and quæro, signifies to search after; question, in Latin is a variation of the same word; interrogatus, Latin interrogatus, participle of interrogo, compounded of inter and rogo, signifies to ask alternately, or an asking between different persons.

We perform all these actions in order to get infor-

mation: but we ask for general purposes of convenience; we inquire from motives of curiosity; we question and interrogate from motives of discretion. To ask respects simply one thing; to inquire respects one or many subjects; to question and interrogate is to ask repeatedly, to examine by questioning and interrogating, and in the latter case more authoritatively than in the former.

Indifferent people ask of each other whatever they wish to know; 'Upon my asking her who it was, she told me it was a very grave elderly gentleman, but that she did not know his name.'—Appison. Learners arguire the reasons of things which are new to them;

You have oft inquir'd

After the shepherd that complain'd of love.

SHAKSPEARE.

Masters question their servants, or parents their children, when they wish to ascertain the real state of any case;

But hark you, Kate, I must not henceforth have you question me Whither I go.—Shakspeare.

Magistrates interrogate criminals when they are rought before them; 'Thomson was introduced to the Prince of Wales, and being gayly interrogated about the state of his affairs, said, "that they were in a more poetical posture than formerly." '—Johnson. It is very uncivil not to answer whatever is asked even by the meanest person: it is proper to satisfy every inquiry, so as to remove doubt: questions are sometimes so impertinent that they cannot with propriety be answered: interrogations from unauthorized persons are little better than insults. To ask and interrogate are always personal acts; to inquire and question are frequently applied to things, the former in the sense of seeking (n. Examination), and the latter in that of doubting (v. To Doubt).

EXAMINATION, SEARCH, INQUIRY, RESEARCH, INVESTIGATION, SCRUTINY.

Examination comes from the Latin examino and examen, the beam by which the poise of the balance is held, because the judgement keeps itself as it were in a balance in examining; search, in French chercher, is a variation of seek and see; inquiry signifies the same as in the preceding article; research is an intensive of search; investigation, from the Latin vestigium, a track, signifies seeking by the tracks or footsteps; scrutiny, from the Latin scrutor, to search, and scrutum, lumber, signifies looking for among lumber and rubbish, i. e. to ransack and turn over.

Examination is the most general of these terms, which all agree in expressing an active effort to find out that which is unknown. The examination is made either by the aid of the senses or the understanding, the body or the mind; the search is principally a physical action; the inquiry is mostly intellectual; we examine a face or we examine a subject; we search a house or a dictionary; we inquire into a matter. An examination is made for the purpose of forming a judgement; the search is made for ascertaining a fact; the inquiry is made in order to arrive at truth. To examine a person, is either by means of questions to get at his mind, or by means of looks to become acquainted with his person; to search a person is by corporeal contact to learn what he has about him. We examine the features of those who interest us; officers of justice search those who are suspected; but, with the prepositions for or after, the verb search may be employed in a moral application; 'If' you search purely for truth, it will be indifferent to you where you find it.'—Budell. Examinations and inquiries are both made by means of questions; but the former is an official act for a specifick end, the latter is a private act for purposes of convenience or pleasure. Students undergo examinations from their teachers; they pursue their inquiries for themselves.

An examination or an inquiry may be set on foot on any subject: but the examination is direct; it is the setting of things before the view, corporeal or mental, in order to obtain a conclusion; 'The body of mans such a subject as stands the utmost test of examination.'—Addison. The inquiry is indirect; it is a circuitous method of coming to the knowledge of what was not known before; 'Inquiries after happiness are

not so necessary and useful to mankind as the arts of consolation. —Addison. The student examines the evidences of Christianity, that he may strengthen his own belief; the government institute an inquiry into the conduct of subjects. A research is an inquiry into that which is remote; an investigation is a minute inquiry; a scruttny is a strict examination. Learned men of inquisitive tempers make their researches into antiquity;

To all inferiour animals 'tis giv'n
T' enjoy the state allotted them by heav'n;
No vain researches e'er disturb their rest.—Jenyns

Magistrates investigate doubtful and mysterious affairs; physicians investigate the causes of diseases; 'We have divided natural philosophy into the investigation of causes, and the production of effects.'—Bacon. Men scrutinize the actions of those whom they hold in suspicion; 'Before I go to bed, I make a scrutiny what peccant humours have reigned in me that day.'—HOWELL. Acuteness and penetration are peculiarly requisite in making researches; patience and perseverance are the necessary qualifications of the investigator; a quick discernment will essentially aid the scrutinizer.

TO EXAMINE, SEEK, SEARCH, EXPLORE.

These words are here considered as they designate the looking upon places or objects, in order to get acquainted with them. To examine (v. Examination) expresses less than to seek and search: and these less than to explore, which, from the Latin ex and plore, signifies to burst forth, whether in lamentation or examination.

We examine objects that are near; we seek those that are remote or not at hand; search those that are hidden or out of sight; we explore those that are unknown or very distant. The painter examines a land-scape in order to take a sketch of it;

Compare each phrase, examine ev'ry line, Weigh ev'ry word, and ev'ry thought refine.—Pops.

One friend seeks another when they have parted;

I have a venturous fairy, that shall seek
The squirrel's hoard, and fetch thee thence new nuts.
Shakspeare.

The botanist searches after curious plants; the inquisitive traveller explores unknown regions; the writer examines the books from which he intends to draw his authorities; 'Men will look into our lives, and examine our actions, and inquire into our conversations; by these they will judge the truth and reality of our profession.'—Tillotson. A person seeks an opportunity to effect a purpose;

Sweet peace, where dost thou dwell?

I humbly crave
Let me once know,
I sought thee in a secret cave,
And ask'd if peace were there.—Herbert.

The antiquarian searches every corner in which he hopes to find a monument of antiquity;

Not thou, nor they shall search the thoughts that roll Up in the close recesses of my soul.—Pope.

The classick explores the learning and wisdom of the ancients;

Hector, he said, my courage bids me meet This high achievement, and explore the fleet.—PCFE.

TO DISCUSS, EXAMINE.

Discuss, in Latin discussus, participle of discutio, signifies to shake asunder or to separate thoroughly so as to see the whole composition; examine has the same signification as in the preceding article, because the judgement holds the balance in examining.

judgement holds the balance in examining.

The intellectual operation expressed by these terms is applied to objects that cannot be immediately discerned or understood, but they vary both in mode and degree. Discussion is altogether carried on by verbal and personal communication; examination proceeds by reading, reflection, and observation; we often examine therefore by discussion, which is properly one mode of examination: a discussion is always carried on by two or more persons; an examination may be

carried on by one only: politicks are a frequent though | not always a pleasant subject of discussion in social meetings; 'A country fellow distinguishes himself as much in the church-yard as a citizen does upon the change; the whole parish politicks being generally discussed in that place either after sermon or before tastasses in the place there after setting to be of the bell rings.—Addition. Complicated questions cannot be too thoroughly examined; 'Men follow their inclinations without examining whether there be any principles which they ought to form for regulating their conduct.'-Blair. Discussion serves for amusement rather than for any solid purpose; the cause of truth seldom derives any immediate benefit from it, although the minds of men may become invigorated by a collision of sentiment: examination is of great practical utility in the direction of our conduct: all decisions must be partial, unjust, or imprudent, which are made without previous examination.

TO PRY, SCRUTINIZE, DIVE INTO.

Pry is in all probability changed from prove, in the sense of try; scrutinize comes from the Latin scrutor to search thoroughly (v. Examination) dive expresses the physical action of going under water to the bottom, and figuratively of searching to the bottom.

Pry is taken in the bad sense of looking more narrowly into things than one ought: scrutinize and dive into are employed in the good sense of searching things

to the bottom.

A person who pries looks into that which does not belong to him; and too narrowly also into that which may belong to him; it is the consequence of a too eager curiosity or a busy, meddling temper: a person who scrutinizes looks into that which is intentionally concealed from him; it is an act of duty flowing out of his office: a person who dives penetrates into that which lies hidden very deep; he is impelled to this action by the thirst of knowledge and a laudable curiosity.

A love of prying into the private affairs of families makes a person a troublesome neighbour; 'The peacemakes a person a trounesome neignour; 'I ne peace-able man never officiously seeks to pry into the secrets of others.'—BLAIR. It is the business of the magistrate to scrutinize into all matters which affect the good order of society; 'He who enters upon this scrutiny (into the depths of the mind) enters into a labyrinth. South. There are some minds so imbued with a love of science that they delight to dive into the secrets of nature:

In man the more we dive, the more we see Heaven's signet stamping an immortal make.

YOUNG.

CURIOUS, INQUISITIVE, PRYING.

Curious, in French curieux, Latin curiosus, from cura care, signifying full of care; inquisitive, in Latin inquisitus, from inquiro to inquire or search into, signifies a disposition to investigate thoroughly; pry ing signifies the disposition to pry, try, or sift to the bottom.

The disposition to interest one's self in matters not of immediate concern to one's self is the idea common to all these terms. Curiosity is directed to all objects that can gratify the inclination, taste, or understanding; inquisitiveness to such things only as satisfy the

understanding.

The curious person interests himself in all the works of nature and art; he is curious to try effects and examine causes: the inquisitive person endea-vours to add to his store of knowledge. Curiosity employs every means which falls in its way in order to procure gratification; the *curious* man uses his own powers or those of others to serve his purpose; inquisitiveness is indulged only by means of verbal inquiry; the inquisitive person collects all from others. A tra veller is curious who examines every thing for him-self; 'Sir Francis Bacon says, some have been so curious as to remark the times and seasons, when the stroke of an envious eye is most effectually pernicious.' -Steele. He is inquisitive when he minutely questions others. Inquisitiveness is therefore to curiosity tions others. Inquisitiveness is the total to the under sharp as a part to the whole; whoever is curious will naturally be inquisitive, and he who is inquisitive is so from a species of curiosity; but inquisitiveness may 7* sometimes be taken in an improper sense for moral objects; 'Checking our inquisitive solicitude about what the Almighty hath concealed, let us diligently improve what he hath made known.'—Blair.

Curious and inquisitive may be both used in a bad sense; prying is never used otherwise than in a bad sense. Inquisitive, as in the former case, is a mode of curiosity, and prying is a species of eager curiosity. A curious person takes unallowed means of learning that which he ought not to wish to know; an inquisitive person puts many impertinent and troublesome questions; a prying temper is unceasing in its endcavours to get acquainted with the secrets of others. Curiosity is a fault common to females; inquisitiveness is most general among children; a prying temper

belongs only to people of low character.

A well-disciplined mind checks the first risings of idle curiosity: children should be taught early to suppress an inquisitive temper, which may so easily become burdensome to others: those who are of a prying temper are insensible to every thing but the desire unveiling what lies hidden; such a disposition is often engendered by the unlicensed indulgence of curiosity in early life, which becomes a sort of passion in riper years; 'By adhering tenaciously to his opinion, and exhibiting other instances of a prying disposition, Lord George Sackville had rendered himself disagreeable to the commander-in-chief.'—Smollet.

CONCEIT, FANCY.

Conceit comes immediately from the Latin conceptus, participle of concipio to conceive, or form in the mind; fancy, in French phantasie, Latin phantasia, Greek φαντασία, from φαντάζω to make appear,

and φaivω to appear.

These terms equally express the working of the imagination in its distorted state; but conceit denotes a much greater degree of distortion than fancy; what we conceit is preposterous; what we fancy is unreal, or only apparent. Conceit applies only to internal obor only apparent. jects; it is mental in the operation and the result; it is a species of invention; Strong concert, like a new principle, carries all easily with it, when yet above common sense.'-Locke. Fancy is applied to external objects, or whatever acts on the senses: nervous people are subject to strange conceits; timid people fancy they hear sounds, or see objects in the dark which awaken terror.

Those who are apt to conceit oftener conceit that which is painful than otherwise;

Some have been wounded with conceit, And died of mere opinion strait.-BUTLER.

Conceiting either that they are always in danger of dying, or that all the world is their enemy. There are however insane people who conceit themselves to be kings and queens; and some indeed who are not called insane, who conceit themselves very learned while they know nothing, or very wise and clever, while they are exposing themselves to perpetual ridi while a exposing unenserves to perpetual ridi-cule for their folly, or very handsome while the world calls them plain, or very peaceable while they are always quarrelling with their neighbours, or very humble while they are tenaciously sticking for their own: it would be well if such conceits afforded a harmless pleasure to their authors, but unfortunately they only render them more offensive and disgusting than they would otherwise be.

Those who are apt to fancy, never fancy any thing to please themselves;

Desponding fear, of feeble fancies full, Weak and unmanly, loosens every power. THOMSON.

They fancy that things are too long or too short, too thick or too thin, too cold or too hot, with a thousand other fancies equally trivial in their nature; thereby proving that the slightest aberration of the mind is a serious evil, and productive of evil.

When taken in reference to intellectual objects, conceit is mostly in a bad sense; 'Nothing can be more plainly impossible than for a man "to be profitable to God," and consequently nothing can be more absurd than for a man to cherish so irrational a conceit.'-Addison. But fancy may be employed in a good sense; 'My friend, Sir Roger de Coverley, told me

t'other day, that he had been reading my paper upon Westminster Abbey, in which, says he, there are a great many ingenious fancies.'—Addison.

OPINIATED OR OPINIATIVE, CONCEITED, EGOISTICAL.

A fondness for one's opinion bespeaks the opiniated man: a fond conceit of one's self bespeaks the concetted man: a fond attachment to one's self bespeaks the egoistical man: a liking for one's self or one's own is evidently the common idea that runs through these terms: they differ in the mode and in the object.

is evidently the common idea that runs through these terms; they differ in the mode and in the object.

An opiniated man is not only fond of his own opinion, but full of his own opinion: he has an opinion on every thing, which is the best possible opinion, and is delivered therefore freely to every one, that they may profit in forming their own opinions; 'Down was he cast from all his greatness, as it is pity but all such politick opiniators should.'—SOUTH. A conceited man has a conceit or an idle, fond opinion of his own man has a conceit or an idle, fond opinion of his own talent; it is not only high in competition with others, but it is so high as to be set above others. The conceited man does not want to follow the ordinary means of acquiring knowledge: his conceit suggests to him that his talent will supply labour, application, reading and study, and every other contrivance which men have commonly employed for their improvement; he sees by intuition what another learns by experience and observation; he knows in a day what others want years to acquire; he learns of himself what others are contented to get by means of instruction; 'No great measure at a very difficult crisis can be pursued which is not attended with some mischief; none but conceited pretenders in publick business hold any other language. —Burke. The egoistical man makes himself the darling theme of his own contemplation; he admires and loves himself to that degree that he can talk and think of nothing else; his children, his house, his garden, his rooms, and the like, are the incessant theme of his conversation, and become invaluable from the mere circumstance of belonging to him; To show their particular aversion to speaking in the first person, the gentlemen of Port Royal branded this form of writing with the name of egotism.'— ADDISON.

An opiniated man is the most unfit for conversation, which only affords pleasure by an alternate and equable communication of sentiment. A conceited man is the most unfit for co-operation, where a junction of talent and effort is essential to bring things to a conclusion; an egoistical man is the most unfit to be a companion or friend, for he does not know how to value or like any thing out of himself.

SELF-WILL, SELF-CONCEIT, SELF-SUFFICIENCY.

Self-will signifies the will in one's self: self-conceit, conceit of one's self: self-sufficiency, sufficiency in one's self. As characteristicks they come very near to each other, but that depravity of the will which refuses to submit to any control either within or without is born with a person, and is among the earliest indications of character; in some it is less predominant than in others, but if not early checked, it is that defect in our natures which will always prevail; self-conceit is a vicious habit of the mind which is superinduced on the original character; it is that which determines in matters of judgement; a self-willed person thinks nothing of right or wrong; whatever the impulse of the moment suggests, is the motive to action;

To wilful men
The injuries that they themselves procur'd,
Must be their schoolmasters.—Shakspeare.

The self-conceited person is always much concerned about right and wrong, but it is only that which he conceives to be right and wrong; 'Nothing so haughty and assuming as ignorance, where self-conceit bids it set up for infallible!—South. Self-sufficiency is a species of self-conceit applied to action: as self-conceited person thinks of no opinion but his own; a self-sufficient person refuses the assistance of every one in whatever he is called upon to do;

There safe in self-sufficient impudence
Without experience, honesty, or sense,
Unknowing in her interest, trade, or laws,
He vainly undertakes his country's cause.—Jenyas.

PRIDE, VANITY, CONCEIT.

Pride is in all probability connected with the word parade, and the German pracht show or splendour, as it signifies that high-flown temper in a man which makes him paint to himself every thing in himself as beautiful or splendid; vanity, in Latin vanitas, from vain and vanus, is compounded of ve or valde and inanis, signifying exceeding emptiness; conceit signifies the same as in the preceding article (v. Conceit, Fancy).

The valuing of one's self on the possession of any property is the idea common to these terms, but they differ either in regard to the object or the manner of the action. Pride is the term of most extensive impor and application, and comprehends in its signification not only that of the other two terms, but likewise ideas

peculiar to itself.

Pride is applicable to every object, good or badhigh or low, small or great; vanity is applicable only to small objects: pride is therefore good or bad; vanity is always bad, it is always emptiness or nothingness. A man is proud who values himself on the possession of his literary or scientifick talent, on his wealth, on his rank, on his power, on his acquirements, or his superiority over his competitors; he is vain of his person, his dress, his walk, or any thing that is frivolous. Pride is the inherent quality in man; and while it rests on noble objects, it is his noblest characteristick; vanity is the distortion of one's nature flowing from a vicious constitution or education: pride shows itself variously according to the nature of the object on which it is fixed; a noble pride seeks to display itself in all that can command the respect or admiration of mankind; the pride of wealth, of power, or of other adventitious properties, commonly displays itself in an unscently deportment towards others; vanity shows itself only by its eagerness to catch the notice of others: 'Vanity makes men ridiculous, pride odious, and ambition terrible.—Street.

'Tis an old maxim in the schools, That vanity's the food of fools.—Swift.

Pride (says Blair) makes us esteem ourselves: vanitz makes us desire the esteem of others. But if pride is, as I have before observed, self-esteem, or, which is nearly the same thing, self-valuation, it cannot properly be said to make us esteem ourselves. Of vanitz I have already said that it makes us anxious for the notice and applause of others; but I cannot with Dr. Blair say that it makes us desire the esteem of others, because esteem is too substantial a quality to be sought for by the vain. Besides, that which Dr. Blair seems to assign as a leading and characteristick ground of distinction between pride and vanitz is only an incidental property. A man is said to be vain of his clothes, if he gives indications that he values himself upon them as a ground of distinction; although he should not expressly seek to display himself to others.

Conceit is that species of self-valuation that respects one's taients only; it is so far therefore closely allied to pride; but a man is said to be proud of that which he really has, but to be conceited of that which he really has not; a man may be proud to an excess, of merits which he actually possesses; but when he is conceited his merits are all in his own conceit; the latter is therefore obviously founded on falsehood altogether; 'The self-conceit of the young is the great source of those dangers to which they are exposed.'—Blank

PRIDE, HAUGHTINESS, LOFTINESS, DIGNITY.

Pride is here employed principally as respects the temper of the mind; the other terms are employed either as respects the sentiment of the mind, or the external behaviour.

Pride is here as before (v. Pride) a generick term: haughtiness, or the spirit of being haughty or high spirited (v. Haughty); loftiness, or the spirit of being lifted up; and dignity, or the sense of worth or value, are but modes of pride. Pride, insamuch as it consists purely of self-esteem, is a positive sentiment which one

may entertain independently of other persons: it lies in | the immost recesses of the human heart, and mingles itself insensibly with our affections and passions; is our companion by night and by day; in publick or in private; it goes with a man wherever he goes, and stays with him where he stays; it is a never-failing source of satisfaction and self-complacency under every circumstance and in every situation of human life.

Haughtiness is that mode of pride which springs out of one's comparison of one's self with others: the haughty man dwells on the inferiority of others; the d man in the strict sense dwells on his own perfections. Loftiness is a mode of pride which raises the spirit above objects supposed to be inferiour; it does not set a man so much above others as above himself. or that which concerns himself. Dignity is a mode of pride which exalts the whole man, it is the entire consciousness of what is becoming himself and due to

Pride assumes such a variety of shapes, and puts on such an infinity of disguises, that it is not easy always to recognise it at the first glance; but an insight into human nature will suffice to convince us that it is the spring of all human actions. Whether we see a man professing humility and self-abasement, or a singular degree of self-debasement, or any degree of self-exaltation, we may rest assured that his own pride or con-scious self-importance is not wounded by any such measures; but that in all cases he is equally stimulated with the desire of giving himself in the eyes of others that degree of importance to which in his own eyes he is entitled; 'Every demonstration of an implacable rancour and an untameable pride were the only en-couragements we received (from the regicides) to the renewal of our supplications."—BURKE. Haughtiness is an unbending species or mode of pride which does not stoop to any artifices to obtain gratification; but compels others to give it what it fancies to be its due: Provoked by Edward's haughtiness, even the passive Baliol began to mutiny.'—ROBERTSON. Loftiness and dignity are equally remote from any subtle pliancy, but they are in no less degree exempt from the unamiable characteristick of haughtiness which makes a man bear with oppressive sway upon others. A lofty spirit and a dignity of character preserve a man from yielding to the contamination of outward objects, but leave his judgement and feeling entirely free and unbiassed with respect to others; 'Waller describes Sacharissa as a predominating beauty of lofty charms and imperious influence.'—Johnson. 'Assoon as Almagro knew his fate to be inevitable, he met it with the dignity and fortitude of a veteran.'—Robertson.

As respects the external behaviour, a haughty carriage is mostly unbecoming; a lofty tone is mostly justifiable, particularly as circumstances may require; and a dignified air is without qualification becoming the man who possesses real dignity

HAUGHTINESS, DISDAIN, ARROGANCE.

Haughtiness is the abstract quality of haughty, as in the preceding article; disdain from the French de-daigner, or the privative de and dignus worthy, signifies thinking a thing to be worthless; arrogance, from arrogate, or the Latin ar or ad rogo to ask, signifies claiming or taking to one's self.

Haughtiness (says Dr. Blair) is founded on the high opinion we entertain of ourselves; disdain, on the low opinion we have of others; arrogance is the result of both, but if any thing, more of the former than the latter. Haughtiness and disdain are properly senti-ments of the mind, and arrogance a mode of acting resulting from a state of mind; there may therefore be haughtiness and disdain which have not betrayed themselves by any visible action; but the sentiment of arrogance is always accompanied by its corresponding action: the haughty man is known by the air of supe riority which he assumes; the disdainful man by the contempt which he shows to others: the arrogant man by his lofty pretensions.

Haughtiness and arrogance are both vicious; they are built upon a false idea of ourselves; 'The same haughtiness that prompts the act of injustice will more strongly incite its justification.'--Johnson. 'Turbulent, discontented men of quality, in proportion as they are puffed up with personal pride and arrogance, generally despise their own order. Burke. Disdain may be justifiable when provoked by what is infamous: a lady must treat with disdain the person who insults her honour; but otherwise it is a highly unbecoming

Didst thou not think such vengeance must await The wretch that, with his crimes all fresh about him, Rushes, irreverent, unprepar'd, uncall'd, Into his Maker's presence, throwing back With insolent disdain his choicest gift?—Portrus.

HAUGHTY, HIGH, HIGH-MINDED. Haughty, contracted from high-hearty, in Dutch hoogharty, signifies literally high-spirited, and like the word high, is derived through the medium of the

Northern languages, from the Hebrew 11% to be high.

Haughty characterizes mostly the outward behaviour; high respects both the external behaviour, and the internal sentiment; high-minded marks the senti-ment only, or the state of the mind.

With regard to the outward behaviour, haughty is a stronger term than high; a haughty carriage bespeaks not only a high opinion of one's self, but a strong mixture of contempt for others: a high carriage denotes simply a high opinion of one's self: haugh ness is therefore always offensive, as it is burdensome others; but height may sometimes be laudable in as much as it is justice to one's self: one can never give a command in a haughty tone without making others feel their inferiority in a painful degree; we may some-times assume a high tone in order to shelter ourselves from insult.

With regard to the sentiment of the mind, high denotes either a particular or an habitual state; high-minded is most commonly understood to designate an habitual state; the former may be either good or bad according to circumstances; the latter is expressly inconsistent with Christian humility. He is high whom virtue ennobles; his height is independent of adventitious circumstances, it becomes the poor as well as the rich; he is properly high who is set above any mean condescension; high-mindedness, on the contrary, includes in it a self-complacency that rests upon one's personal and incidental advantages rather than upon what is worthy of ourselves as rational agents. Supe riours are apt to indulge a haughty temper which does but excite the scorn and hatred of those who are com pelled to endure it:

Let gifts be to the mighty queen design'd, And mollify with pray'rs her haughty mind.

A high spirit is not always serviceable to one in depen dent circumstances; but when regulated by discretion, it enhances the value of a man's character; 'Who knows whether indignation may not succeed to terrour, and the revival of high sentiments, spurning away the illusion of safety purchased at the expense of glory, may not drive us to a generous despair.—Burke. No one can be high-minded without thinking better of himself, and worse of others, than he ought to think; The wise will determine from the gravity of the case; the irritable, from sensibility to oppression; the highminded from disdain and indignation at abusive power in unworthy hands .- BURKE.

TO CONTEMN, DESPISE, SCORN, DISDAIN.

Contemn, in Latin contemno, compounded of con and temno, is probably changed from tamino, and is derived from the Hebrew &nu to pollute or render worthless, which is the cause of contempt; despise, in Latin despicio, compound of de and specio, signifies to look down upon, which is a strong mark of contempt; scorn, varied from our word shorn, signifies stripped of all honours and exposed to derision, which situation is the cause of scorn; disdain has the same signification as in the preceding article.

The above elucidations sufficiently evince the feeling towards others which gives birth to all these actions. But the feeling of contempt is not quite so strong as that of despising, nor that of despising so strong as those of scorning and disdaining; the latter of which expresses the strongest sentiment of all. Persons are contemned for their moral qualities; they are despised on account of their outward circumstances, their characters, or their endowments. Superiours may be contemned; inferiours only, real or supposed, are de-

Contempt, as applied to persons, is not incompatible with a Christian temper when justly provoked by their character; but despising is distinctly forbidden and seldom warranted. Yet it is not so much our business seldom warranted. Yet it is not so much our business to contemn others as to contemn that which is contemptible; but we are not equally at liberty to despise the person, or any thing belonging to the person, of another. Whatever springs from the free will of an other may be a subject of contempt; but the casualties of fortune or the gifts of Providence, which are alike independent of personal merit, should never expose a person to be despised. We may, however, contemn a person for his impotent malice, or despise him for his meanness.

Persons are not scorned or disdained, but they may Persons are not secorned or disdained, but they may be treated with scorn or disdain; they are both improper expressions of contempt or despite; scorn marks the sentiment of a little, vain mind; disdain of a haughty and perverted mind. A beautiful woman looks with scorn on her whom she despises for the want of this natural gift. The wealthy man treats with disdain him whom he despises for his poverty. There is nothing excites the contempt of mankind so moverfully as a mixture of pride and meanness: 1 Company of the contempt of mankind so moverfully as a mixture of pride and meanness: 1 Company of the contempt of mankind so moverfully as a mixture of pride and meanness: 1 Company of the contempt of mankind so moverfully as a mixture of pride and meanness: 1 Company of the contempt of mankind so moverfully as a mixture of pride and meanness: 1 Company of the contempt of mankind so moverfully and mixture of pride and meanness: 1 Company of the contempt of mankind so many of the contempt of the powerfully as a mixture of pride and meanness; * Con-tempt and derision are hard words; but in what man-ner can one give advice to a youth in the pursuit and possession of sensual pleasures, or afford plut to an old man in the impotence and desire of enjoying them.'— Steel.e. A moment's reflection will teach us the folly and wickedness of despising another for that to which by the will of Providence we may the next moment be exposed ourselves; 'It is seldom that the great or the wise suspect that they are cheated and despised."

Johnson. There are silly persons who will scorn to be seen in the company of such as have not an equal share of finery

Infamous wretch: So much below my scorn, I dare not kill thee. DRYDEN.

And there are weak upstarts of fortune, who disdain to look at those who cannot measure purses with themselves;

Yet not for those, For what the potent victor in his rage Can else inflict, do I repent or change,
Though chang'd in outward lustre, that fix'd mind
And high disdain from sense of injur'd merit.

In speaking of things independently of others, or as immediately connected with ourselves, all these terms may be sometimes employed in a good or an indifferent

When we contemn a mean action, and scorn to conceal by falsehood what we are called upon to acknow ledge, we act the part of the gentleman as well as the Christian: 'A man of spirit should contemn the praise of the ignorant.'-STEELE. And it is inconsistent with our infirm and dependent condition, that we should feel inclined to despise any thing that falls in our way :

Thrice happy they, beneath their northern skies, Who that worst fear, the fear of death, despise; Provoke approaching fate, and bravely scorn To spare that life which must so soon return.

Much less are we at liberty to disdain to do any thing which our station requires; 'It is in some sort owing to the bounty of Providence that disdaining a cheap and unigar happiness, they frame to themselves imaginary goods, in which there is nothing can raise desire but the difficulty of obtaining them.'—BERKELEY. We ought to think nothing unworthy of us, nothing de-grading to us, but that which is inconsistent with the will of God: there are, however, too many who affect to despise small favours as not reaching their fancied deserts, and others who disdain to receive any favour at all, from mistaken ideas of dependence and obligation;

Virtue disdains to lend an ear To the mad people's sense of right.-FRANCIS.

CONTEMPTIBLE. CONTEMPTUOUS.

These terms are very frequently, though very erroneously, confounded in common discourse.

Contemptible is applied to the thing deserving contempt; Contemptuous to that which is expressive of contempt. Persons, or what is done by persons, may be either contemptible or contemptuous; but a thing is

only contemptible.

A production is contemptible; a sneer or look is con-temptuous; 'Silence, or a negligent indifference, pro-ceeds from anger mixed with scorn, that shows another to be thought by you too contemptible to be regarded.—Addrson. 'My sister's principles in many particulars differ; but there has been always such a harmony between us that she seldom smiles upon those who have suffered me to pass with a contemptuous negligence.'—HAWKESWORTH.

CONTEMPTIBLE, DESPICABLE, PITIFUL.

Contemptible is not so strong as despicable or pitiful. A person may be contemptible for his vanity or weak ness; but he is despicable for his servility and baseness of character; he is pitiful for his want of manliness and becoming spirit. A lie is at all times contemptible; it is despicable when it is told for purposes of gain or private interest; it is pitiful when accom person by private interest; it is pittjut when accompanied with indications of unmanly fear. It is contemptible to take credit to one's self for the good action one has not performed; Were every man persuaded from how mean and low a principle this passion (for flattery) is derived, there can be no doubt but the person who should alternate to exact the interest of the contempt of the present the pres person who should attempt to gratify it would then be as contemptible as he is now successful.'—Street. It is despicable to charge another with the faults which we ourselves have committed; 'To put on an artful part to obtain no other but an unjust praise from the undiscerning is of all endeavours the most despicable. STELLE. It is pitiful to offend others, and then attempt to screen ourselves from their resentment under any shelter which offers; 'There is something pitifully mean in the inverted ambition of that man who can hope for annihilation, and please himself to think that his whole fabrick shall crumble into dust.'-It is contemptible for a man in a superiour station to borrow of his inferiours; it is despicable in him to forfeit his word; it is pitiful in him to attempt to conceal aught by artifice.

CONTEMPTUOUS, SCORNFUL, DISDAINFUL.

These epithets rise in sense by a regular gradation. Contemptuous is general, and applied to whatever can express contempt; scornful and disdainful are particular; they apply only to outward marks: one is contemptuous who is scornful or disdainful, but not

Words, actions, and looks are contemptuous; looks,

sneers, and gestures are scornful and disdainful.

Contemptuous expressions are always unjustifiable: whatever may be the contempt which a person's conduct deserves, it is unbecoming in another to give him any indications of the sentiment he feels. and disdainful smiles are resorted to by the weakest or and assam as similes are resolved to by the worst of mankind; Prior never sacrifices accuracy to haste, nor indulges himself in contemptuous negligence or impatient idleness."—JOHNSON. 'As soon as Mavia began to look round, and saw the vagabond Mirtillo who had so long absented himself from her circle, she looked upon him with that glance which in the language of oglers is called the scornful'. STEELE.

In vain he thus attempts her mind to move With tears and prayers and late repenting love; Disdainfully she looked, then turning round, She fix'd her eyes unmov'd upon the ground.

TO LAUGH AT, RIDICULE.

Laugh, through the medium of the Saxon hlahan. old German lahan, Greek γελάω, comes from the He brew PMY with no variation in the meaning; ridi cule, from Latin rideo, has the same original meaning Both these verbs are used here in the improper sense for laughter, blended with more or less of contempt;

but the former displays itself by the natural expression of laughter; the latter shows itself by a verbal expression: the former is produced by a feeling of mirth, on observing the real or supposed weakness of another; the latter is produced by a strong sense of the absurd or irrational in another: the former is more implicated in the strong sense of the absurd or irrational in another: the former is more implicated intention to the strong sense of the absurd or irrational in another: mediately directed to the person who has excited the feeling; the latter is more commonly produced by the thing than by persons. We laugh at a person to his face; but we ridicule his notions by writing or in the course of conversation; we laugh at the individual; we ridicule that which is maintained by one or many. It is better to laugh at the fears of a child than to attempt to restrain them by violence, but it is still better to overcome them if possible by the force of reason Men laugh at one another's cost.'-Swift. Ridicule is not the test of truth; he therefore who attempts to misuse it against the cause of truth, will bring upon himself the contempt of all mankind; but folly can be assailed with no weapon so effectual as ridicule; body to please but himself, to ridicule or censure the common practices of mankind.'-Johnson. losopher Democritus preferred to laugh at the follies of men, rather than weep for them like Heraclitus; infidels have always employed ridicule against Christianity, by which they have betrayed not only their want of argument, but their personal depravity in laughing where they ought to be most serious.

LAUGHABLE, LUDICROUS, RIDICULOUS, COMICAL, OR COMICK, DROLL.

Laughable signifies exciting or fit to excite laughter; ludicrous, in Latin ludicer or ludicrus, from ludus a game, signifies causing game or sport; ridiculous exciting or fit to excite ridicule; comical, or comick, in Latin comicus, from the Greek κωμωδία comedy, and κώμη a village, because comedies were first performed in villages, signifies after the manner of comedy; droll, in French drole, is doubtless connected with the German rolle a part, in the phrase efne rolle spielen to

German rolle a part, in the phrase the rolle spielen to play a trick or perform a part.

Either the direct action of laughter or a corresponding sentiment is included in the signification of all these terms: they differ principally in the cause which produces the feeling; the laughable consists of objects in general whether personal or otherwise; the ludicova and ridiculous have more or less reference to that which is personal. What is laughable may excite simple meriment independently of all personal references. simple merriment independently of all personal reference, unless we admit what Mr. Hobbes, and after him Addison, have maintained of all laughter, that it springs from pride. But without entering into this nice question, I am inclined to distinguish between the laughable which arises from the reflection of what is to our own advantage or pleasure, and that which arises from reflecting on what is to the disadvantage of The droll tricks of a monkey, or the huanother. The droll tricks of a monkey, or the humorous stories of wit, are laughable from the nature of the things themselves; without any apparent allusion, however remote, to any individual but the one whose senses or mind is gratified;

They'll not show their teeth in way of smile, Though Nestor swear the jest be laughable.
SHARSPEARE.

The ludicrous and ridiculous are however species of the laughable which arise altogether from reflecting on that which is to the disadvantage of another. The ludicrous lies mostly in the outward circumstances of the individual, or such as are exposed to view and serve as a show; 'The action of the theatre, though modern states esteem it but ludicrous unless it be satirical and biting, was carefully watched by the ancients that it might improve mankind in virtue.'-Bacon. that it might improve manking in virtue.—Bacon. The ridiculous applies to every thing personal, whether external or internal; 'Infelix paupertas has nothing in it more intolerable than this, that it renders men ridiculous.'—South. The ludicrous does not comprehend that which is so much to the desparagement of the individual as the ridiculous; whatever there is in ourselves which excites laughter in others, is accompanied in their minds with a sense of our inferiority; and consequently the ludicrous always pro-duces this feeling; but only in a slight degree compared with the ridiculous, which awakens a positive.

sense of contempt. Whoever is in a ludicrous situ ation is, let it be in ever so small a degree, placed in an inferiour station, with regard to those by whom he is thus viewed; but he who is rendered ridiculous is positively degraded. It is possible, therefore, for a person to be in a ludicrous situation without any kind of moral demerit, or the slightest depreciation of his moral character; since that which renders his situation ludicrous is altogether independent of himself; or it becomes ludicrous only in the eyes of incompetent judges. "Let an ambassador," says Mr. Pope, "speak the best sense in the world, and deport himself in the most graceful manner before a prince, yet if the tail of his shirt happen, as I have known it happen to a very wise man, to hang out behind, more people will laugh at that than attend to the other." This is the ludicrous. The same can seldom be said of the ridiculous; for as this springs from positive moral causes, it reflects on the person to whom it attaches in a less questionable shape, and produces positive disgrace. Persons very rarely appear ridiculous without being really so; and he who is really ridiculous justly excites contempt.

Droll and comical are in the proper sense applied to things which cause laughter, as when we speak of a droll story, or a comical incident, or a comick song;

A comick subject loves an humble verse. Thyestes scorns a low and comick style.

ROSCOMMON

'In the Augustine age itself, notwithstanding the cen sure of Horace, they preferred the low buffoonery and drollery of Plautus to the delicacy of Terence.'— WARTON. These epithets may be applied to the person, but not so as to reflect disadvantageously on the individual, like the preceding terms.

TO DERIDE, MOCK, RIDICULE, RALLY, BANTER.

Deride, compounded of de and the Latin rideo; and ridicule, from rideo, both signify to laugh at; mock, in French moquer, Dutch mocken, Greek μωκαω, signifies likewise to laugh at; rally is doubtless connected with rail, which is in all probability a contraction of revile; and banter is possibly a corruption of the French badiner to jest.

Strong expressions of contempt are designated by all

these terms.

Derision and mockery evince themselves by the outward actions in general; ridicule consists more in words than actions; rallying and bantering almost entirely in words. Deride is not so strong a term as mock, but much stronger than ridicule. There is always a mixture of hostility in derision and mockery; but ridicule is frequently unaccompanied with any personal feeling of displeasure. Derision is often deep, not loud; it discovers itself in suppressed laughs, contemptuous sneers or gesticulations, and cutting expressions: mockery is mostly noisy and outrageous; it breaks forth in insulting buffoonery, and is sometimes accompanied with personal violence; the former consists of real but contemptuous laughter; the latter often of affected laughter and grimace. Derision and mockery are always personal; ridicule may be directed to things as well as persons. Derision and mockery are a direct attack on the individual, the latter still more so than the former; ridicule is as often used in writing as in personal intercourse.

Derision and mockery are practised by persons in any station; ridecule is mostly used by equals. A person is derided and mocked for that which is offensive as well as apparently absurd or extravagant; he is ridiculed for what is apparently ridiculous. Saviour was exposed both to the derision and mockery of his enemies: they derided him for what they dered to think his false pretensions to a superiour mission; they macked him by planting a crown of thorns, and acting the farce of royalty before him.

Derision may be provoked by ordinary circumstances; mockery by that which is extraordinary. When the prophet Elijah in his holy zeal mocked the false prophets of Baal, or when the children mocked the prophet Elisha, the term deride would not have suited either for the occasion or the action; but two people may deride each other in their angry disputes or unprincipled people may deride those whom they

cannot imitate, or condemn. Derision and mockery | to laugh; to make game signifies here to make the sub are altogether incompatible with the Christian temper; ridicule is justifiable in certain cases, particularly when it is not personal. When a man renders himself an object of derision, it does not follow that any one is justified in deriding him;

Satan beheld their plight, And to his mates thus in derision call'd O friends, why come not on those victors proud? MILTON.

Insults are not the means for correcting faults: mockery is very seldom used but for the gratification of a malig nant disposition; hence it is a strong expression when used figuratively;

Impell'd with steps unceasing to pursue Some fleeting good that mocks me with the view. GOLDSMITH.

Although ridicule is not the test of truth, and ought not to be employed in the place of argument, yet there are some follies too absurd to deserve more serious treatment;

Want is the scorn of every fool, And wit in rags is turn'd to ridicule .- DRYDEN.

Rally and banter, like derision and mockery, are Ratiy and values, in a serision and incomplete altogether personal acts, in which application they are very analogous to ridicule. Ridicule is the most general term of the three; we often rally and banter by ridiculing. There is more exposure in ridiculing; reproof in rallying; and provocation in bantering. A person may be ridiculed on account of his eccentricities; he is rallied for his defects; he is bantered for accidental circumstances: the two former actions are often justified by some substantial reason; the latter is often justified by some substantial reason, the father is an action as puerile as it is unjust, it is a contemptible species of mockery. Self-conceit and extravagant follies are oftentimes best corrected by good-natured ridicule; a man may deserve sometimes to be rallied for his want of resolution; 'The only piece of pleasantry in Paradise Lost, is where the evil spirits are described as rallying the angels upon the success of their new invented artillery.—Addison. Those who are of an ill-natured turn of mind will banter others for their misfortunes, or their personal defects, rather than not say something to their annoyance; 'As to your manner of behaving towards these unhappy young gentle-men (at College) you describe, let it be manly and easy; if they banter your regularity, order, decency, and love of study, banter in return their neglect of it. -Снатнам.

RIDICULE, SATIRE, IRONY, SARCASM.

Ridicule signifies the same as in the preceding article; satire and irony have the same original meaning as given under the head of Wit; sarcasm, from the Greek $\sigma a \rho \kappa a \sigma \rho \delta$, and $\sigma a \rho \kappa (k \omega_0, r \cos \alpha) \delta$; flesh, signifies literally to tear the flesh.

Ridicule has simple laughter in it; satire has a mixture of ill-nature or severity; the former is employed ture of hi-nature or seventy; the former is employed in matters of a shameless or trifling nature, sometimes improperly on deserving objects; 'Nothing is a greater mark of a degenerate and vicious age than the common ridicule which passes on this state of life (marriage).'—Addison. Sattre is employed either in personal or grave matters; 'A man resents with more somal or grave matters;' A man resents with nore bitterness a satire upon his abilities than his practice. "HAWKESWORTH. Irony is disguised satire; an ironist seems to praise that which he really means to conlemn; 'When Regan (in King Lear) counsels him

to ask her sister forgiveness, he falls on his knees and asks her with a striking kind of irony how such supplicating language as this becometh him.'—JOHNSON. Sarcasm is bitter and personal satire; all the others may be successfully and properly employed to expose folly and vice; but sarcasm, which is the indulgence only of personal resentment, is never justifiable; The severity of this sarcasm stung me with intolerable severity of this sarcasm

TO JEST, JOKE, MAKE GAME, SPORT.

Jest is in all probability abridged from gesticulate, ecause the ancient mimicks used much gesticulation in breaking their jests on the company; joke, in Latin focus, comes in all probability from the Hebrew DIY ject of game or play; to sport signifies here to sport with, or convert into a subject of amusement.

One jests in order to make others laugh; one jokes in order to please one's self. The jest is directed at the object; the joke is practised with the person or on the person. One attempts to make a thing laughable or ridiculous by jesting about it, or treating it in a jesting manner; one attempts to excite good humout in others, or indulge it in one's self by joking with them. Jests are therefore seldom harmless: jokes are frequently allowable. The most serious subject may be degraded by being turned into a jest;

But those who aim at ridicule, Should fix upon some certain rule, Which fairly hints they are in jest .- Swift.

Melancholy or dejection of the mind may be conve niently dispelled by a joke;

How fond are men of rule and place, Who court it from the mean and base, They love the cellar's vulgar joke, And lose their hours in ale and smoke .- GAY.

Court fools and buffoons used formerly to break their jests upon every subject by which they thought to entertain their employers: those who know how to joke with good-nature and discretion may contribute to the mirth of the company: to make game of is applicable only to persons: to make a sport of or sport with, is applied to objects in general, whether persons or things, both are employed like jest in the bad sense of treating a thing more lightly than it deserves; 'When Samson's eyes were out, of a public magistrate he was made a public sport.'—South.

To jest consists of words or corresponding signs; it

is peculiarly appropriate to one who acts a part: to joke consists not only of words, but of simple actions, which are calculated to produce mirth; it is peculiarly applicable to the social intercourse of friends: to make game of consists more of laughter than any; it has game of consists more of laughter than any; it has not the ingenuity of the jest, nor the good-nature of the joke; it is the part of the fool who wishes to make others appear what he himself really is: to sport with or to make sport of, consists not only of simple actions, but of conduct; it is the errour of a weak mind that does not know how to set a due value on any thing, the fool sports with his reputation, when he risks the loss of it for a bauble

TO SCOFF, GIBE, JEER, SNEER.

and jeer are connected with the word gabble and jab-ber, denoting an unseemly mode of speech. Scoff comes from the Greek σκώπτω to deride connected with sneeze and nose, the member by which sneering is performed.

Scoffing is a general term for expressing contempt; we may scoff either by gibes, jeers, or sneers; or we may scoff by opprobrious language and contemptuous looks: to gibe, jeer, and sneer, are personal acts; the gibe and jeer consist of words addressed to an individual; the former has most of ill-nature and reproach

Where town and country vicars flock in tribes, Secur'd by numbers from the laymen's gibes .- Swift. The latter has more of ridicule or satire in it;

Midas, expos'd to all their jeers, Had lost his art, and kept his ears.—Swift.

They are both, however, applied to the actions of vulgar people, who practise their coarse jokes on each other:

Shrewd fellows and such arch wags! That meet for nothing but to gibe.—Swift

'That jeering demeanour is a quality of great offence 'That geering demeanour is a quality of great offence to others, and danger towards a man's self:—Lang Wentworth. Scoff and sneer are directed either to persons or things as the object; gibe and jeer only towards persons: scoff is taken only in the proper sense; sneer derives its meaning from the literal act of sneering; the scoffer speaks lightly of that which decreases engines attacked. deserves serious attention ;

The fop, with learning at defiance Scoffs at the pedant and the science.—GAY

The sneerer speaks either actually with a sneer, or as

it were by implication with a sneer; 'There is one short passage still remaining (of Alexis the poet's) which conveys a sneer at Pythagoras.'—CVMBERLAND. The scoffers at religion set at naught all thoughts of decorum, they openly avow the little estimation in which they hold it; the sneerers at religion are more sly, but not less malignant; they wish to treat religion with contempt, but not to bring themselves into the contempt they deserve;

And sneers as learnedly as they,
Like females o'er their morning tea.—Swift

TO DISPARAGE, DETRACT, TRADUCE, DEPRECIATE, DEGRADE, DECRY.

Disparage, compounded of dis and parage, from par equal, signifies to make unequal or below what it ought to be; detract, in Latin detractum, participle of detrako, from de and trako to draw down, signifies to set a thing below its real value; traduce, in Latin traduce or transduce, signifies to carry from one to another that which is unfavourable; depreciate, from the Latin pretium, a price, signifies to bring down the price; degrade, compounded of de and grade or gradus a step, degree, signifies to bring a degree or step lower than one has been before; decry signifies literally to

cry down.

The idea of lowering the value of an object is common to all these words, which differ in the circumstances and object of the action. Disparagement is the most indefinite in the manner: detract and traduce are specifick in the forms by which an object is lowered: disparagement respects the mental endowments and qualifications: detract and traduce are said of the moral character; the former, however, in aleas specifick manner than the latter. We disparage a man's performance by speaking slightingly of it; we detract from the merits of a person by ascribing his success to chance; we traduce him by handing about tales that are unfavourable to his reputation: thus authors are apt to disparage the writings of their rivals; 'it is a hard and nice subject for a man to speak of himself; it grates his own heart to say any thing of disparagement, and the reader's ears to hear any thing of praise from him.'—COWLEY. A person may detract from the skill of another; 'I have very often been tempted to write invectives upon those who have detracted from my works; but I look upon it as a peculiar happiness that I have always hindered my resentments from proceeding to the systemity.'—Addition. Or he may traduce him by relating scandalous reports; 'Both Homer and Virgil had their compositions usurped by others; both were envied and traduced during their lives.'—Walsh.

To disparage, detract, and traduce, can be applied only to persons, or that which is personal; depreciate, degrade, and decry, to whatever is an object of esteen; we appreciate and decry to whatever is an object of esteen; we appreciate and degrade, therefore, things as well as persons, and decry things: to depreciate is, however, not so strong a term as to degrade; for the language which is employed to depreciate will be mild compared with that used for degrading; we may depreciate an object by implication, or in indirect terms; but harsh and unseemly epithets are employed for degrading: thus a man may be said to depreciate human nature, who does not represent it as capable of its true elevation; he degrades it who sinks it below the scale of rationality. We may depreciate or degrade an indirationality. We may depreciate or degrade an individual, a language, and the like; we decry measures and principles: the two former are an act of an individual; the latter is properly the act of many. Some men have such perverted notions that they are always depreciating whatever is esteemed excellent in the world; 'The business of our modish French authors is to depreciate human nature, and consider it under its worst appearances.'—Addison. They whose interests have stifled all feelings of humanity, have degraded the poor Africans, in order to justify the enstaving of them; 'Akenside certainly retained an unnecessary and outrageous zeal for what he called and thought liberty; a zeal which sometimes disguises from the world an envious desire of plundering wealth, or aegrading greatness."—Johnson. Political parti-sans commonly decry the measures of one party, in order to exalt those of another; 'Ignorant men are very subject to decry those beauties in a celebrated work which they have not eyes to discover.'—Addison. TO DISPARAGE, DEROGATE, DEGRADE.

Disparage and degrade have the same meaning as given in the preceding article; derogate, in Latin derogatus, from derogo to repeal in part, signifies to

take from a thing.

Disparage is here employed, not as the act of persons, but of things, in which case it is allied to derogate, but retains its indefinite and general sense as before: circumstances may disparage the performances of a writer; or they may derogate from the honours and dignities of an individual: it would be a high disparagement to an author to have it known been guilty of plagiarism; it derogates that he had from the dignity of a magistrate to take part in popular measures. To degrade is here, as in the former case, a much stronger expression than the other two: whatever dispurages or derogates does but take away a part from the value; but whatever degrades sinks it many degrees in the estimation of those in whose eyes it is degraded; in this manner religion is degraded by the low arts of its enthusiastick professors; 'Of the mind that can deliberately pollute itself with ideal wickedness, for the sake of spreading the contagion in society, I wish not to conceal or excuse the depravity. Such degradation of the dignity of genius cannot be contemplated but with grief and indignation.'—John-Whatever may tend to the disparagement of a religious profession, does injury to the cause of truth; "T is no disparagement to philosophy, that it cannot deify us."—GLANVILLE. Whatever derogates from the dignity of a man in any office is apt to degrade the office itself; 'I think we may say, without derogating from those wonderful performances (the Iliad and Eneid), that there is an unquestionable magnificence in every part of Paradise Lost, and indeed a much greater than could have been formed upon any Pagan system.'-Addison.

TO ASPERSE, DETRACT, DEFAME, SLANDER, CALUMNIATE.

Asperse, in Latin aspersus, participle of aspergo to sprinkle, signifies in a moral sense to stain with spots, detract has the same signification as given under the head of disparage; defame, in Latin defamo, compounded of the privative de and fama tame, signifies to deprive of reputation; slander is doubtless connected with the words slur, sully, and soil, signifying to stain with some spot; calumniate, from the Latin calumnia, and the Hebrew composition of the composition of the summary signifies to load with infamy.

All these terms denote an effort made to injure the character by some representation. Asperse and de tract mark an indirect misrepresentation; defame, stander, and calumniate, a positive assertion.

To asperse is to fix a stain on a moral character; to detract is to lessen its merits and excellencies. Aspersions always imply something bad, real or supposed; detractions are always founded on some supposed good in the object that is detracted: to defame is openly to advance some serious charge against the character: to stander is to expose the faults of another in his absence: to calumniate is to communicate secretly, or otherwise, circumstances to the injury of another.

Aspersions and detractions are never positive falsehoods, as they never amount to more than insinuations; defamation is the publick communication of facts, whether true or false: slander involves the discussion of moral qualities, and is consequently the declaration of an opinion as well as the communication of a fact: calumny, on the other hand, is a positive communication of circumstances known by the narrator at the time to be false. Aspersions are the effect of malice and meanness; they are the resource of the basest persons, insidiously to wound the characters of those whom they dare not openly attack: the most virtuous are exposed to the malignity of the asperser; 'It is certain, and observed by the wisest writers, that there are women who are not nicely chaste, and men not severely honest, in all families; therefore let those who may be apt to raise aspersions upon ours, please to give us an impartial account of their own, and we shall be satisfied.'—Steele. Detraction is the effect of envy: when a man is not disposed or able to follow the example of another, he strives to detract from the

merit of his actions by questioning the purity of his motives: distinguished persons are the most exposed to the evil tongues of detractors; 'What made their enmity the more entertaining to all the rest of their sex was, that in their detraction from each other, neither could fall upon terms which did not hit herself as much as her adversary. —Street. Defamation is the consequence of personal resentment, or a busy interference with other men's affairs; it is an unjustifiable exposure of their errours or vices, which is often visited with the due vengeance of the law upon the offender; with the due vengeance of the law upon the oriented, 'What shall we say of the pleasure a man takes in a defamatory libel? Is it not a heinous sin in the sight of God?—Aponson. Stander arises either from a mischievous temper, or a gossipping humour; it is the resource of ignorant and vacant minds, who are in want of some serious occupation: the standerer deals unmercifully with his neighbour, and speaks without regard to truth or falsehood;

Slander, that worst of poisons, ever finds An easy entrance to ignoble minds.-HERVEY.

Calumny is the worst of actions, resulting from the worst of motives; to injure the reputation of another by the sacrifice of truth, is an accumulation of guilt which is hardly exceeded by any one in the whole catalogue of vices; 'The way to silence calumny, says Bias, is to be always exercised in such things as are praiseworthy.'—Addison. Slanderers and calumni-ators are so near a-kin, that they are but too often found in the same person: it is to be expected that when the slanderer has exhausted all his surmises and censure upon his neighbour, he will not hesitate to calumniate him rather than remain silent.

If I speak slightingly of my neighbour, and insinuate any thing against the purity of his principles, or the rectitude of his conduct, I asperse him; if he be a charitable man, and I ascribe his charities to a selfish motive, or otherwise take away from the merit of his conduct, I am guilty of detraction: if I publish any thing openly that injures his reputation, I am a deif I communicate to others the reports that are famer: if I communicate to others the reports that are in circulation to his disadvantage, I am a slanderer: if I fabricate any thing myself and spread it abroad, I

am a calumniator.

TO ABASE, HUMBLE, DEGRADE, DISGRACE, DEBASE.

To abase expresses the strongest degree of self-humiliation, from the French abaisser, to bring down or make low, which is compounded of the intensive syllable a or ad and baisser from bas low, in Latin basis the base, which is the lowest part of a column. It is at present used principally in the Scripture language or in a metaphorical style, to imply the laying aside all the high pretensions which distinguish us from our fellow-creatures, the descending to a state comparatively low and mean; to humble, in French humilier, from the Latin humilis humble, and humus the ground, naturally marks a prostration to the ground, and figuratively a lowering the thoughts and feelings. According to the principles of Christianity whoever abaseth himself shall be exalted, and according to the same principles whoever reflects on his own littleness and unworthiness will daily humble himself before his Maker.

To degrade (v. To disparage), signifies to lower in the estimation of others. It supposes already a state of elevation either in outward circumstances or in publick opinion; disgrace is compounded of the privative dis and the noun grace or favour. To disgrace properly implies to put out of favour, which is always attended more or less with circumstances of ignominy, tended more or less with circumstances of ignominy, and reflects contempt on the object; debase is compounded of the intensive syllable de and the adjective base, signifying to make very base or low.

The modest man abases himself by not insisting on the distinctions to which he may be justly entitled: the penitent man humbles himself by confessing his errours; the man of rank degrades himself by a too familiar deportment with his inferiours; he disgraces himself by his meanness and irregularities, and debases humbles took by his meanness and irregularities, and debases

his character by his vices.

We can never be abased by abasing ourselves, but we may be humbled by unseasonable humiliations, or improper concessions; we may be degraded by de-

scending from our rank, and disgraced by the exposure

of our unworthy actions.

The great and good man may be abased and humbled, but never degraded or disgraced; his glory fol-lows him in his abasement or humiliation; his greatness protects him from degradation, and his virtue shields him from disgrace.

> 'Tis immortality, 'tis that alone Amid life's pains, abasements, emptiness, The soul can comfort.—Young.

My soul is justly humbled in the dust .- Rowe.

It is necessary to abase those who will exalt them selves; to humble those who have lofty opinions of themselves; 'If the mind be curbed and humbled too much in children; if their spirits be abased and broken much by too strict a hand over them; they lose all their vigour and industry. LOCKE. Those who act inconsistently with their rank and station are frequently degraded; but it is more common for others to be unjustly degraded through the envy and ill-will of their inferiours; 'It is very disingenuous to level the best of mankind with the worst, and for the faults of particulars to degrade the whole species.'-HUGHES Folly and wickedness bring disgrace on courts, where the contrary ought to be found;

You'd think no fools disgraced the former reign, Did not some grave examples still remain.-Pope.

The misuse of things for inferiour purposes debase their value; 'It is a kind of taking God's name in vain, to debase religion with such frivolous disputes.'-HOOKER

Of all these terms degrade and disgrace are the most nearly allied to each other; but the former has most nearly allied to each other; but the former has most regard to the external rank and condition, the latter to the moral estimation and character. What-ever is low and mean is degrading for those who are not of mean condition; whatever is immoral is disnot of mean condition; whatever is infilinitial is ass-graceful to all, but most so to those who ought to know better. It is degrading for a nobleman to associate with prize-fighters and jockeys; it is disgraceful for him to countenance the violation of the laws, which he is bound to protect; it is degrading for a clergyman to take part in the ordinary pleasures and occupations of mankind in general; it is disgraceful for him to indulge in any levities; Domitian degraded himself by the amusement which he chose of catching flies; he disgraced himself by the cruelty which he mixed with his meanness; king John of England degraded himself by his mean compliances to the pope and the barons and disgraced himself by many acts of injustice and cruelty

The higher the rank of the individual the greater his degradation: the higher his character, or the more sacred his office, the greater his disgrace, if he act in-consistently with its dignity: but these terms are not confined to any rank of life; there is that which is degrading and disgraceful for every person, however low his station; when a man forfeits that which he owes to himself, and sacrifices his independence to his vices, he degrades himself, 'When a hero is to be pulled down and degraded it is best done in doggerel.'

—Addison. 'So deplorable is the degradation of our nature, that whereas before we bore the image of God, we now only retain the image of men.'-South. who forfeits the good opinion of those who know him is disgraced, and he who fails to bestow on an object the favour or esteem which it is entitled to disgraces it; 'We may not so in any one kind admire her, that we disgrace her in any other; but let all her ways be according unto their place and degree adored.'—
HOOKER. But although the term disgrace when generally applied is always taken in a bad sense, yet gard to individuals it may be taken in an indifferent sense; it is possible to be disgraced, or to lose the favour of a patron, through his caprice, without any fault on the part of the disgraced person; 'Philips died honoured and lamented, before any part of his reputation had withered, and before his patron St. John had disgraced him. Men are very liable to err in their judgements on

what is degrading and disgraceful; but all who are anxious to uphold the station and character in which they have been placed, may safely observe this rule, that nothing can be so degrading as the violation of truth and sincerity, and nothing so disgraceful as a breach of moral rectitude or propriety.

These terms may be employed with a similar distinction in regard to things; a thing is degraded which falls any degree in the scale of general estimation;

All higher knowledge, in her presence, falls Degraded .- MILTON.

A thing is disgraced when it becomes or is made less lovely and desirable than it was;

And where the vales with violets once were crown'd, Now knotty burrs and thorns disgrace the ground.

DRYDEN.

TO ABASH, CONFOUND, CONFUSE,

Abash is an intensive of abase, signifying to abase thoroughly in spirit; confound and confuse are derived from different parts of the same Latin verb confundo. and its participle confusus. Confundo is compounded of con and fundo to pour together. To confound and of con and fundo to pour together. To confound and confuse then signify properly to melt together or into one mass what ought to be distinct; and figuratively, as it is here taken, to derange the thoughts in such manner as that they seem melted together.

Abash expresses more than confound, and confound more than confuse; shame contributes greatly to abashment; what is sudden and unaccountable serves to confound; bashfulness and a variety of emotions

give rise to confusion.

The haughty man is abashed when he is humbled in the eyes of others, or the sinner when he stands con-victed; 'If Peter was so abashed when Christ gave him a look after his denial; if there was so much dread in his looks when he was a prisoner; how much greater will it be when he sits as a judge.'—South. The wicked man is confounded when his villany is **suddenly** detected;

Alas! I am afraid they have awak'd, And 'tis not done: th' attempt, and not the deed, Confounds us!—Shakspeare.

A modest person may be confused in the presence of his superiours; 'The various evils of disease and poverty, pain and sorrow, are frequently derived from but shame and confusion are supposed to pro ceed from ourselves, and to be incurred only by the misconduct which they furnish.'—HAWKESWORTH.

Abash is always taken in a bad sense: neither the scorn of fools, nor the taunts of the oppressor, will abash him who has a conscience void of offence to-wards God and man. To be confounded is not always the consequence of guilt: superstition and ignorance are liable to be confounded by extraordinary phenomena; and Providence sometimes thinks fit to confound the wisdom of the wisest by signs and wonders far above the reach of human comprehension. Confusion is at the best an infirmity more or less excusable according to the nature of the cause: a steady mind and a clear head are not easily confused, but persons of quick sensibility cannot always preserve a perfect collection of thought in trying situations, and those who have any consciousness of guilt, and are not very hardened, will be soon thrown into confusion by close interrogatories.

DISHONOUR, DISGRACE, SHAME.

Dishonour implies the state of being without honour, or the thing which does away honour; disgrace signifies the state of disgrace, or that which causes the dis grace (v. Abase); shame denotes either the feeling of being ashamed, or that which causes this feeling.

Disgrace is more than dishonour, and less than ame. The disgrace is applicable to those who are shame. not sensible of the dishonour, and the shame for those who are not sensible of the disgrace. The tender mind is alive to dishonour: those who yield to their passions, or are hardened in their vicious courses, are passions, of a laterated at their victors courses, are alike insensible to disgrace or shame. Dishonour is seldom the consequence of any offence, or offered with any intention of punishing; it lies mostly in the consciousness of the individual. Disgrace and shame are the direct consequences of misconduct: but the former applies to circumstances of less importance than the latter; consequently the feeling of being in disgrace is not so strong as that of shame. A citizen feels it a dishonour not to be chosen to those offices of trust and honour for which he considers himself eligible; it is a disgrace to a schoolboy to be placed the lowest in his class; which is heightened into shame if it brings him into punishment;

Like a dull actor now,
I have forgot my part, and I am out
Even to a full disgrace.—SHAKSPEARE.

'I was secretly concerned to see human nature in so much wretchedness and disgrace, but could not for-bear smiling to hear Sir Roger advise the old woman to avoid all communications with the devil.'-Ap-DISON.

The fear of dishonour acts as a laudable stimulus to the discharge of one's duty; the fear of disgrace or shame serves to prevent the commission of vices or crimes. A soldier feels it a dishonour not to be placed

at the post of danger;

'T is no dishonour for the brave to die .- DRYDEN.

But he is not always sufficiently alive to the disgrace of being punished, nor is he deterred from his irregularities by the open shame to which he is sometimes put in the presence of his fellow-soldiers;

Where the proud theatres disclose the scene Which interwoven Britons seem to raise, And show the triumph which their shame displays.

As epithets these terms likewise rise in sense, and are distinguished by other characteristicks; a dishonourable action is that which violates the principles of honour ; a disgraceful action is that which reflects disgrace; shameful action is that of which one ought to be fully ashamed: it is very dishonourable for a man not to keep his word, or for a soldier not to maintain his post:

He did dishonourable find Those articles which did our state decrease.

It is very disgraceful for a gentleman to associate with those who are his inferiours in station and education; 'Masters must correct their servants with gentleness, prudence, and mercy, not with upbraiding and dis-graceful language. —TAYLOR (Holy Living). It is very shameful for a gentleman to use his rank and influence over the lower orders only to mislead them from their duty;

This all through that great prince's pride did fall, And came to shameful end .- Spenser.

A person is likewise said to be dishonourable who is disposed to bring dishonour upon himself; but things only are disgraceful or shameful: a dishonourable man renders himself an outcast among his equals; he must then descend to his inferiours, among whom he may become familiar with the disgraceful and the shameful; men of cultivation are alive to what is dishonourable; men of all stations are alive to that which is for them disgraceful, or to that which is in itself shameful: the what is dishonourable is to the superiour what sense of sense of what is usuamed does so the superior what the sense of the disgraceful is to the inferiour; but the sense of what is shameful is independent of rank or station, and forms a part of that moral sense which is inherent in the breast of every rational creature. Whoever therefore cherishes in himself a lively sense of what is dishonourable or disgraceful is tolerably secure of never committing any thing that is shameful.

DISCREDIT, DISGRACE, REPROACH, SCANDAL.

Discredit signifies the loss of credit; disgrace, the loss of grace, favour, or esteem; reproach stands for the thing that deserves to be reproached; and scandal for the thing that gives scandal or offence.

The conduct of men in their various relations with each other may give rise to the unfavourable sentiment which is expressed in common by these terms. Things are said to reflect discredit, or disgrace to bring reproach or scandal, on the individual. These terms seem to or scandal, on the individual. These terms seem to rise in sense one upon the other; disgrace is a stronger term than discredit; reproach than disgrace; and scandal than reproach.

Discredit interferes with a man's credit or respectability; disgrace marks him out as an object of unfavourable distinction; reproach makes him a subject of reproachful conversation; scandal makes him an

of offence or even abhorrence. As regularity in hours, regularity in habits or modes of living, regularity in payments, are a credit to a family; so is any deviation from this order to its discredit; as moral rectitude, kindness, charity, and benevolence, serve to ensure the good-will and esteem of men; so do instances of unfair dealing, cruelty, inhumanity, and an unfeeling temper, tend to the disgrace of the offender: as a life of distinguished virtue or particular instances of moral excellence, may cause a man to be spoken of in strong terms of commendation; so will flagrant atrocities or a course of immorality cause his name and himself to be the general subject of reproach: as the profession of a Christian with a consistent practice is the greatest ornament which a man can put on: so is the profession with an inconsistent practice the greatest deformity that can be witnessed; it is calculated to bring a scandal on religion itself in the eyes of those who do not know and feel its intrinsick excellencies.

Discredit depends much on the character, circumstances, and situation of those who discredit and those who are discredited. Those who are in responsible situations, and have had confidence reposed in them, must have a peculiar guard over their conduct not to bring discredit on themselves: disgrace depends on the temper of men's minds as well as collateral circumstances; where a nice sense of moral propriety is prevalent in any community, disgrace inevitably attaches to a deviation from good morals. Reproach and scandal refer more immediately to the nature of the actions than the character of the persons; the former being em-ployed in general matters; the latter mostly in a reli-gious application: it is greatly to the discredit of all heads of publick institutions, when they allow of abuses that interfere with the good order of the establishment, or divert it from its original purpose; "T is the duty of every Christian to be concerned for the reputation or discredit his life may bring on his profession.'—Rogers. 'When a man is made up wholly of the dove without the least grain of the serpent in his composition, he becomes ridiculous in many circumstances of his life, and very often discredits his best actions.—Addison. In Sparta the slightest intemperance reflected great disgrace on the offender;

And he whose affluence disdain'd a place Brib'd by a title, makes it a disgrace.-Brown.

In the present age, when the views of men on Christianity and its duties are so much more enlightened than they ever were, it is a reproach to any nation to con-tinue to traffick in the blood of its fellow-creatures; 'The cruelty of Mary's persecution equalled the deeds of those tyrants who have been the repreach to human nature.'—ROBERTSON. The blasphemous indecencies of which religious enthusiasts are guilty in the excess of their zeal is a scandal to all sober-minded Christians;

> His lustful orgies he enlarged Even to the hill of scandal, by the grove Of Moloch homicide.—MILTON.

INFAMOUS, SCANDALOUS.

Infamous, like infamy (v. Infamy), is applied to both persons and things; scandalous, or causing scandal, only to things: a character is infamous, or a transaction is infamous; but a transaction only is scandalous. Infamous and scandalous are both said of that which is calculated to excite great displeasure in the minds of all who hear it, and to degrade the offenders in the general estimation; but the infamous seems to be that which produces greater publicity, and more general reprehension, than the scandalous, consequently is that which is more serious in its nature, and a greater violation of good morals. Many of the leaders in the French revolution rendered themselves infamous by their violence, their rapine, and their murders; 'There is no crime more infamous than the violation of truth. -Johnson. The trick which was played upon the subscribers to the South Sea Company was a scandalous fraud, 'It is a very great, though sad and scandalous truth, that rich men are esteemed and honoured, while the ways by which they grow rich are abhorred." SOUTH

INFAMY, IGNOMINY, OPPROBRIUM. Infamy is the opposite to good fame; it consists in

an evil report; ignominy, from nomen a name, signifies an ill name, a stained name; opprobrium, a Latin word, compounded of op or ob and probrum, signifies

the highest degree of reproach or stain.

The idea of discredit or disgrace in the highest possible degree is common to all these terms: but infamy is that which attaches more to the thing than to the person; ignominy is thrown upon the person; and op probrium is thrown upon the agent rather than the action.

The infamy causes either the person or thing to be ill spoken of by all; abhorrence of both is expressed by every mouth, and the ill report spreads from mouth to mouth; ignominy causes the name and the person to be held in contempt; and to become debased in the eyes of others: opprobrium causes the person to be spoken of in severe terms of reproach, and to be shunned as something polluted. The infamy of a shunned as something polluted. The infamy of a traitorous proceeding is increased by the addition of ingratitude; the *ignominy* of a publick punishment is increased by the wickedness of the offender; *approbrium* sometimes falls upon the innocent, when cir cumstances seem to convict them of guilt.

Infamy is bestowed by the publick voice; it does not belong to one nation or one age, but to every age: infamy of a base transaction, as the massacre of the Danes in England, or of the Hugonots in France, will be handed down to the latest posterity; 'The share of infamy that is likely to fall to the lot of each individual in publick acts is small indeed."—BURKE. Ignoming is brought on a person by the act of the magistrate: the publick sentence of the law, and the infliction of that sentence, exposes the name to publick scorn; the ignominy, however, seldom extends beyond the individuals who are immediately concerned in it: every honest man, however humble his station and narrow his sphere, would fain preserve his name from being branded with

the ignominy of either himself, or any of his family, suffering death on the gallows; For strength from truth divided, and from just, Illaudable naught merits but dispraise,

And ignominy .- MILTON. Opprobrium is the judgement passed by the publick; it is more silent and even more confined than the infamy and the ignominy; individuals are exposed to it cording to the nature of the imputations under which they lie: every good man would be anxious to escape the opprobrium of having forfeited his integrity;

Nor he their outward only with the skins Of beasts, but inward nakedness much more Opprobrious, with his robe of righteousness Arraying, cover'd from his father's sight.

TO REVILE, VILIFY.

Revile, from the Latin vilis, signifies to reflect upon a person, or retort upon him that which is vile: to vilify, signifies to make a thing vile, that is, to set it forth as vile.

To revile is a personal act, it is addressed directly to the object of offence, and is addressed for the purpose of making the person vile in his own eyes: to vilify is an indirect attack which serves to make the object appear vile in the eyes of others. Revile is said only of sons, for persons only are reviled; but vilify is said mostly of things, for things are often vilified. To revile is contrary to all Christian duty; it is commonly resorted to by the most worthless, and practised upon the most worthy

But chief he gloried with licentious style, To lash the great, and monarchs to revile .- POPE.

To vilify is seldom justifiable; for we cannot vilify without using improper language; it is seldom resorted to but for the gratification of ill nature: 'There is no-body so weak of invention that cannot make some little stories to vihfy his enemy.'—Addison.

REPROACH, CONTUMELY, OBLOQUY.

Reproach has the same signification as given under To Blame; contumely, from contumeo, that is, contra tumeo, signifies to swell up against; obloquy, from ob and loquor, signifies speaking against or to the disparagement of.

The idea of contemptuous or angry treatment of others is common to all these terms; but reproach is the general, contamety and obloquy are the particular terms. Reproach is either deserved or undeserved; the name of Puritan is applied as a term of reproach to such as affect greater purity than others; the name of Christian is a name of reproach in Turkey; but reproach taken absolutely is always supposed to be undeserved, and to be itself a vice;

Has foul reproach a privilege from heav'n ?-Pope.

Contumety is always undeserved; it is the insolent swelling of a worthless person against merit in distress; our Saviour was exposed to the contumety of the Jews; 'The royal captives followed in the train, amid the horrid yells, and frantick dances, and infamous contumeties, of the furies of hell.'—Burke. Obloquy is always supposed to be deserved; it is applicable to those whose conduct has rendered them objects of general censure, and whose name therefore has almost become a reproach. A man who uses his power only to oppress those who are connected with him will naturally and deservedly bring upon himself much obloquy; 'Reasonable moderation hath freed us from being subject unto that kind of obloquy, whereby as the church of Rome dt th, under the colour of love towards those things which lie harmless, maintain extremely most hartful corruptions; so we, peradventure might be upbraided, that under colour of hatred towards those things that are corrupt, we are on the other side as extreme, even against most harmless ordinances.'—Hooker.

REPROACHFUL, ABUSIVE, SCURRILOUS.

Reproachful, when applied to the person, signifies full of reproaches; when to the thing, deserving of reproach: abusive is only applied to the person, signifying after the manner of abuse: scurrilous, from scurra a bufloon, is employed as an epithet either for persons or things, signifying using scurrility, or the language of a bufloon. The conduct of a person is reproachful in as much as it provokes or is entitled to the reproaches of others; the language of a person is reproachful when it abounds in reproaches, or partakes of the nature of a reproach; a person is abusive who indulges himself in abuse or abusive language: and he is scurrilous who adopts scurrility or scurrilous language.

When applied to the same object, whether to the person or to the thing, they rise in sense. The reproachful is less than the abusive, and this than the scurvilous: the reproachful is sometimes warranted by the provocation; but the abusive and scurrilous are always unwarrantable: reproachful language may be consistent with decency and propriety of speech, but when the term is taken absolutely, it is generally in the bad sense; 'Honour teaches a man not to revenge a contumelious or reproachful word, but to be above it.'—South. Abusive and scurrilous language are outrages against the laws of good breeding, if not of

morality;

Thus envy pleads a nat'ral claim
To persecute the Muse's fame,
Our poets in all times abusive,
From Homer down to Pope inclusive.
Swift.

Let your mirth be ever void of all scurrility and biting words to any man.—Sir Henry Sidney. A parent may sometimes find it necessary to address an unruly son in reproachful terms; or one friend may adopt a reproachful tone to another; none, however, but the lowest orders of men, and those only when their angry passions are awakened, will descend to abusive or scurrilous language.

TO REPROBATE, CONDEMN.

To reprobate, which is a variation of reproach, is much stronger than to condemn, which bears the same general meaning as given under To Blame; we always condemn when we reprobate, but not vice versa: to reprobate is to condemn in strong and reproachful language. We reprobate all measures which tend to sow discord in society, and to loosen the ties by which men are bound to each other; 'Simulation (according to my Lord Chesterfield) is by no means to be reprobated

The idea of contemptuous or angry treatment of there is common to all these terms; but reproach is the general, contunctly and obloquy are the particular are the particular are superiours;

I see the right, and I approve it too;

Condemn the wrong, and yet the wrong pursue.

TATE.

We reprobate only the thing; we condemn the person also: any act of disobedience in a child cannot be too strongly reprobated; a person must expect to be condemned when he involves himself in embarrassments through his own imprudence.

ABUSE, INVECTIVE.

Abuse, which from the Latin abutor, signifying to injure by improperly using, is here taken in the metaphorical application for ill-treatment of persons; invective, from the Latin inveho, signifies to bear upon or against. Harsh and unseemly censure is the idea common to these terms; but the former is employed more properly against the person, the latter against the thing.

Abuse is addressed to the individual, and mostly by

Abuse is addressed to the individual, and mostly by word of mouth: invective is communicated mostly by writing. Abuse is dictated by anger, which throws oit all constraint, and violates all decency: invective is dictated by party spirit, or an intemperate warmth of feeling in matters of opinion. Abuse is always resorted to by the vulgar in their private quarrels: invective is the ebullition of zeal and ill-nature in publick concerns.

The more rude and ignorant the man, the more liable he is to indulge in abuse; 'At an entertainment given by Pisistratus to some of his intimates, Thrasippus, a man of violent passion, and inflamed with wine, took some occasion, not recorded, to break out into the most violent abuse and insult.'—Cumber-Land. The more restless and opiniated the partisan, whether in religion or politicks, the more ready he is to deal in invective; 'This is a true way of examining a libel; and when men consider that no man living thinks better of their heroes and patrons for the panegyrick given them, none can think themselves lessened by their invective.'—Stelle. We must expect to meet with abuse from the vulgar whom we offend; and if we are in high stations, our conduct will draw forth invective from busybodies, whom spleen has converted into oppositionists.

DECLAIM, INVEIGH.

Declaim, in Latin declamo, that is, de and clamo, signifies literally to cry in a set form of words; inveigh is taken in the same sense as given in the preceding article.

To declaim is to speak either for or against a person declaiming is in all cases a noisy kind of oratory; 'It is usual for masters to make their boys declaim on both sides of an argument.'—Swift. To inveigh signifies always to speak against the object; in this latter applition publick men and publick measures are subjects for the declaimer; private individuals afford subjects for inveighing; the former is under the influence of parti-cular opinions or prejudices; the latter is the fruit of personal resentment or displeasure: patriots (as they are called) are always declaiming against the conduct of those in power, or the state of the nation; and not unfrequently they profit by the opportunity of indulging their private pique by inveighing against particular members of the government who have disappointed their expectations of advancement. A declaimer is noisy; he is a man of words; he makes long and loud speeches; 'Tully (was) a good orator, yet no good poet; Sallust, a good historiographer, but no good declaimer. Fotherby. An inveigher is virulent and personal; he enters into private details, and often indulges his malignant feelings under an affected regard for morality; 'Ill-tempered and extravagant invectives against papists, made by men, whose persons wanting authority, as much as their speeches do rea-son, do nothing else but set an edge on our adversaries' sword.'—Jackson. Although both these words may be applied to moral objects, yet declamations are more the applied to moral objects, yet accumations are more directed towards the thing, and invectives against the person; 'The grave and the merry have equally thought themselves at liberty to conclude, either with declaratory comptaints, or satirical censures of female | provoke condemnation, particularly if his integrity be foliv. - Johnson.

Scarce were the flocks refresh'd with morning dew, When Damon stretch'd beneath an olive shade, And wildly staring upward thus inveigh'd Against the conscious gods. - DRYPEN.

TO BLAME, REPROVE, REPROACH, UPBRAID, CENSURE, CONDEMN.

Blame, in French blamer, probably from the Greek Blame, in French blamer, probably from the Greek βεβλάμμαι, perfect of the verb βλάπτω to hurt, signifying to deal harshly with; reprove comes from the Latin reprove, which signifies the contrary of probe, to approve; reproach, in French reprocher, compounded of re and proche, proximus near, signifies to cast back upon a person; uppraid, compounded of upon, and braid or breed, signifies to hatch against one; censure, in French censure, Latin censura, the censorship, or the office of censor; the censor being a Roman magistrate, who took cognizance of the morals and manners of the people, and punished offences and manners of the people, and punished offences against either; condemn, in French condemner, Latin condemno, compounded of con and danno, from dannum, a loss or penalty, signifies to sentence to some penalty.

The expression of one's disapprobation of a person, or of that which he has done, is the common idea in the signification of these terms; but to blume expresses less than to reprove. We simply charge with a fault in blaming; but in reproving, severity is mixed with the charge. Reproach expresses more than either; it is to blame acrimoniously. We need not hesitate to blame as occasion may require; but it is proper to be cautious how we deal out reproof where the necessity of the case does not fully warrant it; and it is highly culpable to reproach without the most substantial

To blame and reprove are the acts of a superiour; to reproach, upbraid, that of an equal: to censure and condemn leave the relative condition of the parties concent leave the relative condition of the parties undefined. Masters blume or reprove their servants; parents their children; friends and acquaintances reproach and upbraid each other; persons of all conditions may censure or be censured, condemn or be condemned, according to circumstances.

Blame and reproof are dealt out on every ordinary occasion; reproach and upbraid respect personal matters, and always that which affects the moral character; censure and condemnation are provoked by faults and misconduct of different descriptions. Every fault, however trivial, may expose a person to blame, particularly if he perform any office for the vulgar, who are never contented;

Chafe not thyself about the rabble's censure They blame or praise, but as one leads the other.

Intentional errours, however small, seem necessarily to Intentional errours, however small, seein necessarily to call for reproof, and yet it is a mark of an imperious temper to substitute reproof in the place of admonition, when the latter might possibly answer the purpose; 'In all terms of reproof, when the sentence appears to arise from personal hatted or passion, it is not then made the cause of mankind, but a misunderstanding between two persons.'—STEELE. There is nothing which provokes a reproach sooner than ingratitude, although the offender is not entitled to so much notice from the injured person;

The prince replies: 'Ah cease, divinely fair, Nor add reproaches to the wounds I bear.'—POPE.

Mutual upbraidings commonly follow between those who have mutually contributed to their misfortunes;

Have we not known thee, slave! Of all the host, The man who acts the least upbraids the most.

The defective execution of a work is calculated to draw down censure upon its author, particularly if he betray a want of modesty;

Though ten times worse themselves, you'll frequent

called in question;

Thus they in mutual accusation spent The fruitless hours, but neither self-condemning. MILTON.

Blame, reproof, and upbraiding, are always addressed directly to the individual in person; reprocch, censure, and condemnation, are sometimes conveyed through an indirect channel, or not addressed at all to through an indirect channel, or not addressed at all to the party who is the object of them. When a master blames his servant, or a parent reproves his child, or one friend upbraids another, he directs his discourse to him to express his disapprobation. A man will always be reproached by his neighbours for the vices he com-mits, however he may fancy himself screened from their observation; 'The very regret of being surpassed in any valuable qualitiv. by a person of the same abiliin any valuable quality, by a person of the same abilities with ourselves, will reproach our own laziness, and even shame us into imitation.'—Rogers. Writers censure each other in their publications;

Men may censure thine (weakness) The gentler, if severely thou exact not More strength from me, than in thyself was found. MILTON

The conduct of individuals is sometimes condemned by the publick at large; 'They who approve my conduct in this particular are much more numerous than those who condemn it.'-SPECTATOR.

Blame, reproach, upbraid, and condemn, may be applied to ourselves; reproof and censure are applied to others: we blame ourselves for acts of imprudence; our consciences reproach us for our weaknesses, and upbraid or condemn us for our sine.

REPREHENSION, REPROOF.

Personal blame or censure is implied by both these terms, but the former is much milder than the latter. terms, but the former is much milder than the latter. By reprehension the personal independence is not so sensibly affected as in the case of reproof: people of all ages and stations whose conduct is exposed to the investigation of others are liable to reprehension; but children only or such as are in a subordinate capacity are exposed to reproof. The reprehension amounts to little more than passing an unfavourable sentence upon the conduct of another; 'When a man feels the reprehension of a friend, seconded by his own heart, he is easily heated into resentment.'—Johnson. Reproof adds to the reprehension an unfriendly address to the offender; 'There is an oblique way of reproof which takes off from the sharpness of it.'—Steele. The master of a school may be exposed to the reprehension of the parents for any supposed impropriety: his scholars are subject to his frequent reproof.

TO CHECK, CHIDE, REPRIMAND, REPROVE, REBUKE.

Check derives its figurative signification from the check-mate, a movement in the game of chess, whereby one stops one's adversary from making a further move; whence to check signifies to stop the course of a per son, and on this occasion by the exercise of authority; chide is in Saxon cidan, probably connected with chidan to scold; reprimand is compounded of the privative syllable repri and mand, in Latin mande to commend, synalog repri and mana, in Latin mana to Comment, signifying not to comment; reprove, in French reprouver, Latin reprobe, is compounded of the privative syllable re and probe, signifying to find the contrary of good, that is, to find had, to blame; rebuke is compounded of re and buke, in French bouche the mouth, in the contrary of the property of t signifying to stop the mouth.

The idea of expressing one's disapprobation of a

person's conduct is common to all these terms.

A person is checked that he may not continue to do what is offensive; he is chidden for what he has done that he may not repeat it: impertinent and forward people require to be checked, that they may not become intolerable:

I hate when vice can bolt her arguments. And virtue has no tongue to check her pride. MILTON.

Those who with keenest rage will censure you.—PITT.
Thoughtless people are chidden when they give hurtful proofs of their carelessness; 'What had he to do to chide at me?'—SHAKSPEARE.

People are checked by actions and looks, as well as words;

But if a clam'rous vile plebeian rose, Him with reproof he check'd, or tam'd with blows.

POPE.

They are childen by words only: a timid person is easily checked; the want even of due encouragement will serve to damp his resolution: the young are perpetually falling into irregularities which require to be childen;

His house was known to all the vagrant train, He chid their wanderings, but reliev'd their pain.

To chide marks a stronger degree of displeasure than reprimand, and reprimand than reprove or rebuke; a person may chide or reprimand in anger, he reproves and rebukes with coolness: great offences call forth chidings; omissions or mistakes occasion or require a reprimand; 'This sort of language was very severely reprimanded by the Censor, who told the criminal 'that he spoke in contempt of the court.''—Addison and Strele. Irregularities of conduct give rise to reproof; 'He who endeavours only the happiness of him whom he reproves, will always have the satisfaction of either obtaining or deserving kindness.'—Johnsson. Improprieties of behaviour demand rebuke; 'With all the infirmities of his disciples he calmly bore; and his rebukes were mild when their provocations were great.'—Blair.

Chiding and reprimanding are employed for offences against the individual, and in cases where the greatest disparity exists in the station of the parties; a child is chid by his parent; a servant is reprimanded by his

Reproving and rebuking have less to do with the relation or station of the parties, than with the nature of the offence: wisdom, age, and experience, or a spiritual mission, give authority to reprove or rebuke those whose conduct has violated any law, human or divine: the prophet Nathan reproved king David for his heinous offences against his Maker; our Saviour rebuked Peter for his presumptuous mode of speech.

TO ACCUSE, CHARGE, IMPEACH, ARRAIGN.

Accuse, in Latin accuso, compounded of ac or ad and cuso or cause a cause or trial, signifies to bring to trial; charge, from the word cargo a burden, signifies to lay a burden; impeach, in French empecher to hinder or disturb, compounded of em or in and pes the foot, signifies to set one's foot or one's self against another; arraign, compounded of ar or ad and raign or range, signifies to range, or set at the bar of a tribunal.

The idea of asserting the guilt of another is common to these terms. Accuse in the proper sense is applied particularly to crimes, but it is also applied to every species of offence; charge may be applied to crimes, but is used more commonly for breaches of moral conduct; we accuse a person of murder; we charge him with dishonesty.

Accuse is properly a formal action; charge is an informal action; criminals are accused, and their accusation is proved in a court of judicature to be true or false; 'The Countess of Hertford, demanding an audience of the Queen, laid before her the whole series of his mother's cruelty, and exposed the improbability of an accusation, by which he was charged with an intent to commit a nurder that could produce no advantage.'—Johnson (Life of Savage). Any person may be charged, and the charge may be either substantiated or refuted in the judgement of a third person; 'Nor was this irregularity the only charge which Lord Tyreonnel brought against him. Having given him a collection of valuable books stamped with his own arms, he had the mortification to see them in a short time exposed for sale.'—Johnson (Life of Sanage)

Impeach and arraign are both species of accusing; the former in application to statesmen and state concerns, the latter in regard to the general conduct or principles; with this difference, that he who impeaches only asserts the guilt, but does not determine it; but those who arraign also take upon themselves to decide: statesmen are impeached for misdemeanours in

the administration of government; 'Aristogiton, with revengeful cunning, impeached several courtiers and intimates of the tyrant.—CUMBERLAND. Kings arraign governours of provinces and subordinate princes, and in this manner kings are sometimes arraigned before mock tribunals: our Saviour was arraigned before Pilate; and creatures in the madness of presumption arraign their Creator; 'O the inexpressible horrour that will seize upon a poor sinner, when he stands arraigned at the bar of Divine justice.—South.

TO ACCUSE, CENSURE.

To accuse (v. To Accuse) is only to assert the guilt of another; to censure (v. To Censure) is to take that guilt for granted. We accuse only to make known the offence, to provoke inquiry; we censure in order to inflict a punishment. An accusation may be false or true; a censure mild or severe. It is extremely wrong to accuse another without sufficient grounds; 'If the person accused maketh his innocence plainly to appear upon his trial, the accuser is immediately put to an ignominious death.'—Swift. But still worse to censure him without the most substantial grounds; 'A statesman, who is possesed of real merit, should look upon his political censurers with the same neglect that a good writer regards his criticks.'—Appison.

Every one is at liberty to accuse another of offences which he knows him for a certainty to have committed; but none can censure who are not authorized by their age or station. Accusing is for the most part employed for publick offences, or for private offences of much greater magnitude than those which call for censure; 'Mr. Locke accuses those of great negligence who discourse of moral things with the least obscuriny in the terms they make use of.'—Budgell. 'If any man measure his words by his heart, and speak as he thinks, and do not express more kindness to every man than men usually have for any man, he can hardly escape the censure of the want of breeding.'—Tillorsos.

TO CENSURE, ANIMADVERT, CRITICISE.

To censure (v. To Accuse) expresses less than to animalvert or criticise; one may always censure when one animalverto, i.e. animalverto, and it animalverto, i.e. animalverto ad, signifies to turn the mind towards an object, and, in this case, with the view of finding fault with it: to criticise, from the Greek κρίγω to judge, signifies to pass a judgement upon another.

To censure and animadvert are both personal, the one direct, the other indirect; criticism is directed to things, and not to persons only.

Censuring consists in finding some fault real or supposed; it refers mostly to the conduct of individuals. Animadwert consists in suggesting some errour or impropriety; it refers mostly to matters of opinion and dispute; criticism consists in minutely examining the intrinsick characteristicks, and appreciating the merits of each individually, or the whole collectively; it refers to matters of science and learning.

To censure requires no more than simple assertion; its justice or propriety often rests on the authority of the individual; 'Many an author has been dejected at the censure of one whom he has looked upon as an idiot.'—Addison. Animadversions require to be accompanied with reasons; those who animadvert on the proceedings or opinions of others must state some grounds for their objections; 'I wish, Sir, you would do us the favour to animadvert frequently upon the false taste the town is in, with relation to the plays as well as operas.'—Stelle. Criticism is altogether argimentative and illustrative: it takes nothing for granted, it analyzes and decomposes, it compares and combines, it asserts and supports the assertions; 'It is ridiculous for any man to criticise on the works of another, who has not distinguished himself by his own performances.'—Addison.

The office of the censurer is the easiest and least honourable of the three; it may be assumed by ignorance and impertinence, it may be performed for the purpose of indulging an angry or imperious temper. The task of animadverting is delicate; it may be resorted to for the indulgence of an overweening self-conceit. The office of a critick is both arduous and

honourable; it cannot be filled by any one incompetent ! for the charge without exposing his arrogance and folly to merited contempt.

TO CENSURE, CARP, CAVIL.

Censure has the same general meaning as given in the preceding articles (v. To decuse); carp, in Latin carpo, signifies to pluck; cavil, in French caviller, in Latin caviller, from cavillum a hollow man, and cavus hollow, signifies to be unsound or unsubstantial

in speech.

To censure respects positive errours; to carp and cavil have regard to what is trivial or imaginary; the former is employed for errours in persons; the latter for supposed defects in things. Censures are frequently necessary from those who have the authority to use them; a good father will censure his children when their conduct is censurable: but censure may likewise be frequently unjust and frivolous; 'From a consciousness of his own integrity, a man assumes force enough to despise the little censures of ignorance and malice. BUDGELL. Carping and cavilling are resorted to only to indulge ill-nature or self-conceit; whoever owes another a grudge will be most disposed to carp at all he does in order to lessen him in the esteem of others those who contend more for victory than truth will be apt to cavil when they are at a loss for fair argument party politicians carp at the measures of administra-tion; It is always thus with pedants; they will ever be carping, if a gentleman or man of honour puts pen to paper. —Strele. Infidels cavil at the evidences of Christianity, because they are determined to disbelieve; 'Envy and cavil are the natural fruits of laziness and ignorance, which was probably the reason that in the heathen mythology Monus is said to be the son of Nox and Somnus, of darkness and sleep.'-Addison.

ANIMADVERSION, CRITICISM, STRICTURE.

Animadversion (v. To Censure) includes censure and reproof; criticism implies scrutiny and judgement, whether for or against; and stricture, from the Latin strictura and stringo to touch lightly upon, comprehends a partial investigation mingled with censure. We animadvert on a person's opinions by contradicting or correcting them; we criticise a person's works by minutely and rationally exposing their imperfections and beauties; we pass strictures on publick measures by descanting on them cursorily, and censuring them partially.

Animadversions are too personal to be impartial; consequently they are seldom just; they are mostly resorted to by those who want to build up one system on the ruins of another; but the term is sometimes employed in an indifferent sense; 'These things fall under a province you have partly pursued already, and therefore demand your animadversion for the regulating so noble an entertainment as that of the stage.'— STEELE. Oriticism is one of the most important and honourable departments of literature; a *critick* ought justly to weigh the merits and demerits of authors, but of the two his office is rather to blame than to praise: much less injury will accrue to the cause of literature from the severity than from the laxity of criticism; Just criticism demands not only that every beauty or blemish be minutely pointed out in its different degree and kind, but also that the reason and foundation of excellencies and faults be accurately ascertained.'— WARTON. Strictures are mostly the vehicles of party spleen; like most ephemeral productions, they are too superficial to be entitled to serious notice; but this term is also used in an indifferent sense for cursory critical remarks; 'To the end of most plays I have added short strictures, containing a general censure of faults or praise of excellence.'—Johnson.

COMPLAINT, ACCUSATION.

Both these terms are employed in regard to the conduct of others, but the complaint, from the verb to complain, is mostly made in matters that personally affect plan, is most year the accusation (o. to Accuse) is made of matters in general, but especially those of a moral nature. A complaint is made for the sake of obtaining redress; an accusation is made for the sake of ascer-

taining the fact or bringing to punishment. A complaint may be frivolous; an accusation false. People in subordinate stations should be careful to give no cause for complaint; 'On this occasion (of an interview with Addison), Pope made his complaint with frankness and spirit, as a man undeservedly neglected and opposed.' Spirit, as a man undeserveiny neglected and opposed.— Johnson. The most guarded conduct will not protect any person from the unjust accusations of the malevo-lent; 'With guilt enter distrust and discord, mutual accusation and stubborn self-defence.'—Johnson.

TO FIND FAULT WITH, BLAME, OBJECT TO.

All these terms denote not simply feeling, but also expressing dissatisfaction with some person or thing. To find fault with signifies here to point out a fault, either in some person or thing; to blame is said only of the person; object is applied to the thing only: we find the person; object is applied to the thing only. We find fault with a person for his behaviour; we find fault with our seat, our conveyance, and the like; we blame a person for his temerity or his improvidence; we object to a measure that is proposed. We find fault with or blame that which has been done; we object to that which is to be done.

that which is to be done.

Frading fault is a familiar action applied to matters of personal convenience or taste; blame and object to, personal convenience or taste; blame and object to, personal convenience or taste; blame and objects.

Finding fault is often the fruit of a discontented temper: there are some whom nothing will please, and who are ever ready to find fault with whatever comes in their way; "Iragi-comedy you have yourself found fault with very justly."—BUDGELL Blame is a matter of discretion; we blame frequently in order to correct; 'It is a most certain rule in reason and moral philosophy, that where there is no choice, there can be no blame —South. Objecting to is an affair either of caprice or necessity; some capriciously object to that which is proposed to their merely from a spirit of opposition; others object to a thing from substantial reasons; 'Men in all deliberations find ease to be of the negative side. to object, and foretel difficulties.'-Bacon.

TO OBJECT, OPPOSE.

To object, from ob and jacio to cast, is to cast in the way; to oppose is to place in the way; there is, therefore, very little original difference, except that casting is a more momentary and sudden proceeding, placing is a more premeditated action; which distinction, at the same time, corresponds with the use of the terms in ordinary life: to object to a thing is to propose or start something against it; but to oppose it is to set one's self up steadily against it: one objects to ordinary matters that require no reflection; one opposes matters that call for deliberation, and afford serious reasons for and against: a parent objects to his child's learning the classicks, or to his running about the streets; he opposes his marriage when he thinks the connexion or the circumstances not desirable: we object to a thing from our own particular feelings; we oppose a thing because we judge it improper; capricious or selfish people will object to every thing that comes across their own humour; 'About this time, an Archbishop of York objected to clerks (recommended to benefices by the Pope), because they were ignorant of English.'—Tyr. Those who oppose think it necessary to assign, at least, a reason for their opposition;

'T was of no purpose to oppose, She'd hear to no excuse in prose.—Swift.

OBJECTION, DIFFICULTY, EXCEPTION.

The objection (v. Demur) is here general; it comprehends both the difficulty and the exception, which are but species of the objection: the objection and the difficulty are started; the exception is made: the objection to a thing is in general that which renders it less desirable; but the difficulty is that which renders it less practicable; there is an objection against every scheme which incurs a serious risk; 'I would not desire what you have written to be omitted, unless I had the merit of removing your objection.'—Pope. The want of means to begin, or resources to carry on a scheme, are serious difficulties; 'In the examination of every great and comprehensive plan, such as that of Christianity. 'thentities may occur.'—Blair. In application to moral or intellectual subjects, the objection interferes with one's decision; the difficulty causes perplexity in the mind; 'They mistake difficulties for impossibilities; a pernicious mistake certainly, and the more pernicious, for that men are seldom convinced till their convictions do them no good.'—South. 'There is ever between all estates a secret war. I know well this speech is the objection, and not the decision; and that it is after refuted.'—Bacon.

The objection and exception both respect the nature, the moral tendency, or moral consequences of a thing; but the objection may be frivolous or serious; the exception is something serious: the objection is positive; the exception is relatively considered, that is, the thing excepted from other things, as not good, and consequently objected to. Objections are made sometimes to proposals for the mere sake of getting rid of an engagement: those who do not wish to give themselves trouble find an easy method of disengaging themselves, by making objections to every proposition; 'Whoever makes such objections against an hypothesis, hath a right to be heard, let his temper and genius be what it will.'—BURNET. Lawyers make exceptions to charges which are sometimes not sufficiently substantiated: 'When they deride our ceremonies as vain and frivolous, were it hard to apply their exceptions, even to those civil ceremonies, which at the coronation, in parliament, and all courts of justice, are used.'—CRANMER. In all engagements entered into, it is necessary to make exceptions to the parties, whenever there is any thing exceptionable in their characters: the present promiscuous diffusion of knowledge among the poorer orders is very objectionable on many grounds; the course of reading, which they commonly pursue, is without question highly exceptionable.

TO CONTRADICT, OPPOSE, DENY

To contradict, from the Latin contra and dictum, signifies a speech against a speech; to oppose, in French opposer, Latin opposui, perfect of oppone from op or ob and pono, signifies to throw in the way or against a thing; to deny, in French denier, Latin denge, is compounded of de, ne, and age or dice, signifying to say no.

To contradict, as the origin of the word sufficiently denotes, is to set up assertion against assertion, and is therefore a mode of opposition, whether used in a general or a particular application. Logicians call those propositions contradictory which, in all their terms, are most completely opposed to each other; as 'All men are liars;' No men are liars.' A contradiction necessarily supposes a verbal, though not necessarily appersonal, opposition; a person may unintentionally contradict himself, as is frequently the case with liars; and two persons may contradict each other without knowing what either has asserted; 'The Jews hold that in case two rabbies should contradict one another, they were yet bound to believe the contradictory assertions of both!—South.

But although contradicting must be more or less verbal, yet, in an extended application of the term, the contradiction may be implied in the action rather than in direct words, as when a person by his good conduct contradicts the slanders of his enemies; 'There are many who are fond of contradicting the common reports of fanee!—Aboutson. In this application, contradict and oppose are clearly distinguished from each other. So likewise in personal disputes contradiction implies opposition only as far as relates to the words; opposing, on the other hand, comprehends not only the spirit of the action, but also a great diversity in the mode; we may contradict from necessity, or in self-defence; we oppose from conviction, or a less honourable nature; we contradict by a direct negative; we oppose by means of argument or otherwise. It is a breach of politeness ever to contradict faity; it is a via lation of the moral law to oppose without the most su stantial grounds;

That tongue
Inspir'd with contradiction durst oppose
A third part of the gods.—Milton.

To contradict and to deny may be both considered as modes of verbal opposition, but one contradicts an assertion, and denies a fact; the contradiction implies the setting up one person's authority or opinion against

that of another; the denial implies the maintaining a person's veracity in opposition to the charges or insi nuations of others. Contradicting is commonly employed in speculative matters; 'If a gentleman is a little sincere in his representations, he is sure to have a dozen contradicters.'—Swift. Denying in matters of personal interest; 'One of the company began to rally him (an infidel) upon his devotion on shipboard, which the other denical in so high terms, that it produced the lie on both sides, and ended in a duel.'—Addison. Denying may, however, be employed as well as contradicting in the course of argument; but we deny the general truth of the position by contradicting the particular assertions of the individuals; 'In the Socratic way of dispute, you agree to every thing your opponent advances; in the Aristotelic, you are still denying and contradicting some part or other of what he says.'—Addison.

When contradict respects other persons, it is frequently a mode of opposition, as we may most effectually oppose a person by contradicting what he asserts; but contradiction does not necessarily imply opposition; the former is simply a mode of action, the latter comprehends both the action and the spirit, with which it is dictated: we contradict from necessity or in self-defence; we oppose, from conviction or some personal feeling of a less honourable nature. When we hear a friend unjustly charged of an offence, it is but reasonable to contradict the charge; objectionable measures may call for opposition, but it is sometimes prudent to abstain from opposing what we cannot prevent.

Contradict is likewise used in denying what is laid to one's charge; but we may deny without contradicting, in answer to a question': contradiction respects indifferent matters; denying is always used in matters of immediate interest.

Contradiction is employed for correcting others; dening is used to clear one's self: we may contradict falsely when we have not sufficient ground for contradicting; and we may deny justly when we rebut an unfair charge.

TO DENY, DISOWN, DISCLAIM, DISAVOW.

Deny (v. To deny) approaches nearest to the sense of disown when applied to persons; disown, that is, not to own, on the other hand, bears a strong analogy to deny when applied to things.

In the first case deny is said with regard to one's knowledge of or connexion with a person; discoming on the other hand is a term of larger import, including the renunciation of all relationship or social tie: the former is said of those who are not related; the latter of such only as are related. Peter denied our Saviour; 'We may deny God in all those acts that are morally good or evil; those are the proper scenes in which we act our confessions or denials of him.'—Soura. A parent can scarcely be justified in discoming his child let his vices be ever so enormous; a child can never discown its parent in any case without violating the most sacred duty.

In the second case deny is said in regard to things that concern others as well as ourselves; disown only in regard to what is done by one's self or that in which one is personally concerned. A person denies that there is any truth in the assertion of another; 'The Earl of Strafford positively denied the words.'—CLARKNON. He disowns all participation in any affair;

Then they who brother's better claim disown, Expel their parents, and usurp the throne.

DRYDEN.

We may deny having seen a thing; we may discount that we did it ourselves. Our veracity is often the only thing implicated in a denial; our guilt; innocence or honour are implicated in what we discoun. A winess denies what is stated as a fact; the accused parts discouns what is laid to his charge.

A denial is employed only for outward actions or events; that which can be related may be denied: discovning extends to whatever we can own or possess; we may discovn our feelings, our name, our connex.

ions, and the like.

Christians deny the charges which are brought against the gospel by its enemies; 'If, like Zeno, any one shall walk about and yet deny there is any motion in nature, surely that man was constituted for Anti-

cyra, and were a fit companion for those who, having a conceit they are dead, cannot be convicted unto the society of the living.'—Brown. The apostles would never disown the character which they held as messengers of Christ;

Sometimes lest man should quite his pow'r disown, He makes that power to trembling nations known,

Disclaim and disown are both personal acts respecting the individual who is the agent: to disclaim is to throw off a claim, as to disown is not to admit as one's own; as claim, from the Latin clamo, signifies to declare with a loud tone what we want as our own; so to disclaim is with an equally loud or positive tone, to give up a claim; this is a more positive act than to diswhich may be performed by insinuation, or by the mere abstaining to own.

He who feels himself disgraced by the actions that are done by his nation, or his family, will be ready to disclaim the very name which he bears in common

with the offending party;

The thing call'd life, with ease I can disclaim, And think it over-sold to purchase fame. - DRYDEN. An absurd pride sometimes impels men to disown their relationship to those who are beneath them in external

rank and condition;

DRYDEN.

Here Priam's son, Delphobus, he found: He scarcely knew him, striving to disown His blotted form, and blushing to be known.

An honest mind will disclaim all right to praise which An honest mind will disciding all right to praise which it feels not to belong to itself; the fear of ridicule sometimes makes a man discorn that which would redound to his honor: 'Very few among those who profess themselves Christians, disclarm all concern for their souls, discorn the authority, or renounce the expectations of the gospel—ROURES. This is not the professional transfer of the property of the second transfer of the gospel.

To disavow is to avow that a thing is not. The disapowal is a general declaration; the denial is a particu lar assertion; the former is made voluntarily and un-asked for, the latter is always in direct answer to a we disavow in matters of general interest where truth only is concerned; we deny in matters of personal interest where the character or feelings are

implicated.

What is disavowed is generally in support of truth; what is denied may often be in direct violation of truth an honest mind will always disavore whatever has been erroneously attributed to it; 'Dr. Solander disavore some of those narrations (in Hawkesworth's voyages), or at least declares them to be grossly misrewy ages, to a teast uctant stream to egoessy many presented."—Beattie. A timid person sometimes denies what he knows to be true from a fear of the consequences; 'The king now denied his knowledge of the conspiracy against Rizzio, by public proclama-Many persons have disacowed tions.'-ROBERTSON. being the author of the letters which are known under the name of Junius; the real authors who have denied their concern in it (as doubtless they have) availed themselves of the subterfuge, that since it was the affair of several, no one individually could call himself the author.

TO CONTROVERT, DISPUTE.

Controvert, compounded of the Latin contra and verto, signifies to turn against another in discourse, or direct one's self against another.

Dispute, in Latin dispute, from dis and pute, signifies literally to think differently, or to call in question the opinion of another, which is the sense that brings it in closest alliance with controverting.

To controvert has regard to speculative points; to dispute respects matters of fact: there is more of opposition in controversy; more of doubt in disputing; a sophist controverts; a skeptick disputes; the plainest and sublimest truths of the Gospel have been all conand sublimest frums of the Gospel have been all con-troverted in their turn by the self-sufficient inquirer; 'The demolishing of Dunkirk was so eagerly insisted on, and so warmly controverted, as had like to have produced a challenge.'—Budgell. The authenticity of the Bible itself has been disputed by some few individuals; the existence of a God by still fewer;

Now I am sent, and am not to dispute My prince's orders, but to execute.-DRYDEN.

Controversy is worse than an unprofitable task; instead of eliciting truth, it does but expose the failings of the parties engaged; 'How cometh it to pass that we are so rent with mutual contentions, and that the church is so much troubled? If men had been willing to learn, all these controversies might have died the very day they were first brought forth."-HOOKER. Disputing is not so personal, and consequently not so objectionable; we never controvert any point without seriously and decidedly intending to oppose the notions of another; we may sometimes dispute a point for the sake of friendly argument, or the desire of information; sake of friendly argument, or the desire of information: theologians and politicians are the greatest controver-sialists; it is the business of men in general to dispute whatever ought not to be taken for granted; 'The earth is now placed so conveniently that plants thrive and flourish in it, and animals live; this is matter of fact and beyond all dispute.'—BENTLEY. When dispute is taken in the sense of verbally maintaining a point in opposition to another, it ceases to have that alliance to the word controvert, and comes nearest to the sense of argue (v. Argue).

INDUBITABLE, UNQUESTIONABLE, INDIS-PUTABLE, UNDENIABLE, INCONTRO-VERTIBLE, IRREFRAGABLE.

Indubitable signifies admitting of no doubt (vide Doubt); unquestionable, admitting of no question (v. Doubt); indisputable, admitting of no dispute (v. To controvert); undeniable, not to be denied (v. To controvert); undeniable, not to be abused (v. To deny, disown); incontrovertible, not to be controverted (v. To controvertible; irrefragable, from frango to break, signifies not to be broken, destroyed, or done away. These terms are all opposed to uncertainty for the property of or done away. These terms are an opposed to discretainty; but they do not imply absolute certainty, for they all express the strong persuasion of a person's mind rather than the absolute nature of the thing: when a fact is supported by such evidence as admits of no kind of doubt, it is termed indubitable; 'A full or a thin house will indubitably express the sense of a majority.'—HAWKESWORTH. When the truth of an majoriy.—HAWKESWORTH. When the fittin of an assertion rests on the authority of a man whose character for integrity stands unimpeached, it is termed unquestionable authority; 'From the unquestionable documents and dictates of the law of nature, I shall evince the obligation lying upon every man, i snar evince the obligation lying upon every man to show grafitude.'—South. When a thing is believed to exist on the evidence of every man's senses, it is termed underiable; 'So underiable is the truth of this (viz. the hardness of our duty), that the scene of virtue is laid in our natural averseness to things excellent.'— South. When a sentiment has always been held as either true or false, without dispute, it is termed indis-putable; 'Truth, knowing the indisputable claim she has to all that is called reason, thinks it below her to has to all that is called reason, thinks it below her to ask that upon courtesy in which she can plead a property.'—South. When arguments have never been controverted, they are termed incontrovertible; 'Our distinction must rest upon a steady adherence to the incontrovertible rules of virtue.'—Blair. And when they have never been satisfactorily answered, they are termed irrefragable; 'There is none who walks so surely, and upon such irrefragable grounds of pru dence, as he who is religious.'—SOUTH.

TO ARGUE, DISPUTE, DEBATE.

To argue is to adduce arguments or reasons in support of one's position: to dispute, in Latin disputo compounded of dis and puto, signifies to think differently, in an extended sense, to assert a different opinion; to debate, in French debattre, compounded of the intensive syllable de and battre, to beat or fight, signifies to contend for and against.

To argue is to defend one's self; dispute to oppose another; to debate is to dispute in a formal manner. To argue on a subject is to explain the reasons or proofs in support of an assertion; to argue with a person is to defend a position against him: to dispute a thing is to advance objections against a position; to dispute with a person is to start objections against his positions, to attempt to refute them: a debate is a dis-putation held by many. To argue does not neces-sarily suppose a conviction on the part of the arguer that what he defends is true; nor a real difference of opinion in his opponent; for some men have such as

itching propensity for an argument, that they will course of conduct he shall pursue; the want of deli-attempt to prove what nobody denies; and in some beration, whether in private or publick transactions, is attempt to prove what nobody denies; and in some cases the term argue may be used in the sense of adducing reasons more for the purpose of producing mutual confirmation and illustration of truth than for the detection of falsehood, or the questioning of opi-

Of good and evil much they argued then .- MILTON.

To dispute always supposes an opposition to some person, but not a sincere opposition to the thing; for we may dispute that which we do not deny, for the sake of holding a dispute with one who is of different sentiments: to debate presupposes a multitude of clashing or opposing opinions. Men of many words argue for the sake of talking: men of ready tongues dispute for the sake of victory; men in Parliament often debate for the sake of opposing the ruling party, or from any other motive than the love of truth

Argumentation is a dangerous propensity, and ren ders a man an unpleasant companion in society; no one should set such a value on his opinions as to obtrude the defence of them on those who are uninterested in the question; 'Publick arguing oft serves not only to exasperate the minds, but to whet the wits of hereticks.'—Decay of Pietry. Displatation, as a scholastick exercise, is well fitted to exert the reasoning

powers and awaken a spirit of inquiry;

Thus Rodmond, train'd by this unhallow'd crew, The sacred social passions never knew: Unskill'd to argue, in dispute yet loud,

Bold without caution, without honours proud. FALCONER.

Debating in Parliament is by some converted into a trade; he who talks the loudest, and makes the most vehement opposition, expects the greatest applause;

The murmur ceas'd: then from his lofty throne The king invok'd the gods, and thus begun: I wish, ye Latins, what ye now debate Had been resolv'd before it was too late

TO CONSULT, DELIBERATE, DEBATE,

To consult, in French consulter, Latin consulto, is a frequentative of consulo, signifying to counsel together; to deliberate, in French deliberer, Latin delibero, compounded of de and libro, or libra a balance, signifies to weigh as in a balance.

Consultations always require two persons at least; deliberations require many, or only a man's self: an individual may consult with one or many; assemblies commonly deliberate: advice and information are given and received in consultations; 'Ulysses (as Homer tells us) made a voyage to the regions of the dead, to consult Tiresias how he should return to his -Apprson. Doubts, difficulties, and objeccountry.—Addition. Doubles and convertions, are started and removed in deliberations; 'Moloch declares himself abruptly for war, and appears incensed with his companions for losing so much time as even to deliberate upon it."—Addison. We communicate and hear when we consult; we pause and hesitate when we deliberate; those who have to co-operate must frequently consult together; those who have serious measures to decide upon must coolly

To debate (v. To argue) and to consult equally mark to acodacto. To argae; and to constact equany mark the acts of pausing or withholding the decision, whether applicable to one or many. To debate supposes always a contrariety of opinion; to deliberate supposes simply the weighing or estimating the value of the opinion that is offered. Where many persons have the liberty of offering their opinions, it is natural to expect that there will be debating ;

To seek sage Nestor now the chief resolves; With him in wholesome counsels to debate What yet remains to safe the sinking state.

When any subject offers that is complicated and questionable, it calls for mature deliberation;

> When man's life is in debate, The judge can ne'er too long deliberate.

It is lamentable when passion gets such an ascendency in the mind of any one, as to make him debate which

a more fruitful source of mischief than almost any

TO OPPOSE, RESIST, WITHSTAND, THWART.

Oppose (v. To object, oppose,) is the general term, signifying simply to put in the way; resist, signifies literally to stand back, away from, or against; with in withstand has the force of re in resist; thwart, from the German quer cross, signifies to come across.

The action of setting one thing up against another is obviously expressed by all these terms, but they differ in the manner and the circumstances. To opprese simply denotes the relative position of two objects, and when applied to persons it does not necessarily imply any personal characteristick; we may oppose reason or force to force; or things may be opposed to each other which are in an opposite direction, as a house to a church. Resist is always an act of more or less force when applied to persons; it is mostly a culpable action, as when men resist lawful authority; resistance is in fact always bad, unless in case of actual self-defence. Opposition may be made in any form, as when we oppose a person's admittance into a house by our personal efforts; or we oppose his admission into a society by a declaration of our opinions. Resistance is always a direct action, as when we resist an invading army by the sword, or we resist the evidence of our senses by denying our assent; or, in relation to things, when wood or any hard substance resists the violent efforts of steel or iron to make an impression.

Withstand and thwart are modes of resistance applicable only to conscious agents. To withstand is negative; it implies not to yield to any foreign agency: thus, a person withstands the entreaties of another to comply with a request. To thwart is positive; it is actively to cross the will of another: thus, humour some people are perpetually thwarting the wishes of those with whom they are in connexion. Habitual opposition, whether in act or in spirit, is equally senseless; none but conceited or turbulent people are guilty of it;

So hot th' assault, so high the tumult rose, While ours defend, and while the Greeks oppose.

Oppositionists to government are dangerous members of society, and are ever preaching up resistance to constituted authorities;

To do all our sole delight As being the contrary to his high will Whom we resist .- MILTON.

Particular instances of second sight have been given with such evidence, as neither Bacon nor Boyle have been able to resist.'—Johnson. It is a bappy thing when a young man can withstand the allurements of nleasure

For twice five days the good old seer withstood Th' intended treason, and was dumb to blood

It is a part of a Christian's duty to bear with patience the untoward events of life that thwart his purposes; 'The understanding and will never disagreed (before the fall); for the proposals of the one never thwarted the inclinations of the other.'—South.

TO CONFUTE, REFUTE, DISPROVE, OPPUGN.

Confute and refute, in Latin confuto and refuto, are compounded of con against, re privative, and futo, obsolete for argue, signifying to argue against or to argue the contrary; disprove, compounded of dis privative and prove, signifies to prove the contrary; oppugn, in Latin oppugno, signifies to fight in order to remove or overthrow.

To confute respects what is argumentative; refute what is personal; disprove whatever is represented or related; oppugn whatever is held or maintained.

An argument is confuted by proving its fallacy; a charge is refuted by proving one's innocence; an

assertion is disproved by proving that it is false; a doc-

trine is oppugned by a course of reasoning.

Paradoxes may be easily confuted; calumnies may be easily refuted; the marvellous and incredible stories of travellers may be easily disproved; heresies

And skeptical notions on ught to be appurgued.

The pernicious doctrines of skepticks, though often confuted, are as often advanced with the same degree of assurance by the free-thinking, and I might say the unthinking few who imbibe their spirit;

The learned do, by turns, the learn'd confute, Yet all depart unalter'd by dispute.-ORRERY

It is the employment of libellists to deal out their malicious aspersions against the objects of their malignity in a manner so loose and indirect as to preclinic the possibility of refutation; 'Philip of Macedon refuted by the force of gold all the wisdom of Athens.'—Ap-DISON. It would be a fruitless and unthankful task to attempt to disprove all the statements which are circulated in a common newspaper,

Man's feeble race what ills await! Labour and penury, the racks of pain, Disease, and sorrow's weeping train, And death, sad refuge from the storm of fate, The fond complaint, my song! disprove, And justify the laws of Jove.—Collins.

at is the duty of ministers of the Gospel to oppugn all doctrines that militate against the established faith of Christians; 'Ramus was one of the first oppugners of the old philosophy, who disturbed with innovations the quiet of the schools."—Johnson

TO IMPUGN, ATTACK

To impugn, from the Latin in and pugno, signifying to fight against, is synonymous with attack only in regard to doctrines or opinions; in which case, to impugn signifies to call in question, or bring arguments against; to attack is to oppose with warmth. Skepagainst; to attack is to oppose with warmin. Skepticks impagn every opinion, however self-evident or
well-grounded they may be: infidels make the most
indecent attacks upon the Bible, and all that is held
sacred by the rest of the world.

He who impagns may sometimes proceed insidiously
and circuitously to undermine the faith of others: he
who attacks always proceeds with more or less violence. To impage is not necessarily teleps in a had

lence. To impugn is not necessarily taken in a bad sense; we may sometimes impugn absurd doctrines by a fair train of reasoning: to attack is always objectionable, either in the mode of the action, or its object, or in both; it is a mode of proceeding oftener employed in the cause of falsehood than truth: when there are no arguments wherewith to impuge a doctor. trine, it is easy to attack it with ridicule and scurrility.

TO ATTACK, ASSAIL, ASSAULT, ENCOUNTER.

Attack, in French attaquer, changed from attacher, In Latin attactum, participle of attingo, signifies to bring into close contact; assail, assault, in French bring into close contact; assaut, assaut, in French assauler, Latin assitio, assatum, compounded of as or ad and satio, signifies to leap upon; encounter, in French rencontre, compounded of en or in and contre, in Latin contra against, signifies to run or come

Attack is the generick, the rest are specifick terms. To attack is to make an approach in order to do some To attack is to make an approach in order to do some violence to the person; to assail or assault is to make a sudden and vehement attack; to encounter is to meet the attack of another. One attacks by simply offering violence without necessarily producing an effect; one assails by means of missile weapons; one assaults by direct personal violence; one encounters by opposing violence to violence.

Men and animals attack or encounter; men only, in the literal sense, assail or assault. Animals attack cach other with the weapons nature has bestowed upon them; 'King Athelstan attacked another body of the Danes at sea near Sandwich, sunk nine of their ships, and put the rest to flight.'—Hume. Those who prowoke a multitude may expect to have their house or windows assailed with stones, and their persons essaulted :

So when he saw his flatt'ring arts to fail With greedy force he 'gan the fort t' assail. SPUNGER

And double death did wretched man invade By steel assaulted, and by gold betray'd .- DRYDEN.

It is ridiculous to attempt to encounter those who are superiour in strength and prowess; 'Putting themselves in order of battle, they encountered their enemies.'-KNOWLES.

They are all used figuratively. Men attack with reproaches or censures; they assail with abuse; they are assaulted by temptations; they encounter opposition and difficulties. A fever attacks; horrid shrieks assail the ear; dangers are encountered. The reputations of men in publick life are often wantonly attacked; 'The women might possibly have carried this Gothick building higher, had not a famous monk, Thomas Conecte by name, attacked it with great zeal and resolution.'—Addison. Publick men are assailed in every direction by the murmurs and complaints of, the discontented;

Not truly penitent, but chief to try
Her husband, how far urg'd his patience bears, His virtue or weakness which way to assail.

They often encounter the obstacles which party spirit throws in the way, without reaping any solid advan-tage to themselves; 'It is sufficient that you are able to encounter the temptations which now assault you: when God sends trials he may send strength.'-TAVLOR.

ATTACK, ASSAULT, ENCOUNTER, ONSET, CHARGE.

An attack and assault (v. To attack) may be made upon an unresisting object; encounter, onset, and charge, require at least two opposing parties. An attack may be slight or indirect; an assault must attack may be signt or indirect; an assautt must always be direct and mostly vigorous. An attack upon a town need not be attended with any injury to the walls or inhabitants; but an assault is commonly conducted so as to effect its capture. Attacks are made by robbers upon the person or property of another; assaults upon the person only; 'There is one species of diversion which has not been generally condemned, the best it is anothered by the second of the sec though it is produced by an attack upon those who have not voluntarily entered the lists; who find them-selves buffetted in the dark, and have neither means of defence nor possibility of advantage."—HAWKES-WORTH. 'We do not find the meeknessof a lamb in a creature so armed for battle and assault as the lion.'-ADDISON.

An encounter generally respects an unformal casual meeting between single individuals; onset and charge a regular attack between contending armies; onset is employed for the commencement of the battle; charge for an attack from a particular quarter. When knighternatry was in vogue, encounters were perpetually taking place between the knights and their antagonists, who often existed only in the imagination of the com-batants: encounters were, however, sometimes fierce and bloody, when neither party would yield to the other while he had the power of resistance;

And such a frown ach cast at th' other, as when two black clouds, With heav'n's artillery fraught, come rattling on Hovering a space, till winds the signal blow To join their dark encounter in mid air .- MILTON.

The French are said to make impetuous onsets, but not to withstand a continued attack with the same perseverance and steadiness as the English;

Onsets in love seem best like those in war, Fierce, resolute, and done with all the force .- TATE. A furious and well-directed charge from the cavalry will sometimes decide the fortune of the day;

O my Antonio! I'm all on fire; My soul is up in arms, ready to charge, And bear amid the foe with conqu'ring troops. CONGREVE.

AGGRESSOR, ASSAILANT.

Aggressor, from the Latin aggressus, participle of aggredior, compounded of ag or ad, and greator to

step, signifies on : stepping up to, falling upon, or attacking: assattant, from assail, in French assailer, com-pounded of as or ad, and salio to leap upon, signifies one leaping up, or attacking any one vehemently.

The characteristick idea of aggressor is that of one going up to another in a hostile manner, and by a natural extension of the sense commencing an attack: the characteristick idea of assailant is that of one com-

mitting an act of violence on the person.

An aggressor offers to do some injury either by word or deed; an assailant actually commits some violence: the former commences a dispute, the latter carries it on with a vehement and direct attack. An aggressor is blameable for giving rise to quarrels;
Where one is the aggressor, and in pursuance of his first attack kills the other, the law supposes the action, however sudden, to be malicious. —Johnson (Life of An assailant is culpable for the mischief Savage). he does;

What ear so fortified and barr'd Against the tuneful force of vocal charms, But would with transport to such sweet assailants Surrender its attention ?-- MASON.

Were there no aggressors there would be no disputes; were there no assailants those disputes would not be serious.

An aggressor may be an assailant, or an assailant may be an aggressor, but they are as frequently distinct.

TO DISPLEASE, OFFEND, VEX.

Displease naturally marks the contrary of pleasing; offend, from the Latin offendo, signifies to stumble in the way of; vex, in Latin vexo, is a frequentative of veho, signifying literally to toss up and down.

These words express the act of causing a painful sentiment in the mod by some impropriety, real or supposed, on on. Swn part. Displease is not always applied to that oreal personally concerns ourselves; although offend an rea have always more or less of what is recorded in them. what is personal in them: a superiour may be displeased with one who is under his charge for improper behaviour toward persons in general;

Meantime imperial Neptune heard the sound Of raging billows breaking on the ground; Displeas'd and fearing for his wat'ry reign, He rear'd his awful head above the main.

He will be offended with him for disrespectful behaviour toward himself, or neglect of his interests; peror himself came running to the place in his armour, severely reproving them of cowardice who had for saken the place, and grievously offended with them who had kept such negligent watch."—KNOLLES. What displeases has less regard to what is personal than what offends; a supposed intention in the most harmless act may cause offence, and on the contrary the most admiss action may not give offence where the intention of the agent is supposed to be good; 'Nathau's fable of the poor man and his lamb had so good an effect as to convey instruction to the ear of a king without offending it."—Addison.

Displease respects mostly the inward state of feeling; offend and vex have most regard to the outward cause which provokes the feeling: a humoursome person may be displeased without any apparent cause; but a cap-tious person will at least have some avowed trifle for which he is offended. Vex expresses more than offend; it marks in fact frequent efforts to offend, or the act of offending under aggravated circumstances: we often unintentionally displease or offend; but he who vexes has mostly that object in view in so doing: any instance of neglect displeases; any marked instance of neglect offends; any aggravated instance of neglect vexes; the feeling of displeasure is more perceptible and vivid than that of offence; but it is less durable: the feeling of vexathat of offence; but it siess unable: the recining of verterion is a transitory as that of displeasure, but stronger than either. Displeasure and verterion betray themselves by an angry word or look; offence discovers itself in the whole conduct: our displeasure is unjustifiable when it exceeds the measure of another's fault; it is a mark of great weakness to take offence at titles; persons of the greatest irritability are exposed to the most frequent vexations; 'Do poor Tom some charity, whom

the foul fiend vexes.'—Shakspeare. These terms may all be applied to the action of unconscious agents on the mind; 'Foul sights do rather displease, in that they excite the memory of foul things, than in the immediate objects. Therefore, in pictures, those foul sights do much offend.'-Bacon. Gross sins are plainly so Therefore, in pictures, those foul sights do not and easily avoided by persons that profess religion. But the indiscreet and dangerous use of innocent and lawful things, as it does not shock and offend our consciences, so it is difficult to make people at all sensible of the danger of it.'-LAW.

These and a thousand mix'd emotions more, From ever-changing views of good and ill, Form'd infinitely various, vex the mind With endless storm.—Thomson.

As epithets they admit of a similar distinction: it is very displeasing to parents not to meet with the most respectful attentions from children, when they give them counsel; and such conduct on the part of children is highly offensive to God: when we meet with an offensive object, we do most wisely to turn away from it: when we are troubled with vexatious affairs, our best and only remedy is patience.

DISLIKE, DISPLEASURE, DISSATISFACTION, DISTASTE, DISGUST.

Dislike signifies the opposite to liking, or being alike to one's self or one's taste; displeasure, the opposite to pleasure; dissatisfaction, the opposite to satisfaction; distaste and disgust, from the Latin gustus a taste, both signify the opposite to an agreeable taste.

Dislike and dissatisfaction denote the feeling or sen-

timent produced either by persons or things: displea-

sure, that produced by persons of times: aspeasure, that produced by persons mostly; distaste and disgust, that produced by things only.

In regard to persons, dislike is the sentiment of equals and persons unconnected; displeasure and dissatisfaction, of superiours, or such as stand in some sort of substant on a Strangers may feel a dislike through section. relation to us. Strangers may feel a dislike upon seeing each other: parents or masters may feel displeasure or dissatisfaction: the former sentiment is occasioned by their supposed faults in character; the latter by their their supposed raths in character; the latter by their supposed defective services. One dislikes a person for his assumption, loquacity, or any thing not agreeable in his manners; 'The jealous man is not indeed angry if you distlike another; but if you find those faults which are found in his own character, you discover not only your dislike of another but of himself."—Addison, One is displeased with a person for his carelessness, or any thing wrong in his conduct; 'The threatenings of conscience suggest to the sinner some deep and dark malignity contained in guilt, which has drawn upon his head such high displeasure from heaven.'—BLAIR. One is dissatisfied with a person on account of the small quantity of work which he has done, or his manner of doing it. Displeasure is awakened by whatever is done amiss: dissatisfaction is caused by what happens amiss or contrary to our expectation. Accordingly the word dissatisfaction is not confined to persons of a word dissatisfaction is not confined to persons of a particular rank, but to the nature of the connexion which subsists between them. Whoever does not receive what they think themselves entitled to from another are dissatisfied. A servant may be dissatisfied with the treatment he meets with from his master; and may be said therefore to express dissatisfaction, though not displeasure; 'I do not like to see any thing destroyed: any void in society. It was therefore with no disappointment or disatisfaction that my observa-

no disappointment or dissatisfaction that my observa-tion did not present to me any incorrigiole vice in the noblesse of France.—Burke.

In regard to things, dislike is a casual feeling not arising from any specifick cause. A dissatisfaction is connected with our desires and expectations; we dislike the performance of an actor from one or many causes, or from no apparent cause; but we are dissatis-fied with his performance if it fall short of what we were led to expect. In order to lessen the number of our dislikes we ought to endeavour not to dislike without a cause; and in order to lessen our dissatis-

without a cause; and in order to lessen our assatisfaction we ought to be moderate in our expectation.

Dislike, distaste, and disgust rise on each other in their signification. The distaste is more than the dislike: and the disgust more than the distaste. The dislike is a partial feeling, quickly produced and quickly

subsiding; the distante is a settled feeling, gradually sures they were driving on.'-ROBERTSON produced, and permanent in its duration: disgust either transitory or otherwise; momentarily or gradually produced, but stronger than either of the two others.

Caprice has a great share in our likes and dislikes, Oryden's district of the priesthood is imputed by Langbaine, and I think by Brown, to a repulse which he suffered when he solicited ordination. — Johnson. Distaste depends upon the changes to which the constitution physically and mentally is exposed; Because true history, through frequent satiety and similitude of things, works a distaste and misprision in the minds of men, poesy cheereth and refresheth the soul, chanting things rare and various. —Bacon. Disgust owes its origin to the nature of things and their natural operation on the minds of men; 'Vice, for vice is necessary to be shown, should always excite disgust.'—Johnson A child likes and dislikes his playthings without any apparent cause for the change of sentiment: after a long illness a person will frequently take a distaste to the food or the amusements which before afforded him much pleasure: what is indecent or filthy is a natural object of disgust to every person whose mind is not deprayed. It is good to suppress unfounded dislikes; it is difficult to overcome a strong distaste; it is advisable to divert our attention from objects calculated to create disgust.

DISLIKE, DISINCLINATION.

Dislike is opposed to liking; disinclination is the reverse of inclination.

Dislike applies to what one has or does: disinclination only to what one does: we dislike the thing we have, or dislike to do a thing; but we are disinclined

only to do a thing.

They express a similar feeling, but differing in de Disinclination is but a small degree of dislike; dislike marks something contrary; disinclination does not amount to more than the absence of an inclination. None but a disobliging temper has a dislike to comply with reasonable requests;

Murmurs rise with mix'd applause,

Just as they favour or distike the cause.—Drypen.

The most obliging disposition may have an occasional disinclination to comply with a particular request;
'To be grave to a man's mirth, or inattentive to his discourse, argues a disinclination to be entertained by him.'-STEELE.

DISPLEASURE, ANGER, DISAPPROBATION.

Displeasure signifies the feeling of not being pleased with either persons or things; anger comes from the Latin angor vexation, and ango to vex, which is compounded of an or ad against, and ago to act; disapprobation is the reverse of approbation.

Between displeasure and anger there is a difference both in the degree, the cause, and the consequence of the feeling: displeasure is always a softened and gentle feeling; anger is always a barsh feeling, and sometimes rises to vehemence and madness. Displeasure is always produced by some adequate cause, real or supposed; anger may be provoked by every or any cause, according to the temper of the individual;
Man is the merriest species of the creation; all above or below him are serious; he sees things in a different light from other beings, and finds his mirth arising from objects that perhaps cause something like pity or displeasure in a higher nature.'—Addison. Displeasure is mostly satisfied with a simple verbal expression; but anger, unless kept down with great force, always seeks to return evil for evil; 'From anger in its full import, protracted into malevolence and exerted in revenge, arise many of the evils to which the life of man is exposed.'—Johnson. Displeasure and disapproba-tion are to be compared in as much as they respect the conduct of those who are under the direction of others: displeasure is an act of the will, it is an angry senti-True repentance may be wrought in the hearts of such as fear God, and yet incur his displeasure, the deserved effect whereof is eternal death.'—HOOKER. Disapprobation is an act of the judgement, it is an opposite opinion; 'The Queen Regent's brothers knew her secret disapprobation of the violent mea-

of self-will in a child is calculated to excite displeasure; a mistaken choice in matrimony may produce disapprobation in the parent.

Displeasure is always produced by that which is already come to pass; disapprobation may be felt upon that which is to take place; a master feels displeasure at the carelessness of his servant; a parent expresses his disapprobation of his son's proposal to leave his situation: it is sometimes prudent to check our displeasure; and mostly prudent to express our disapprobation: the former cannot be expressed without inflicting pain; the latter cannot be withheld when re quired without the danger of misleading.

ANGER, RESENTMENT, WRATH, IRE, INDIGNATION.

Anger has the same original meaning as in the pre ceding article; resentment, in French ressentiment, from ressentir, is compounded of re and sentir, signi fying to feel again, over and over, or for a continuance; wrath and ire are derived from the same source, namely, wrath, in Saxon wrath, and ire, in Latin ird anger, Greek gots contention, all which spring from the Hebrew חרה heat or anger; indignation, in French indignation, in Latin indignatio, from indignor, to think or feel unworthy, marks the strong feeling which base conduct awakens in the mind.

An impatient agitation against any one who acts contrary to our inclinations or opinions is the charac teristick of all these terms. Resentment is less vivid than anger, and anger than wrath, ire, or indignation. Anger is a sudden sentiment of displeasure; ment is a continued anger; wrath is a heightened sentiment of anger, which is poetically expressed by

the word ire. Anger may be either a selfish or a disinterested passion; it may be provoked by injuries done to ourselves, or injustice done to others: in this latter sense of strong displeasure God is angry with sinners, and good men may, to a certain degree, be angry with those under their control, who act improperly; 'Moralists have defined anger to be a desire of revenge for some injury offered.'—Steele. Resentment is a brooding sentiment, altogether arising from a sense of personal injury; it is associated with a dislike of the offender as much as the offence, and is diminished only by the infliction of pain in return; in its rise, progress, and effects, it is alike opposed to the Christian spirit; 'The temperately revengeful have leisure to weigh the merits of the cause, and thereby either to smother their secret resentments, or to seek adequate re-parations for the damages they have sustained.'-STEELE. Wrath and ire are the sentiment of a superiour towards an inferiour, and when provoked by personal injuries discovers itself by haughtiness and vindictive temper:

Achilles' wrath, to Greece the direful spring Of woes unnumber'd, heavenly goddess sing.

As a sentiment of displeasure, wrath is unjustifiable between man and man; but the wrath of God may be provoked by the persevering impenitence of sinners: the ire of a heathen god, according to the gross views of Pagans, was but the wrath of man associated with greater power; it was altogether unconnected with moral displeasure; the same term is however applied also to the heroes and princes of antiquity;

The prophet spoke: when with a gloomy frown The monarch started from his shining throne; Black choler fill'd his breast that boil'd with ire

And from his eye-halls flash'd the living fire .- POPE. Indignation is a sentiment awakened by the unworthy and atrocious conduct of others; as it is exempt from personality, it is not irreconcilable with the temper of a Christian; 'It is surely not to be observed without indignation, that men may be found of minds mean enough to be satisfied with this treatment; wretches who are proud to obtain the privileges of madmen.'-JOHNSON. A warmth of constitution sometimes gives rise to sallies of anger; but depravity of heart breeds resentment: unbending pride is a great source of wrath; but indignation flows from a high sense of honour and virtue.

ANGER, CHOLER, RAGE, FURY.

Anger signifies the same as in the preceding article; choler, in French colère, Latin cholera, Greek χολέρα, comes from χολή bile, because the overflowing of the bile is both the cause and consequence of choler; rage, in French rage, Latin rabies madness, and rabio to rave like a madman, comes from the Hebrew 137 to tremble or shake with a violent madness; fury, in French furic, Latin furor, comes probably from from to carry away, because one is carried or hurried by the

emotions of fury.

These words have a progressive force in their signification. Choler expresses something more sudden and virulent than anger; rage is a vehement ebullition of anger; and fury is an excess of rage. Anger may be so stifled as not to discover itself by any outward symptoms; choler is discoverable by the paleness of the visage: rage breaks forth into extravagant expressions and violent distortions; fury takes away

the use of the understanding.

Anger is an infirmity incident to human nature; it ought, however, to be suppressed on all occasions; 'The maxim which Periander of Corinth, one of the seven sages of Greece, left as a memorial of his knowledge and benevolence, was χόλου κράτει, be master of thy anger '-Johnson. Choler is a malady too physical to be always corrected by reflection;

> Must I give way to your rash choler? Shall I be frighted when a madman stares? SHAKSPEARE.

Rage and fury are distempers of the soul, which nothing but religion and the grace of God can cure;

Oppose not rage, while rage is in its force, But give it way awhile and let it waste.

Of this kind is the fury to which many men give way among their servants and dependants.'-John-

RESENTFUL, REVENGEFUL, VINDICTIVE.

Resentful signifies filled with resentment; revengeful, that is, filled with the spirit or desire of revenge; vindictive, from vindico to avenge or revenge, signifies either given to revenge, or after the manner of

Resentful marks solely the state or temper of the mind, revengeful also extends to the action; a person is resentful who retains resentment in his mind without discovering it in any thing but his behaviour; he is revengeful if he displays his feeling in any act of revenge or injury toward the offender. Resentful people are affected with trifles; 'Pope was as resentful of an imputation of the roundness of his back, as Marshal Luxembourg is reported to have been on the sarcasm of King William.'—Tyers. A revengeful temper is oftentimes not satisfied with a small portion. of revenge;

If thy revengeful heart cannot forgive, here I lend thee this sharp-pointed sword, Which hide in this true breast .- SHARSPEARE.

Revengeful is mostly said of the temper or the person; but vindictive or vindicative, as it is sometimes written, is said either of the person who is prone to revenge or of the thing which serves the purpose of revenge or punishment: 'Publick revenges are for the most part fortunate; but in private revenges it is not so. Vindicative persons live the life of witches, who, as they are mischievous, so end they unfortunate.'—Bacon. 'Suits are not reparative, but vindictive, when they are commenced against insolvent persons.'—Kettle-WELL.

TO AVENGE, REVENGE, VINDICATE.

Avenge, revenge, and vindicate, all spring from the same source, namely, the Latin virdico, the Greek ενδικάζομαι, compounded of εν in and δίκη justice, signifying to pronounce justice or put justice in force.

The idea common to these terms is that of taking up some one's cause.

To avenge is to punish in behalf of another; to revenge is to punish for one's self; to vindicate is to defend another

The wrongs of a person are avenged or revenged; his rights are vindicated.

The act of avenging, though attended with the in fliction of pain, is oftentimes an act of humanity, and always an act of justice; none are the sufferers but such as merit it for their oppression, while those are such as merit it for their oppression, while those are benefited who are dependent for support; this is the act of God himself, who always avenges the oppressed who look up to him for support; and it ought to be the act of all his creatures, who are invested with the power of punishing offenders and protecting the help

The day shall come, that great avenging day, When Troy's proud glories in the dust shall lay.

Revenge is the basest of all actions, and the spirit of revenge the most diametrically opposed to the Christian principles of forgiving injuries, and returning good for evil; it is gratified only with inflicting pain without any prospect of advantage; 'By a continued series of loose, though apparently trivial gratifications, the heart is often thoroughly corrupted, as by the commission of any one of those enormous crimes which spring from great ambition, or great revenge.'—BLAIR. Vindication is an act of generosity and humanity; it is the production of good without the infliction of pain: the claims of the widow and orphan call for vindication from those who have the time, talent, or ability, to take their cause into their own hands: England can take their cause into their own hands: boast of many noble vindicators of the rights of humanity, not excepting those which concern the brute creation; 'Injured or oppressed by the world, the good man looks up to a Judge who will vindicate his cause' -BLAIR.

ANGRY, PASSIONATE, HASTY, IRASCIBLE.

Anger, signifies either having anger, or prone to anger; passionate, profie to the passion of anger; hasty, prone to excess of haste from intemperate feelirascible, able or ready to be made angry, from the Latin ira anger.

Angry denotes a particular state or emotion of the mind; passionate and hasty express habits of the mind. An angry man is in a state of anger; a passionate or hasty man is habitually prone to be pass sionate or hasty. The angry has less that is vehe-ment and impetuous in it than the passionate; the hasty has something less vehement, but more sudden and abrupt in it than either.

The angry man is not always easily provoked, nor ready to retaliate; but he often retains his anger until the cause is removed; 'It is told by Prior, in a pane-gyrick on the Duke of Dorset, that his servants used to put themselves in his way when he was angry, beto put themselves in his way when he had age, y, cause he was sure to recompense them for any indignities which he made them suffer. Johnson. The passionate man is quickly roused, eager to repay the offence, and speedily appeased by the infliction of pain of which he afterward probably repents; 'There is in the world a certain class of mortals known, and contentedly known by the name of passionate men, who imagine themselves entitled, by that distinction, to be provoked on every slight occasion."—Johnson. The hasty man is very soon offended, but not ready to offend in return; his angry sentiment spends itself in angry words;

The king, who saw their squadrons yet unmov'd, With hasty ardour thus the chiefs reprov'd .- POPE.

These three terms are all employed to denote a temporary or partial feeling; irascible, on the other hand, is solely employed to denote the temper, and is applied to brutes as well as men; 'We are here in the country surrounded with blessings and pleasures, without any occasion of exercising our *irascible* faculties.'—Digry TO POPE.

DISPASSIONATE, COOL.

Dispassionate is taken negatively, it maiks merely the absence of passion; cool (n. Cool) is taken posi-tively, it marks an entire freedom from passion.

Those who are prone to be passionate must learn to e dispassionate; those who are of a cool tempera be dispassionate; those who are of a cool tempera ment will not suffer their passions to be roused. Da.

passionate solely respects angry or irritable sentiments; cool respects any perturbed feeling: when we meet with an angry disputant it is necessary to be dispascionate in order to avoid quarrels; 'As to violence the lady (Madame D'Acier) has infinitely the better of the gentleman (M. de la Motte). Nothing can be more polite, dispassionate, or sensible, than his manner of managing the dispute.'—POPE. In the moment of danger our safety often depends upon our coolness. I conceived this poem, and gave loose to a degree of resentment, which perhaps I ought not to have indulged, but which in a cooler hour I cannot altogether condemn.'-Cowper.

TO DISAPPROVE, DISLIKE.

To disapprove is not to approve, or to think not good; to dislike is not to like, or to find unlike or unsuitable to one's wishes.

Disapprove is an act of the judgement; dislike is an act of the will. To approve or disapprove is peculiarly the part of a superiour, or one who determines the conduct of others; to dislike is altogether a personal act, in which the feelings of the individual are consulted. It is a misuse of the judgement to disapprove where we need only dislike; 'The poem (Samson Agonistes) has a beginning and an end, which Aristotle himself could not have disapproved, but it must be allowed to want a middle.'—Johnson. It is a perversion of the judgement to disapprove, because we dislike; 'The man of peace will bear with many whose opinions or practices he dislikes, without an open and violent rupture.'-BLAIR.

DISGUST, LOATHING, NAUSEA.

Disgust has the same signification as given under the head of Dislike, Displeasure, &c.; loathing sig-nifies the propensity to loathe an object; nausea, in Latin nausea, from the Greek vav, a ship, properly denotes see sickness.

Disgust is less than loathing, and that than nausea. When applied to sensible objects we are disgusted with dirt; we loathe the smell of food if we have a sickly appetite; we nauseate medicine: and when applied metaphorically, we are disgusted with affectation; 'An enumeration of examples to prove a position which nobody denied, as it was from the begin-ning superfluous, must quickly grow disgusting.'— JOHNSON. We loathe the endearments of those who are offensive;

Thus winter falls, A heavy gloom oppressive o'er the world, Through nature's shedding influence malign, The soul of man dies in him, loathing life.

THOMSON.

We nauseate all the enjoyments of life, after having made an intemperate use of them, and discovered their inanity;

Th' irresoluble oil, So gentle late and blandishing, in floods Of rancid bile o'erflows: what tumults hence, What horrors rise, were nauseous to relate. ARMSTRONG.

FFENCE, TRESPASS, TRANSGRESSION, MISDEMEANOUR, MISDEED, AFFRONT. OFFENCE.

Offence is here the general term, signifying merely the act that offends, or runs counter to something else. Offence is properly indefinite; it merely implies an object without the least signification of the nature the object; trespass and transgression have a positive reference to an object trespassed upon or transgressed; trespass is contracted from trans and pass that is a passing beyond; and transgress from trans and gressus a going beyond. The offence therefore which constitutes a trespass arises out of the laws of property; a passing over or treading upon the property of another is a trespuss: the offence which constitutes a transgression flows out of the laws of society in gene-Tal which fix the boundaries of right and wrong; whoever therefore goes beyond or breaks through these bounds is guilty of a transgression. The trespass is If a person's manners are offensive, it reflects both on

a species of offence which pecuniarly applies to the land or premises of individuals; transgression is a species of moral as well as political evil. Hunters are apt to commit trespasses in the eagerness of their pure suit; the passions of men are perpetually misleading them, and causing them to commit various transgressions; the term trespass is sometimes employed improperly as respects time and other objects; transgression is always used in one uniform sense as respects rule and law; we trespass upon the time or patience of another;

Forgive the barbarous trespass of my tongue. OTWAY.

We transgress the moral or civil law:

To whom with stern regard thus Gabriel spake: Why hast thou, Satan, broke the bounds prescrib'd To thy transgressions?—Milton.

The offence is either publick or private; the misdameanour is properly a private offence, although impro-perly applied for an offence against publick law; the misdemeanour signifies the wrong demeanour or an offence in one's demeanour against propriety; Smaller faults in violation of a publick law are comprised under the name of misdemcanour.'—BLACKSTONE. The mis-deed is always private, it signifies a wrong deed, or a deed which offends against one's duty. Riotous and disorderly behaviour in company are serious misdemeanours; every act of drunkenness, lying, fraud, or immorality of every kind, are misdeeds;

Fierce famine is your lot, for this misdeed, Reduc'd to grind the plates on which you feed.

The offence is that which affects persons or principles, communities or individuals, and is committed either directly or indirectly against the person; 'Slight provocations and frivolous offences are the most frequent causes of disquiet."—BLAIR. An affront is altogether personal and directly brought to bear against the front of the particular person; 'God may some time or other think it the concern of his justice and providence too to revenge the affronts put upon the laws of man. — South. It is an offence against another to speak disrespectfully of him in his absence; it is an affront to push past him with violence and rudeness.

Offences are against either God or man; the trespass is always an offence against man; the transgression is against the will of God or the laws of men; the misdemeanour is more particularly against the established order of society; the misdeed is an offence against the Divine Law; the affront is an offence against good manners.

OFFENDER, DELINQUENT.

The offender is he who offends in any thing, either by commission or omission; 'When any offender is presented into any of the ecclesiastical courts he is cited to appear there.'—Beverides. The delinquent, cited to appear there.'—Beveribee. The delinquent, from delinque to fail, signifies properly he who fails by omission, but the term delinquency is extended to a failure by the volation of a law; 'The killing of a deer or boar, or even a hare, was punished with the loss of the delinquent's eyes.'—Hume. Those who go into a wrong place are affenders; those who stay away when they ought to go are delinquents: there are many offenders against the Sabbath who commit violent and open breaches of decorum; there are still the statements who was the same and the same are many offenders against the Sabbath who commit violent and open breaches of decorum; there are still the same are many offenders against the Sabbath who commit who was the same are many offenders against the Sabbath who commit violent and open breaches of decorum; there are still the same are the same are the same are the same are same are same as the same are more delinquents who never attend a publick place of worship.

OFFENDING, OFFENSIVE.

Offending signifies either actually offending or cal culated to offend; offensive signifies calculated to offend at altimes; a person may be offending in his manners to a particular individual, or use an offending expression on a particular occasion without any imputation on his character:

And the th' offending part felt mortal pain, Th' immortal part its knowledge did retain.

ever is offensive in our manners.'-BLAIR.

UNOFFENDING, INOFFENSIVE, HARMLESS.

Unoffending denotes the act of not offending; ineffensive the property of not being disposed or apt to
offend; harmless, the property of being void of harm.
Unoffending expresses therefore only a partial state; inoffensive and harmless mark the disposition and cha racter. A child is unoffending as long as he does nothing to offend others; but he may be offensive if he discover an unamiable temper, or has unpleasant manners; 'The unoffending royal little ones (of France) were not only condemned to languish in solitude and darkness, but their bodies left to perish with disease. A creature is inoffensive that has nothing in itself that can offend;

For drink, the grape She crushes, inoffensive must.—Milton.

That is harmless which has neither the will nor the power to harm; When the disciple is questioned about the studies of his master, he makes report of some minute and frivolous researches which are introduced only for the purpose of raising a harmless laugh. CUMBERLAND. Domestick animals are frequently very inoffensive; it is a great recommendation of a quack medicine to say that it is harmless.

INDIGNITY, INSULT.

The indignity, from the Latin dignus worthy, signifying unworthy treatment, respects the feeling and condition of the person offended: the insult (v. Affront) respects the temper of the offending party. We measure the indignity in our own mind; it depends upon the consciousness we have of our own worth: We reasure the insult by the disposition which is discovered in another to degrade us. Persons in high stations are peculiarly exposed to indignities: persons in every station may be exposed to insults. The royal family of France suffered every indignity which vulgar rage could devise; 'The two caziques made Montezumas' officers prisoners, and treated them with great indignity'-ROBERTSON. Whenever people harbour animosities towards each other, they are apt to discover them by offering insults when they have the opportunity; 'Narvaez having learned that Cortez was now advanced with a small body of men, considered this as an insult which merited immediate chass as an insult which merited immediate chasses. we measure the insult by the disposition which is dis dered this as an insult which merited immediate chastisement.'—ROBERTSON. Indignities may however be offered to persons of all ranks; but in this case it always consists of more violence than a simple insult; it would be an indignity to a person of any rank to be compelled to do any office which belongs only to a beast of burden.

It would be an indignity to a female of any station to be compelled to expose her person; on the other hand, an insult does not extend beyond an abusive expression, a triumphant contemptuous look, or any breach of courtesy.

AFFRONT, INSULT, OUTRAGE.

Affront, in French affronte, from the Latin ad and frons, the forehead, signifies flying in the face of a person; insult, in French insulte, comes from the Latin insulto to dance or leap upon. The former of these actions marks defiance, the latter scorn and tri-umph; outrage is compounded of out or utter and rage or violence, signifying an act of extreme violence.

rage or violence, signifying an act of extreme violence. An affront is a mark of reproach shown in the presence of others; it piques and mortifies: an insult is an attack made with insolence; it irritates and provokes: an outrage combines all that is offensive; it wounds and injures. An intentional breach of polite ness, or a want of respect where it is due, is an affront; 'The person thus conducted, who was Hanibal sometimes are dependently all disturbed and could be characteristics. nibal, seemed much disturbed, and could not forbear nidal, seemed much disturced, and could not forbear complaining to the board of the affronts he had met with among the Roman historians.'—Addison. He arrors mark of disrespect, particularly if coupled with any external indication of hostility, is an insult; 'It may very reasonably be expected that the old draw upon themselves the greatest part of those insults. which they so much lament, and that age is rarely

nis temper and education; 'Gentleness corrects what- despised but when it is contemptible.'—JOHNSON ever is offensive in our manners.'—BLAIR.

When the insult breaks forth into personal violence it is an outrage; 'This is the round of a passionate man's life; he contracts debts when he is furious, which his virtue, if he has virtue, obliges him to discharge at the return of reason. He spends his time outrage and reparation?—Johnson.

Captious people construe every innocent freedom into an affront. When people are in a state of animosity, they seek opportunities of offering each other insults. Intoxication or violent passion impel men to

the commission of outrages.

TO AGGRAVATE, IRRITATE, PROVOKE, EXASPERATE, TANTALIZE.

Aggravate, in Latin aggravatus, participle of aggravo, compounded of the intensive syllable ag or ad and grave to make heavy, signifies to make very heavy irritate, in Latin irritatus, participle of irrito, which is a frequentative from ira, signifies to excite anger; is a frequentative from tra, signifies to excite anger; provoke, in French provoquer, Latin provoco, compounded of pro forth, and voco to call, signifies to challenge or defy; exasperate, Latin exasperatus, participle of exaspero, is compounded of the intensive syllable ex and asper rough, signifying to make things exceedingly rough, tantalite, in French tantaliser, Greek rarral@u, comes from Tantalus, a king of Phrygia, who, having offended the gods, was destined by way of punishment to stand up to his chin in water with a tree of fair fruit hanging over his head, both of which, as he attempted to allay his hunger and thirst, fled from his touch; whence to tantalize signifies to vex by exciting false expectations.

All these words, except the first, refer to the feelings of the mind, and in familiar discourse that also bears the same signification; but otherwise respects the out-

ward circumstances.

The crime of robbery is aggravated by any circumstances of cruelty; whatever comes across the feelings irritates; whatever awakens anger provokes; whatever heightens this anger extraordinarily ezasperates; whatever raises hopes in order to frustrate them tanta-

An appearance of unconcern for the offence and its An appearance of unconcern for the offender and its consequences aggravates the guilt of the offender; 'As if nature had not sown evils enough in life, we are continually adding grief to grief, and aggravating the common calamity by our cruel treatment of one another.'—Addison. A grating harsh sound irritates if long continued and often repeated; so also reproaches and unkind treatment irritate the mind; 'He irritated many of his friends in London so much by his letters, that they withdrew their contributions.'—Jornson (Life of Savage). Angry words provoke, particularly when spoken with an air of defiance; 'The animadprovoke the sedatest writer to some quickness of resentment.'—Johnson. When provocations become resentment.'—Johnson. When provocations become multiplied and varied they exasperate; 'Opposition retards, censure exasperates, or neglect depresses.'—Johnson. The weather by its frequent changes tantalizes those who depend upon it for amusement; 'Can we think that religion was designed only for a contradiction to nature; and with the greatest and most irrational tyranny in the world to tantalize?'—

Wicked people aggravate their transgressions by violence; susceptible and nervous people are most easily irritated; proud people are quickly provoked; hot and fiery people are sonest exasperated; shose who wish for much, and wish for it eagerly, are

oftenest tantalized.

TO TEASE, VEX, TAUNT, TANTALIZE,

Tease is most probably a frequentative of tear; vez has the same signification as given under the head of displease: taunt is probably contracted from tantalize, the original meaning of which is explained in the pre ceding article: torment, from the Latin tormentum and torqueo to twist, signifies to give pain by twisting, or griping. The idea of acting upon others so as to produce a painful sentiment is common to all these terms; they differ in the mode of the action, and in the degree of the effect

All these actions rise in importance; to tease consists in that which is most triffing; to torment in that which is most serious. We are teased by a fly that which is most serious. We are teased by a fly that buzzes in our ears; we are vexed by the carelessness and stupidity of our servants; we are taunted by the sarcasms of others; we are tantalized by the fair prospects which only present themselves to disappear again; we are tormented by the importunities of troublesome beggars. It is the repetition of unpleasant trifles which teases; 'Louisa began to take a luttle mischievous pleasure in teasing.'—Cumberland. It is the crossness and perversity of things which vex;

Still may the dog the wand'ring troops constrain Of airy ghosts, and vex the guilty train.- DRYDEN. In this sense things may be said figuratively to be

vexed: And sharpen'd shares shall vex the fruitful ground,

It is contemptuous and provoking behaviour which

taunts . Sharp was his voice, which in the shrillest tone, Thus with injurious taunts attack the throne

It is the disappointment of awakened expectations which tantalizes; 'When the maid (in Sparta) was once sped, she was not suffered to tantalize the male part of the commonwealth.'-Addison. It is the repe tition of grievous troubles which torments: 'Truth exerting itself in the searching precepts of self-denial and mortification is tormenting to vicious minds.'—South. We may be teased and tormented by that which produces bodily or mental pain; we are vexed, taunted, and tantalized only in the mind. Irritable and nervous people are most easily teased; captious and fretful people are most easily vexed or taunted, sanguine and eager people are most easily tantalized. all these cases the imagination or the bodily state of the individual serves to increase the pain: but persons are tormented by such things as inflict positive pain.

VEXATION, MORTIFICATION, CHAGRIN.

Vexation, signifies either the act of vexing, or the feeling of being vexed; mortification, the act of mortifying, or the feeling of being mortified; chagrin, in French chagrin, from aigrir, and the Latin acer sharp,

signifies a sharp feeling.

Fexation springs from a variety of causes, acting unpleasantly on the inclinations or passions of men; mortification is a strong degree of vexation, which arises from particular circumstances acting on particular passions: the loss of a day's pleasure is a vexation to one who is eager for pleasure; the loss of a prize, or the circumstance of coming into disgrace where we expected honour, is a mortification to an ambitious person. Vexation arises principally from our wishes and views being crossed; mortification, from our pride and self-importance being hurt; chagrin from a mixture of the two; disappointments are always attended with more or less of vexation, according to the circumstances which give pain and trouble; 'Poverty is an evil complicated with so many circumstances of uneasiness and vexation, that every man is studious to avoid it.'-Johnson. An exposure of our poverty may be more or less of a mortification, accord ing to the value which we set on wealth and gran-deur; 'I am mortified by those compliments which were designed to encourage me.'—Pove. A refusal of a request will produce more or less of chagrin as it is accompanied with circumstances more or less mortifying to our pride; 'It was your purpose to balance my chagrin at the inconsiderable effect of that essay, by representing that it obtained some notice.'-HILL.

CRIME, MISDEMEANOUR.

Crime (v. Crime) is to misdemeanour (v. Offence), as the genus to the species: a misdemeanour is in the technical sense a minor crims. Housebreaking is under all circumstances a crime; but shoplifting or Housebreaking is pilfering amounts only to a misdemeanour.

Corporeal punishments are most commonly annexed to crimes; pecuniary punishments frequently to mis-demeanours. In the vulgar use of these terms, misdemeanour is moreover distinguished from crime, by not always signifying a violation of publick law, but only of private morals; in which sense the term crime implies what is done against the state;

No crime of thine our present sufferings draws, Not thou, but Heav'n's disposing will the cause

The misdemeanour is that which offends individuals or small communities; 'I mention this for the sake of several rural squires, whose reading does not rise so high as to "the present state of England," and who are often apt to usurp that precedency which by the laws of their country is not due to them. Their want laws of their country is not due to them. Their want of learning, which has planted them in this station may in some measure excuse their misdemeanour.

CRIME, VICE, SIN.

Crime, in Latin crimen, Greek κρίμα, signifies a judgement, sentence, or punishment; also the cause of the sentence or punishment, in which latter sense it is the sentence or punishment, in which have here taken: vice, in Latin vitium, from vito to avoid, signifies that which ought to be avoided: sin, in Saxon somme. Swedish synd. German sunde, old German syune, Swedish synd, German sunde, old German sunte, sunto, &c. Latin sontes, Greek σίντης, from σίνω to hurt, signifies the thing that hurts: sin being of all things the most hurtful.

A crime is a social offence; a vice is a personal offence: every action which does injury to others, either individually or collectively, is a crime; that

which does injury to ourselves is a vice.

A crime consists in the violation of human laws: 'The most ignorant heathen knows and feels that, when he has committed an unjust and cruel action, he has committed a crime and deserves punishment BLAIR. Vice consists in the violation of the moral law; 'If a man makes his vices publick, though they be such as seem principally to affect himself (as drunk-enness or the like), they then become, by the bad example they set, of perniclous effects to society.—
BLACKSTONE. Sin consists in the violation of the Divine law; 'Every single gross act of sin is much the same thing to the conscience that a great blow or fall is to the head; it stuns and bereaves it of all use of its senses for a time.'—South. Sin, therefore, comprehends both crime and vice; but there are many sins which are not crimes nor vices; crimes are tried before a human court, and punished agreeably to the sentence the judge; vices and sins are brought before the tribunal of the conscience; the former are punished in this world, the latter will be punished in the world to come, by the sentence of the Almighty: treason is one of the most atrocious crimes; drunkenness one of the most dreadful vices; religious hypocrisy one of the most heinous sins.

Crimes cannot be atoned for by repentance; society demands reparation for the injury committed: vices continue to punish the offender as long as they are cherished: sins are pardoned through the atonement and mediation of our blessed Redeemer, on the simple condition of sincere repentance. Crimes and vices disturb the peace and good order of society, they affect men's earthly happiness only; sin destroys the soul, both for this world and the world to come: crimes sometimes go unpunished; but sin carries its own punishment with it: murderers who escape the punishment due to their crimes commonly cuffi; the terminate which extheir crimes commonly suffer the torments which attend the commission of such flagrant sins. Crimes are particular acts; vices are habitual acts of commission; sins are acts of commission or omission, habitual or particular: personal security, respect for the laws, and regard for one's moral character, operate to prevent the commission of crimes or vices; the fear of God deters from the commission of sin.

A crime always involves a violation of a law : a nice. whether in conduct or disposition, always diminishes moral excellence and involves guilt; a sin always supposes some perversity of will in an accountable agent Children may commit crimes, but we may trust that in the divine mercy they will not all be imputed to them as sins. Of vices, however, as they are habitual, we have no right to suppose that any exception will be made in the account of our sins.

Crimes vary with times and countries; vices may be more or less pernicious; but sin is as unchangeable in its nature as the Being whom it offends. Smuggling

and forgery are crimes in England, which in other countries are either not known or not regarded: the vice of gluttony is not so dreadful as that of drunkenness; every sin as an offence against an infinitely good and wise Being, must always bear the same stamp of

guilt and enormity.

By the affectation of some writers in modern times. the word crime has been used in the singular to denote, in the abstract sense, a course of criminal conduct, but the innovation is not warranted by the necessity of the case, the word being used in the plural number, in that sense, as to be encouraged in the commission of crimes, not of crime.

CRIMINAL, GUILTY.

Criminal, from crime, signifies belonging or relating to a crime; guilty, from guilt, signifies having guilt; guilt comes from the German gelten to pay, and gelt a fine, debt, or from guile and beguile, according to Horne Tooke; Guilt is ge-wigled guiled, guil'd, guilt; the past participle of ge-wiglian and to find guilt in any one, is to find that he has been guiled, or as we now say, beguiled, as wicked means witched or bewitched.'— (Diversions of Purley.)

Criminal respects the character of the offence; 'True modesty avoids every thing that is criminal; false modesty every thing that is unfashionable.'—Addison. Guilty respects the fact of committing the offence, or

more properly the person committing it;

Guilt hears appall'd with deeply troubled thought: And yet not always on the guilty head Descends the fated flash.—Thomson.

The criminality of a person is estimated by all the circumstances of his conduct which present themselves to observation; his guilt requires to be proved by eviobservation; his guilt requires to be proved by evi-dence. The criminality is not a matter of question, but of judgement; the guilt is often doubtful, if not po-sitively concealed. The higher the rank of a person, the greater his criminality if he does not observe an upright and irreproachable conduct; 'If this perseverance in wrong often appertains to individuals, it much more frequently belongs to publick bodies; in them the disgrace of errour, or even the criminality of conduct, belongs to so many, that no one is ashamed of the part which belongs to himself."—Watson. Where a number of individuals are concerned in any unlawful proceeding, the difficulty of attaching the guilt to the real offender is greatly increased; When these two are taken away, the possibility of guilt, and the possibility of innocence, what restraint can the belief of the creed lay upon any man ?'-Hammond.

Criminality attaches to the aider, abettor, or encourager; but guilt, in the strict sense only, to the perperater of what is bad. A person may therefore some-times be criminal without being guilty. He who con-cells the offences of another may, under certain cir-cumstances, be more criminal than the guilty person himself. On the other hand, we may be guilty without being criminal; the latter designates something positively bad, but the former is qualified by the object of the guilt. Those only are denominated criminal who offend seriously, either against publick law or private morals; but a person may be said to be guilty, either of the greatest or the smallest offences. He who contradicts another abruptly in conversation is guilty of a breach of politeness, but he is not criminal. Criminal is moreover applied as an epithet to the

things done; guilty is mostly applied to the person doing. We commonly speak of actions, proceedings, intentions, and views, as *criminal*; but of the person, the mind, or the conscience, as guilty. It is very criminal to sow dissension among men; although there are too many who from a busy temper are guilty of this offence.

CRIMINAL, CULPRIT, MALEFACTOR, FELON, CONVICT.

All these terms are employed for a publick offender; but the first conveys no more than this general idea while the others comprehend some accessory idea in their signification: criminal (v. Criminal, Guilty) is a general term, and the rest are properly species of cri-

that is, one who does evil, in distinction from him who does good: felon, from felony, in Latin felonia a capital crime, comes from the Greek $\phi\eta\lambda\omega\sigma\iota_5$ an imposture because fraud and villany are the prominent features of every capital offence: convict, in Latin, convictus, participle of convince to convince or prove, signifies one proved or found guilty

When we wish to speak in general of those who by offences against the laws or regulations of society have exposed themselves to punishment, we denominate them criminals; 'If I attack the vicious, I shall only set upon them in a body, and will not be provoked by the worst usage I can receive from others, to make an example of any particular criminal.'—Addison. When we consider persons as already brought before a tribunal, we call them culprits;

The jury then withdrew a moment, As if on weighty points to comment, And right or wrong resolved to save her, They gave a verdict in her favour. The culprit by escape grown bold Pilfers alike from young and old .- MOORE

When we consider men in regard to the moral turpi tude of their character, as the promoters of evil rather than of good, we entitle them malefactors;

For this the malefactor goat was laid On Bacchus' altar, and his forfeit paid.—DRYDEN.

When we consider men as offending by the grosser violations of the law, they are termed felons; 'He (Earl Ferrers) expressed some displeasure at being executed as a common felon, exposed to the eyes of such a multitude.'—Smollet. When we consider men as already under the sentence of the law, we denominate them convicts:

Attendance none shall need, nor train, where none Are to behold the judgement, but the judged Those two: the third best absent is condemn'd Convict by flight, and rebel to all law, Conviction to the serpent none belongs.

The punishments inflicted on criminals vary according to the nature of their crimes, and the spirit of the laws by which they are judged: a guilty conscience will give a man the air of a culprit in the presence of those who have not authority to be either his accusers or judges: it gratified the malice of the Jews to cause our blessed Saviour to be crucified between two malefactors: it is an important regulation in the internal economy of a prison, to have felons kept distinct from each other, particularly if their crimes are of an atrocious nature: it has not unfrequently happened, that when the sentence of the law has placed convicts in the lowest state of degradation, their characters have undergone so entire a reformation, as to enable them to attain a higher pitch of elevation than they had ever enjoyed before.

CULPABLE, FAULTY.

Culpable, in Latin culpabilis, from culpa a fault or faulty, from fault, having faults.

We are culpable from the commission of one fault;

we are faulty from the number of faults: culpable is a relative term; faulty is absolute; we are culpable with regard to a superiour whose intentions we have not fulfilled; we are faulty whenever we commit any faults. A master pronounces his servant culpable for not having attended to his commands; 'In the common business of life, we find the memory of one like that of another, and honestly impute omissions not to involuntary forgetfulness, but culpable inattention. An indifferent person pronounces another Johnson. as faulty whose faults have come under his notice; 'In the consideration of human life the satirist never falls upon persons who are not glaringly faulty.'—STEELE. It is possible therefore to be faulty without being culpable, but not vice versd.

GUILTLESS, INNOCENT, HARMLESS.

Guiltless, without guilt, is more than innocent: innocence, from noceo to hurt, extends no farther than the quality of not hurting by any direct act; guiltless comprehends the quality of not intending to hurt; it is possible, therefore, to be innocent without being guilteen them. tess, though not vice versa; he who wishes for the death of another is not guillless, though he may be insucent of the crime of murder. Guillless seems to regard a man's general condition; innocent his particular condition: no man is guilless in the sight of God, for no man is exempt from the guilt of sin; but he may be innocent in the sight of men, or innocent of all such intentiona offences as render him obnoxious to his fellow-creatures. Guitlessness was that happy state of perfection which men lost at the fall;

Ah! why should all mankind For one man's fault thus guiltless be condemn'd, If guiltless? But from me what can proceed But all corrupt ?- MILTON.

Innocence is that relative or comparative state of perfection which is attainable here on earth: the highest state of innocence is an ignorance of evil; 'When Adam sees the several changes of nature about him, he appears in a disorder of mind suitable to one who had forfeited both his innocence and his happiness.'-AD-

Guiltless is in the proper sense applicable only to the condition of man; and when applied to things, it still has a reference to the person;

> But from the mountain's grassy side A guiltless feast I bring; A scrip with fruits and herbs supplied, And water from the spring .- GOLDSMITH.

Innocent is equally applicable to persons or things; a person is innocent who has not committed any injury, or has not any direct purpose to commit an injury; or a conversation is innocent which is free from what is hurtful. Innocent and harmless both recommend themselves as qualities negatively good; they designate an exemption either in the person or thing from injury, and differ only in regard to the nature of the injury: innocence respects moral injury, and harmless physical injury: a person is innocent who is free from moral impurity and wicked purposes; he is harmless if he have not the power or disposition to commit any violence; a diversion is innocent which has nothing in it likely to corrupt the morals; 'A man should endeavour to make the sphere of his innocent pleasures as wide as possible, that he may retire into them with safety. —A DDISON. A game is harmless which is not likely to inflict any wound, or endanger the health;

> Full on his breast the Trojan arrow fell, But harmless bounded from the plated steel. ADDISON.

IMPERFECTION, DEFECT, FAULT, VICE.

Imperfection denotes either the abstract quality of imperfect, or the thing which constitutes it imperfect; defect signifies that which is deficient or falls short, from the Latin deficio to fall short; fault, from fail, signifies that which fails: vice, signifies the same as

explaimed under the head of Crime.

These terms are applied either to persons or things An imperfection in a person arises from his want of perfection, and the infirmity of his nature; there is no one without some point of imperfection which is obvious to others, if not to himself: he may strive to diminish it, although he cannot expect to get altogether rid of it: a defect is a deviation from the general constitution of man; it is what may be natural to the man as an individual, but not natural to man as a species; in this manner we may speak of a defect in the speech, or a defect in temper. The fault and vice rise in degree and character above either of the former terms; they both reflect disgrace more or less on the person possessing them; but the fault always characterizes the agent, and is said in relation to an individual; the vice characterizes the action, and may be considered abstractedly; hence we speak of a man's faults as the things we may condemn in him; but we may speak of the vices of drunkenness, lying, and the like, without any immediate reference to any one who practises these vices. When they are both employed for an individual, their distinction is obvious: the fault may lessen the amiability or excellence of the character; the rece is a stain; a single act destroys its purity, an habity a practice is a pollution.

In regard to things the distinction depends upon the preceding explanation in a great measure, for we can scarcely use these words without thinking on man as a moral agent, who was made the most perfect of all creatures, and became the most imperfect; and from our imperfection has arisen, also, a general imperfection throughout all the works of creation. The word imperfection is theretore the most unqualified term of : there may be imperfection in regard to our Maker; or there may be imperfection in regard to what we conceive of perfection: and in this case the term simply and generally implies whatever falls short in any degree or manner of perfection; 'It is a pleasant story that we, forsooth, who are the only imperfect creatures in the universe, are the only beings that will not allow of imperfection.'—Stell. Defect is a positive degree of imperfection: it is contrary both to our ideas of perfection or our particular intention: thus, there may be a defect in the materials of which a thing is made; or a defect in the mode of making it: the term defect, however, whether said of persons or things, characterizes rather the object than the agent; 'This low race of men take a particular pleasure in finding an eminent character levelled to their condition by a report of its defects, and keep themselves in counte-nance, though they are excelled in a thousand virtues, if they believe that they have in common with a great person any one fault.'—Addison. Fault, on the other hand, when said of things, always refers to the agent: thus we may say there is a defect in the glass, or a defect in the spring; but there is a fault in the workmanship, or a fault in the putting together, and the like. Fire, with regard to things, is properly a serious or radical defect; the former lies in the constitution of the whole, the latter may lie in the parts; the former lies in essentials, the latter lies in the accidents; there may be a defect in the shape or make of a horse; but the vice is said in regard to his soundness or unsoundness, his docility or indocility; 'I did myself the honour this day to make a visit to a lady of quality, who is one of those who are ever railing at the vices of the age.'-STEELE.

IMPERFECTION, WEAKNESS, FRAILTY, FAILING, FOIBLE.

Imperfection (v. Imperfection) has already been con sidered as that which in the most extended sense abridges the moral perfection of man; the rest are but aoringes the mora perfection of that, the rest are but modes of imperfection, varying in degree and circumstances; 'You live in a reign of human infirmity, where every one has imperfections.'—BLAIR. Weakness is a positive and strong degree of imperfection, which is opposed to strength; it is what we do not so necessarily look for, and therefore distinguishes the individual who is liable to it; 'The folly of allowing ourselves to delay what we know cannot finally be escaped, is one of the general weaknesses which, to a greater or less degree, prevail in every mind.'-John-Frailty is another strong mode of imperfection which characterizes the fragility of man, but not of all men; it differs from weakness in respect to the object. A weakness lies more in the judgement or in the sentiment; frailty lies more in the moral features of an action; There are circumstances which every man must know will prove the occasions of calling forth his latent frailties.'—BLAIR. It is a weakness in a man to yield to the persuasions of any one against his better judgement; it is a frailty to yield to intemperance or illicit indulgences. Failings and foibles are the smallest degrees of imperfection to which the human character is liable: we have all our failings in temper, and our foibles in our habits and our prepos sessions; and he, as Horace observes, is the best who has the fewest; 'Never allow small failings to dwell on your attention so much as to deface the whole of an anniable character.'—BLAIR. 'Witty men have sometimes sense enough to know their own foibles, and therefore they craftily shun the attacks of an argument.'-WATTS. For our imperfections we must seek superiour aid: we must be most on our guard against those weaknesses to which the softness or susceptibility of our minds may most expose us, and against those frailties into which the violence of our evil passions may bring us: toward the failings and failles of others we may be indulgent, but should be ambrious to correct them in ourselves.

TO FAIL, FALL SHORT, BE DEFICIENT.

Fail, in French faillir, German, &c. fehlen, like the word fall, comes from the Latin fallo to deceive, and

the Hebrew to fall or decay.

To fail marks the result of actions or efforts; a perno falls in his undertaking: fall short designates either the result of actions, or the state of things; a person falls short in his calculation, or in his account; the issue falls short of the expectation: to be deficient marks only the state or quality of objects; a person is deficient in good manners. People frequently fail in their best endeavours for want of knowing how to apply their abilities; 'I would not willingly laugh but to instruct; or, if I sometimes fail in this point, when my mirth ceases to be instructive, it shall never cease to be innocent.'—Addison. When our expectations are immoderate, it is not surprising if our success falls short of our hopes and wishes; 'There is not in my opinion any thing more mysterious in nature than this instinct in animals, which thus rises above reason, and falls infinitely short of it."—Appison. There is nothing in which people discover themselves to be more deficient than in keeping ordinary engagements;

While all creation speaks the pow'r divine, Is it deficient in the main design ?- JENYNS

To fail and be deficient are both applicable to the characters of men; but the former is mostly employed for the moral conduct, the latter for the outward behaviour: hence a man is said to fail in his duty, in the discharge of his obligations, in the performance of a promise, and the like; but to be deficient in politeness, in attention to his friends, in his address, in his manner of entering a room and the like.

FAILURE, FAILING.

The failure (v. To fail) bespeaks the action, or the result of the action; the failing is the habit, or the habitual failure: the failure is said of one's undertakings, or in any point generally in which one fails; Though some violations of the petition of rights may perhaps be imputed to him (Charles I.), these are more pernaps be impured to time (Charles 1.), these are more to be ascribed to the necessity of his situation, than to any failure in the integrity of his principles.'—Hums. The failing is said of one's moral character; 'There is scarcely any failing of mind or body, which instead of producing shame and discontent, its natural effects, here not now time or other daddend maintains with the has not one time or other gladdened vanity with the hope of praise."—Johnson. The failure is opposed to the success; the failing to the perfection. The merchant must be prepared for failures in his speculations; the statesman for failures in his projects, the result of which depends upon contingencies that are above human control. With our failings, however, it is somewhat different; we must never rest satisfied that we are without them, nor contented with the mere consciousness that we have them.

FAILURE, MISCARRIAGE, ABORTION

Failure (v. To fail) has always a reference to the agent and his design; miscarriage, that is, the carrying or going wrong, is applicable to all sublunary concerns, without reference to any particular agent; abortion, from the Latin aborior, to deviate from the rise, or to from the Lauth approxy, to deviate from the rise, or to pass away before it be come to maturity, is in the proper sense applied to the process of animal nature, and in the figurative sense, to the thoughts and designs which are conceived in the mind.

Failure is more definite in its signification, and Limited in its application; we speak of the failures of individuals, but of the miscarriages of nations or individuals, but of the miscarriages of nations or things: the failure reflects on the person so as to excite towards him some sentiment, either of compassion, displeasure, or the like; 'He that attempts to show, however modestly, the failures of a celebrated writer, shall surely irritate his admirers.'—JOHNSON. The miscarriage is considered mostly in relation to the course of human events; 'The miscarriages of the great designs of princes are recorded in the histories of the world."—Johnson. The failure of Xerxes' expe-dition reflected disgrace upon himself; but the miscarriage of military enterprises in general are attri-butable to the elements, or some such untoward circumstance. The abortion, in its proper sense, is a

species of miscarriage, and in application a species of failure, as it applies only to the designs of conscious agents; but it does not carry the mind back to the agent, for we speak of the abortion of a scheme with as little reference to the schemer, as when we speak of the miscarriage of an expedition; 'All abortion is from infirmity and defect.'—South.

INSOLVENCY, FAILURE, BANKRUPTCY.

All these terms are properly used in the mercantile world, but are not excluded also in a figurative sense world, but are not excluded also in a ngurative sense from general application. Insobency, from in privative, and solvo to pay, signifying not to pay, denotes a state, namely, the state of not being able to pay what one owes; failure, from to fail, signifies the act of fail ing in one's business, or a cessation of business for want of means to carry it on; bankruptey, from the two words banca rupta, or a broken bank, denotes the effect of a failure, namely, the breaking up of the capital and credit by which a concern is upheld. The word bankruptcy owes its origin to the Italians, by whom it is called bancorotto, because originally the money-changers of Italy had benches at which they conducted their business, and when any one of them failed his bench was broken. These terms are seldom confined to one person, or description of persons. As an incapacity to pay debts is very frequent among others besides men of business, insolvency is said of any such persons; a gentleman may die in a state of insolvency who does not leave effects sufficient to cover all demands:

Even the dear delight Of sculpture, paint, intaglios, books and coins, Thy breast, sagacious prudence! shall connect With filth and beggary, nor disdain to link With black insolvency .- SHENSTONE.

Although failure is here specifically taken for a failure in business, yet there may be a failure in one particular undertaking without any direct insolvency: a failure may likewise only imply a temporary failure in payment, or it may imply an entire failure of the concern; The greater the whole quantity of trade, the greater of course must be the positive number of failures, while the aggregate success is still in the same proporwhile the aggregate stuces is sain in the same propor-tion."—BURKE. As a bankruptop is a legal transac-tion, which entirely dissolves the firm under which any business is conducted, it necessarily implies a failure in the full extent of the term; yet it does not necessarily imply an insolvency; for some men may, in consequence of a temporary failure, be led to commit an act of bankruptcy, who are afterward enabled to give a full dividend to all their creditors; 'By an act of insolvency all persons who are in too low a way of dealing to be bankrupts, or not in a mercantile state of life, are discharged from all suits and imprisonments, by delivering up all their estates and effects.'-Black-Stone. But from the entire state of destitution which a bankruptcy involves in it, the term is generally taken for the most hopeless state of want; 'Perkin gathered together a power neither in number nor in hardiness contemptible; but in their fortunes to be feared, being bankrupts, and many of them felons.—Bacon. It is also used figuratively; 'Sir, if you spend word for word with me I shall make your wit bankrupt.—Shake. PEARE.

ERROUR, FAULT.

Errour, from erro to wander or go astray, respects the act; fault, from fail, respects the agent: the errour may lay in the judgement, or in the conduct; but the fault lies in the will or intention: the errours of youth must be treated with indulgence: but their faults must on all accounts be corrected; errour is said of that which is individual and partial;

Bold is the task when subjects, grown too wise, Instruct a monarch where his errour lies.—Pope.

Fault is said of that which is habitual: 'Other faults are not under the wife's jurisdiction, and should if possible escape her observation, but jealousy calls upon her particularly for its cure."—Aposson. It is an errour to use intemperate language at any time; it is a fault in the temper of some persons who cannot restrain

ERROUR, MISTAKE, BLUNDER.

Errour, as in the preceding article, marks the act of wandering, or the state of being gone astray; a mistake is a taking amiss or wrong; blunder is not improbably changed from blind, and signifies any thing done blindly.

Errour in its universal sense is the general term, since every deviation from what is right in rational agents is termed errour, which is strictly opposed to truth: errour is the lot of humanity; into whatever we attempt to do or think errour will be sure to creep: the term therefore is of unlimited use; the very mention of it reminds us of our condition: we have errours of judgement; errours of calculation; errours of the head; and errours of the heart; 'Idolatry may be looked upon as an errour arising from mistaken devotion.'—Addison. The other terms designate modes of errour, which mostly refer to the common concerns of life: mistake is an errour of choice; blunder an errour of action: children and careless people are most apt to make mistakes; 'It happened that the king himself passed through the gallery during this debate, and smiling at the mistake of the dervise, asked him how he could possibly be so dull as not to distinguish a palace from a caravansary."—Addison. Ignoraut, conceited and stupid people commonly commit blunders: 'Pope allows that Dennis had detected one of those blunders which are called bulls.'—Johnson. A mistake must be rectified; in commercial transactions it may be of serious consequence: a blunder must be set right: but blunderers are not always to be set right; and blunders are frequently so ridiculous as only to excite laughter.

TO DEVIATE, WANDER, SWERVE, STRAY.

Deviate, from the Latin devius, and de via, signifies literally to turn out of the way; wander, in German wandern, or wandeln, a frequentative of wenden to turn, signifies to turn frequently; swerve, probably from the German schweifen to ramble, schweben to sont, &c. signifies to take an unsteady, wide, and indirect course; stray is probably a change from erro to wander.

Deviate always supposes a direct path; wander includes no such idea. The act of deviating is commonly faulty, that of wandering is indifferent: they may frequently exchange significations; the former being justifiable by necessity; and the latter arising from an unsteadiness of mind. Deviate is mostly used in the moral acceptation; vander may be used in either sense. A person deviates from any plan or rule laid down; he vanders from the subject in which he is engaged. As no rule can be laid down which will not admit of an exception, it is impossible but the wisest will find it necessary in their moral conduct to deviate occasionally; yet every wanton deviation from an established practice evinces a culpable temper on the part of the deviator; 'While we remain in this life we are subject to innumerable temptations, which, if histened to, will make us deviate from reason and goodness.'—Spectator. Those who vander into the regions of metaphysicks are in great danger of losing themselves; it is with them as with most wanderers, that they spend their time at best but idly;

Our aim is happiness; 't is yours, 't is mine; He said; 't is the pursuit of all that live, Yet few attain it, if 't was e'er attain'd; But they the widest wander from the mark, Who thro' the flow'ry paths of sauntering joy Seek this coy goddess.—Armstrong.

To swerve is to deviate from that which one holds right; to stray is to wander in the same bad sense: men swerve from their duty to consult their interest;

Nor number, nor example, with him wrought, To swerve from truth.—Milton.

The young stray from the path of rectitude to seek that of pleasure;

Why have I stray'd from pleasure and repose, To seek a good each government bestows? GOLDSMITH.

TO DIGRESS, DEVIATE.

Both in the original and the accepted sense, these words express going out of the ordinary course; but

digress is used only in particular, and deviate in generat cases. We digress only in a narrative whether written or spoken; we deviate in actions as well as in words, in our conduct as well as in writings.

Words, in our conduct as well as in Writings.

Digress is mostly taken in a good or indifferent sense; 'The digressions in the Tale of a Tub, relating to Wotton and Bentley, must be confessed to discover want of knowledge or want of integrity.'—Johnson.

Deviate in an indifferent or bad sense; 'A resolution was taken (by the authors of the Spectator) of courting general approbation by general topicks; to this practice they adhered with few deviations!—Johnson. Although frequent digressions are faulty, yet occasionally it is necessary to digress for the purposes of explanation: every deviation is bad, which is not sanctioned by the necessity of circumstances.

TO WANDER, TO STROLL, RAMBLE, ROVE, ROAM, RANGE.

Wander signifies the same as in the article Deviate; stroll is probably an intensive of to roll, that is, to go in a planless manner, ramble from the Latin re and ambulo, is to walk backward and forward; and rose is probably a contraction of ramble; roam is connected with our word room, space, signifying to go in a wide space, and the Hebrew 11, to be violently moved backward and forward; range, from the noun range, a rank, row, or extended space, signifies to go over a great space, but within certain limits. The idea of going in an irregular and free manner is common to al these terms.

To wander is to go out of the path that has been already marked out;

But far about they wander from the grave Of him, whom his ungentle fortune urg'd Against his own sad breast to lift the hand Of implous violence.—Thomson.

Sometimes wandering may be an involuntary action a person may wander to a great distance, or for an in definite length of time; in this manner a person wanders who has lost himself in a wood; or it may be a planless course;

I will go lose myself,

And wander up and down to view the city.

Shakspeare.

To stroll is to go in a fixed path, but strolling is a vo luntary action, limited at our discretion; thus, when a person takes a walk, he sometimes strolls from one path into another, as he pleases; 'I found by the voice of my friend who walked by me, that we had insensibly strolled into the grove sacred to the widow.'—Addisonsequently with more than ordinary irregularity. In this manner he who seis out to take a walk, without knowing or thinking where he shall go, rambles as chance directs; 'I thus rambled from pocket to pocket until the beginning of the civil wars.—Addison. To rove is to wander in the same planless manner, but to a wider extent; a fugitive who does not know his road, roves about the country in quest of some retreat;

Where is that knowledge now, that regal thought With just advice and timely counsel fraught? Where now, O judge of Israel, does it rove?

To roam is to wander from the impulse of a disordered mind; in this manner a lunatick who has broken loose may roam about the country; so likewise a person who travels about, because he cannot rest in quiet at home, may also he said to roam in quest of peace;

She looks abroad, and prunes herself for flight, Like an unwilling inmate longs to roam From this dull earth, and seek her native home. JENYNS.

To range is the contrary of to roam; as the latter indicates a disordered state of mind, the former indicates composure and fixedness; we range within certain limits, as the hunter ranges the forest, the shepherd ranges the mountains;

The stag too singled from the herd, where long He rang'd the branching monarch of the shades Before the tempest drives.—Thomson.

BLEMISH, DEFECT, FAULT.

B.emish is probably changed from the word blame, ngnifying that which causes blame; defect and fault have the same signification as given under the head of

Blemish respects accidents or incidental properties of an object: defect consists in the want of some speof an object: defect consists in the want of some spe-cifick propriety in an object; fault conveys the idea not only of something wrong, but also of its relation to the author. There is a blemish in fine china; a defect in the springs of a clock; and a fault in the con-trivance. An accident may cause a blemish in a fine painting; 'There is another particular which may be reckoned among the blemishes, or rather, the false beauties, of our English tragedy: I mean those parti-cular sneeches which are commonly known by the cular speeches which are commonly known by the name of rants.'—Appison. The course of nature may occasion a defect in a person's speech; 'It has been often remarked, though not without wonder, that a man is more jealous of his natural than of his moral qualities; perhaps it will no longer appear strange, if it be considered that natural defects are of necessity, and moral of choice."—HAWKESWORTH. The carelessness of the workman is evinced by the faults in the workmanshin; 'The resentment which the discovery of a fault or folly produces must bear a certain proportion to our pride."—Johnson. A blemish may be easier remedied than a defect is corrected, or a fault repaired.

BLEMISH, STAIN, SPOT, SPECK, FLAW.

Blemish comes immediately from the French blêmir to grow pale, but probably in an indirect manner from blame; stain, in French teindre, old French desteindre, comes from the Latin tingo to die; spot is not improbably connected with the word spit, Latin sputum, and the Hebrew הבם, to adhere as something extraneous; speck, in Saxon specce, probably comes from the same Hebrew root; flaw, in Saxon floh, fliece, German fleck, low German flak or plakke, a spot or a fragment, a piece, most probably from the Latin plaga, Greek $\pi \lambda \eta \gamma \dot{\eta}$ a strip of land, or a stripe, a wound in the

In the proper sense blemish is the generick term, the rest are specifick: a stain, a spot, speck, and flaw, are blemishes, but there are likewise many blemishes which

are neither stains, spots, specks, nor flaws.

Whatever takes off from the seemliness of appearance is a blemish. In works of art, the slightest dimness of colour, or want of proportion, is a blemish. A stain and spot sufficiently characterize themselves, as that which is superfluous and out of its place. A speck is a small spot; and a staw, which is confined to hard substances, mostly consists of a faulty indenture on the outer surface. A blemish tarnishes; a stain spoils; a spot, speck, or flaw, disfigures. A blemish is rectified, a stain wiped out, a spot or speck removed.

These terms are also employed figuratively. Even an imputation of what is improper in our moral conduct is a blemish in our reputation; 'It is impossible for authors to discover beauties in one another's works: they have eyes only for spots and blemishes.'-Appl-The failings of a good man are so many spots in the bright hemisphere of his virtue: there are some vices which affix a stain on the character of nations, as well as of the individuals who are guilty of them;

By length of time,
The scurf is worn away of each committed crime;
No speck is left of their habitual stains,

But the pure æther of the soul remains.--DRYDEN. A blemish or a spot may be removed by a course of good conduct, but a stain is mostly indelible: it is as great a privilege to have an unblemished reputation, or a spotless character, as it is a misfortune to have the stain of bad actions affixed to our name: 'There are many who applaud themselves for the singularity of their judgement, which has searched deeper than others, and found a flaw in what the generality of mankind have admired.'—Appison.

DEFECTIVE, DEFICIENT.

Defective expresses the quality or property of having a defect (v. Blemish); deficient is employed with re-

gard to the thing itself that is wanting. A book may be defective, in consequence of some leaves being deficient. A deficiency is therefore often what constitutes a defect. Many things, however, may be defective without having any deficiency, and vice versa. What ever is misshapen, and fails, either in beauty or utility, is defective; that which is wanted to make a thing is acjective; that which is wanted to flake a fining complete is deficient. It is a defect in the eye when it is so constructed that things are not seen at their proper distances; 'Providence, for the most part, sets us upon a level; if it renders us perfect in one accomplishment, it generally leaves us defective in another.'—
Appropriate There is a deficiency in a tradermark accomplishment, and the property of Addison. There is a deficiency in a tradesman's accounts, when one side falls short of the other; 'If there be a deficiency in the speaker, there will not be sufficient attention and regard paid to the thing spoken. -SWIFT.

Things only are said to be defective; but persons may be termed deficient either in attention, in good breeding, in civility, or whatever else the occasion may require. That which is defective is most likely to be permanent; but a deficiency may be only occasional, and easily rectified.

BAD, WICKED, EVIL.

Bad, in Saxon bad, baed, in German bös, is probably connected with the Latin pejus worse, and the Hebrew יבש to be asliamed; wicked is probably changed from witched or bewitched, that is, possessed with an evil spirit; bad respects moral and physical qualities in general; wicked only moral qualities; evil, in German webel, from the Hebrew קבל pain, signifies that which is the prime cause of pain; enil therefore, in its full extent, comprehends both badness and wicked-

Whatever offends the taste and sentiments of a rational being is bad; food is bad when it disagrees with the constitution; the air is bad which has any thing in it disagreeable to the senses or hurtful to the body; books are bad which only inflame the imagination or the passions; 'Whatever we may pretend, as to our belief, it is the strain of our actions that must show whether our principles have been good or bad."

—Blair. Whatever is wicked offends the moral principles of a rational agent: any violation of the law is wicked, as law is the support of human society; an act of injustice or cruelty is wicked, as it opposes the will of God and the feelings of humanity;

For when th' impenitent and wicked die, Loaded with crimes and infamy If any sense at that sad time remains, They feel amazing terrour, mighty pains.

Evil is either moral or natural, and may be applied to every object that is contrary to good; but the term is employed only for that which is in the highest degree bad or wicked;

And what your bounded view, which only saw A little part, deem'd evil, is no more; The storms of wintry time will quickly pass,

And one unbounded spring encircle all .- Thomson.

When used in relation to persons, both refer to the morals, but bad is more general than wicked; a bad man is one who is generally wanting in the perform ance of his duty; a wicked man is one who is charge-able with actual violations of the law, human or Divine; such a one has an evil mind. A bad character is the consequence of immoral conduct; but no man has the character of being wicked who has not been guilty of some known and flagrant vices: the inclinations of the best are evil at certain times

BADLY, ILL.

Badly, in the manner of bad (v. Bad); ill, in Swedish ill, Icelandick ilur, Danish ill, &c. is supposed by Adelung, and with some degree of justice, not to be a contraction of evil, but to spring from the Greek οὐλὸς destructive, and ολλύω to destroy.

These terms are both employed to modify the actions or qualities of things, but badly is always annexed to the action, and ill to the quality: as to do any thing badly, the thing is badly done; an ill-judged scheme, an ill-contrived measure an ill-disposed person.

Depravity, from the Latin pravitas and pravus, in Greek backos, and the Hebrew yn to be disordered, or put out of its established order, signifying the of plu out of not being straight; depravation, in Latin depravatio, signifies the act of making depraved; corruption, in Latin corruptio, corruppo, from rumpo to break, marks the disunion and decomposition of the

* All these terms are applied to objects which are contrary to the order of Providence, but the term depravity characterizes the thing as it is; the terms depravation and corruption designate the making or causing it to be so: depravity therefore excludes the idea of any cause; depravation always refers us to the cause or external agency: hence we may speak of depravity as natural, but we speak of depravation and corruption as the result of circumstances: there is a depravity in man, which nothing but the grace of God can correct; 'Nothing can show greater depravity of understanding than to delight in the show when the reality is wanting.'—JOHNSON. The introduction of obscenity on the stage tends greatly to the depravation of morals; bad company tends to the corruption of a young man's morals; 'The corruption of our taste is not of equal consequence with the depravation of our virtue.'-WARTON.

Depravity or depravation implies crookedness, or a distortion from the regular course; corruption implies a dissolution as it were in the component parts of

Cicero says that depravity is applicable only to the mind and heart; but we say a depraved taste, and depraved humours in regard to the body. A depraved taste loathes common food, and longs for that which is unnatural and hurtful. Corruption is the natural process by which material substances are disorgan-

ized.

In the figurative application of these terms they preserve the same signification. Depravity is characterized by being directly opposed to order, and an established system of things; corruption marks the vitiation or spoiling of things, and the ferment that leads to destruction. Depravity turns things out of their ordinary course; corruption destroys their essential qualities. Depravity is a vicious state of things, in which all is deranged and perverted; corruption is a vicious state of things, in which all is sullied and polluted. That which is depraved loses its proper manner of acting and existing; 'The depravation of hu-man will was followed by a disorder of the harmony of nature.'—Johnson. That which is corrupted loses its virtue and essence; 'We can discover that where there is universal innocence, there will probably be universal happiness; for why should afflictions be permitted to infest beings who are not in danger of corruption from blessings ?'-Johnson.

The force of irregular propensities and distempered imaginations produces a depravity of manners; the force of example and the dissemination of bad principles produce corruption. A judgement not sound or right is depraved; a judgement debased by that which right is depraved; a judgement decosed by that which is vicious is corrupted. What is depraved requires to be reformed; what is corrupted requires to be purified.

Depravity has most regard to apparent and excessive disorders; corruption to internal and dissolute vices. "Manners," says Cierce, "are corrupted and depraved by the love of riches." Port Royal says that God has given up infidels to the wandering of a corrupted and depraved mind. These words are by no means a pleonasm or repetition, because they represent two distinct images, and indicates the state of a thing war. distinct images; one indicates the state of a thing very much changed in its substance; the other the state of a thing very much opposed to regularity. "Good God! (says Masillon the preacher), what a dreadful account will the rich and powerful have one day to give; since, besides their own sins, they will have to account before Thee for publick disorder, depravity of morals, and the corruption of the age!' Publick disorders bring on naturally depravity of morals; and sins of vicious practices naturally give birth to corruption. Depravity is more or less open; it revolts the sober upright understanding; corruption is more or less dis-

* Vide Roubaud: "Depravation, corruption."-Trussler: "Deprayity, corruption."

DEPRAVITY, DEPRAVATION, CORRUPTION. | guised in its operations, but fatal in its effects: the former sweeps away every thing before it like a tor-rent; the latter infuses itself into the moral frame like

a slow poison.

is a depraved state of morals in which the gross vices are openly practised in defiance of all de corum; 'The greatest difficulty that occurs in ana-lyzing his (Swift's) character, is to discover by what depravity of intellect he took delight in revolving ideas from which almost every other mind shrinks with disgust. —Johnson. That is a corrupt state of society in which vice has secretly insinuated itself into all the principles and habits of men, and concealed its deformity under the fair semblance of virtue and honour;

Peace is the happy natural state of man; War his corruption, his disgrace.—Thomson.

The manners of savages are most likely to be depraved; those of civilized nations to be corrupt, when and refinement are risen to an excessive Cannibal nations present us with the picture of human depravity; the Roman nation, during the time of the emperors, affords us an example of almost universal

corruption.

From the above observations, it is clear that depravity is best applied to those objects to which common usage has annexed the epithets of right, regular, fine, &c.; and corruption to those which may be charac terized by the epithets of sound, pure, innocent, or good. Hence we say depravity of mind and corruption of heart; depravity of principle and corruption of sentiment or feeling: a depraved character; a corrupt influence; 'No depravity of the property of the mind has been more frequently or justly consured than ingratitude. Johnson. 'I have remarked in a former paper, that credulity is the common (ailing of inexperienced virtue, and that he who is spontaneously suspicious may be justly charged with radical corruption.'-Johnson.

In reference to the arts or belles lettres we say either depravity or corruption of taste, because taste has its rules, is liable to be disordered, is or is not conformable to natural order, is regular or irregular; and on the other hand it may be so intermingled with sentiments and feelings foreign to its own native purity as to give

The last thing worthy of notice respecting the two words depravity and corruption, is that the former is used for man in his moral capacity; but the latter for man in a political capacity: hence we speak of human depravity, but the corruption of government; 'The depravity of mankind is so easily discoverable, that nothing but the desert or the cell can exclude it from notice.'—Johnson. 'Every government, say the politicians, is perpetually degenerating toward corruption '- JOHNSON

WICKED, UNJUST, INIQUITOUS, NEFARIOUS

Wicked (v. Bad) is here the generick term; inequitous, from iniquis unjust, signifies that species of wickedness which consists in violating the law of right between man and man; nefarious, from the Latin nefas wicked or abominable, is that species of wickedness which consists in violating the most sacred obligations. The term wicked, being indefinite, is commonly applied in a milder sense than iniquitous; and iniquitous than nefarious: it is wicked to deprive another of his property unlawfully, under any circumstances:

In the corrupted currents of this world. Offence's gilded hand may shove by justice; And oft 't is seen, the wicked prize itself Buys out the law .- SHAKSPEARE.

It is iniquitous if it be done by fraud and circum-vention; and nefarious if it involves any breach of trust, or is in direct violation of any known law: any undue influence over another, in the making of his will, to the detriment of the rightful heir, is iniquitous: Lucullus found that the province of Pontus had fallen under great disorders and oppressions from the iniquity of usurers and publicans.—PRIDEAUX. Any underhand dealing of a servant to defraud his master is nefarious, or any conspiracy to defraud or injure others is called nefarious; 'That unhallowed villany nefariously attempted upon the person of our agent.'- | MILTON.

TO CONTAMINATE, DEFILE, POLLUTE, TAINT, CORRUPT.

Contaminate, in Lavin contaminatus, participle of contamino, comes from the Hebrew ממה to pollute ; defile, compounded of de and file or vile, signifies to make vile; pollute, in Latin pollutus, participle of polluo, compounded of per and luo or lavo to wash or dye, signifies to infuse thoroughly; taint, in French teint, participle of teindre, in Latin tingo, signifies to dye or stain; corrupt, signifies the same as in the preceding article.

Contaminate is not so strong an expression as defile or pollute; but it is stronger than taint; these terms are used in the sense of injuring purity: corrupt has the idea of destroying it. Whatever is impure contaminates, what is gross and vile in the natural sense defiles and in the moral sense pollutes; what is contagious or infectious corrupts; and what is corrupted may taint other things. Improper conversation or reading contaminates the mind of youth; 'The drop of water after its progress through all the channels of the street is not more contaminated with fith and dirt, than a simple story after it has passed through the mouths of a few modern tale bearers.'—HAWKES-WORTH. Lewdness and obscenity defile the body and pollute the mind;

When from the mountain tops with hideous cry And clatt'ring wings the hungry harpies fly,
They snatch the meat, defiling all they find,
And parting leave a loathsome stench behind.

Her virgin statue with their bloody hands

Polluted, and profan'd her holy bands .- DRYDEN. Loose company corrupts the morals; 'All men agree that licentious poems do, of all writings, soonest corrupt the heart.—Steele. The coming in contact with a corrupted body is sufficient to give a taint;

Your teeming ewes shall no strange meadows try, Nor fear a rot from tainted company. - DRYDEN.

If young people be admitted to a promiscuous intercourse with society, they must unavoidably witness objects that are calculated to contaminate their thoughts if not their inclinations. They are thrown in the way of seeing the lips of females defiled with the grossest indecencies, and hearing or seeing things which cannot be heard or seen without polluting the soul: it cannot be surprising if after this their principles are found to be corrupted before they have reached the age of maturity.

CONTACT, TOUCH.

Contact, Latin Contactus, participle of contingo, compounded of con and tango to touch together, is distinguished from the simple word touch, not so much in sense as in grammatical construction; the former expressing a state, and referring to two bodies actually in that state; the latter on the other hand implying the abstract act of touching: we speak of things coming or being in contact, but not of the contact instead of the touch of a thing: the poison which comes from the poison-tree is so powerful in its nature, that it is not necessary to come in contact with it in order to feel its baneful influence; 'We are attracted towards each other by general sympathy, but kept back from contact in private interest."—Johnson. Some insects are armed with stings so inconceivably sharp, that the smallest touch possible is sufficient to produce a puncture into the flesh; 'O death! where is now thy sting? O grave! where is thoy victor? Where are the terrours with which thou hast so long affrighted the nations? At the touch of the Divine rod, thy visionary horrours are fled.—BLAIR.

CONTAGION, INFECTION.

Both these terms imply the power of communicating something bad, but contagion, from the Latin verb sontingo to come in contact, proceeds from a simple touch; and infection, from the Latin verb inficio or

in and facio to put in, proceeds by receiving something inwardly, or having it infused.

Some things act more properly by contagion, others by infection: the more powerful diseases, as the plague or yellow fever, are communicated by contagion; they are therefore denominated contagious; the less viru lent disorders, as fevers, consumptions, and the like, are termed infectious, as they are communicated by the less rapid process of infection: the air is contagious or infectious according to the same rule of distinction : when heavily overcharged with noxious vapours and deadly disease, it is justly entitled contagious, but in ordinary cases infectious. In the figurative sense, vice is for the same obvious reason termed contagious; 'If I send my son abroad, it is scarcely possible to keep him from the reigning contagion of rudeness.'-Locks Bad principles are denominated infectious;

But we who only do infuse, The rage in them like bouté-feus, 'T is our example that instils

In them the infection of our ills.—BUTLER

Some young people, who are fortunate enough to shun the contagion of bad society, are, perhaps, caught by the infection of bad principles, acting as a slow poison on the moral constitution.

CONTAGIOUS, EPIDEMICAL, PESTI-LENTIAL.

Contagious signifies having contagion (v. Contagion); epidemical, in Latin epidemicus, Greek ἐπιδήμιος, that is έπὶ and δῆμος among the people, signifies universally spread; pestilential, from the Latin pestis the plague,

signifies having the plague, or a similar disorder.

The contagious applies to that which is capable of being caught, and ought not, therefore, to be touched; the epidemical to that which is already caught or circulated, and requires, therefore, to be stopped; the pestilential to that which may breed an evil, and is, therefore, to be removed: diseases are contagious or epi-demical; the air or breath is pestilential.

They may all be applied morally or figuratively in

the same sense.

We endeavour to shun a contagious disorder, that it may not come near us; we endeavour to purify a pestilential air, that it may not be inhaled to our injury; we endeavour to provide against epidemical disorders, that they may not spread any farther.

Vicious example is contagious;

No foreign food the teeming ewes shall fear, No touch contagious spread its influence here.

WARTON.

Certain follies or vices of fashion are epidemical in almost every age; 'Among all the diseases of the mind, there is not one more epidemical or more pernicious than the love of flattery.'—STRELE. The breath of infidelity is pestilential;

Capricious, wanton, bold, and brutal lust Is meanly selfish; when resisted, cruel; And like the blast of pestilential winds, Taints the sweet bloom of nature's fairest forms. MILTON

BLAMELESS, IRREPROACHABLE, MISHED, UNSPOTTED, OR SPOTLESS.

Blameless signifies literally void of blame (v. To blame): irreproachable, that is, not able to be re-proached (v. To blame); unblemished, that is, without blemish (v. Blemish); unspotted, that is, without spot

(v. Blemish).

Blameless is less than irreproachable; what is blameless is simply free from blame, but that which is irreproachable cannot be blamed, or have any reproach attached to it. It is good to say of a man that he leads a blameless life, but it is a high encomium to say, that he leads an irreproachable life: the former is but the negative praise of one who is known only for his harm-lessness; the latter is but positive commendation of a man who is well known for his integrity in the different relations of society;

The sire of Gods, and all th' ethereal train, On the warm limits of the farthest main, Now mix with mortals, nor disdain to grace The feasts of Æthiopia's blameless race.—Pope.

erreproachable kind.'-BLAIR.

Unblemished and unspotted are applicable to many objects, besides that of personal conduct; and when applied to this, their original meaning sufficiently points out their use in distinction from the two former We may say of a man that he has an irreproachable or an unblemished reputation, and unspotted or spotless purity

But now those white unblemish'd manners, whence The fabling poets took their golden age, Are found no more amid these iron times

THOMSON.

But the good man, whose soul is pure, Unspotted, regular, and free From all the ugly stains of lust and villany, Of mercy and of pardon sure, Looks through the darkness of the gloomy night, Looks through the unithless of the day.

And sees the dawning of a glorious day.

Pompret.

Hail, rev'rend priest! To Phœbus' awful dome A suppliant I from great Atrides come. Unransom'd here, receive the spotless fair, Accept the hecatomb the Greeks prepare.-POPE.

TO PRAISE, COMMEND, APPLAUD, EXTOL.

Praise comes from the German preisen to value, and our own word price, signifying to give a value to a thing; commend, in Latin commenda, compounded of com and manda, signifies to commit to the good opinion of others; applaud (v. Applause); extol, in Latin extollo, signifies to lift up very high.

All these terms denote the act of expressing approbation. The praise is the most general and indefinite; it may rise to a high degree, but it generally implies a It may rise to a fight degree, but it generally implies a lower degree: we praise a person generally; we commend him particularly; we praise him for his diligence, sobriety, and the like; we commend him for his performances, or for any particular instance of prudence or good conduct. To applaud is an ardent mode of praising; we applaud a person for his nobleness of spirit: to extol is a reverential mode of praising; we extol a man for his heroick exploits. Praise is confined to no station, though with most propriety bestowed by to no station, though with most propriety bestowed by superiours or equals: commendation is the part of a superiour; a parent commends his child for an act of charity: applause is the act of many as well as of one; theatrical performances are the frequent subjects of publick applauses: extol is the act of inferiours, who declare thus decidedly their sense of a person's supe-

In the scale of signification commend stands the lowest, and extol the highest; we praise in stronger terms than we commend: to applaud is to praise in loud terms; to extol is to praise in strong terms;

The servile rout their careful Cæsar praise, Him they extol; they worship him alone.

He who expects praise will not be contented with simple commendation: praise, when sincere, and bestowed by one whom we esteem, is truly gratifying: but it is a dangerous gift for the receiver; happy that man who has no occasion to repent the acceptance

How happy them we find, Who know by merit to engage mankind Prais'd by each each tongue, by ev'ry heart belov'd, For virtues practis'd, and for arts improv'd .- JENYNS.

Commendation is always sincere, and may be very beneficial by giving encouragement; When school-boys write verse, it may indeed suggest an expectation of something better hereafter, but deserves not to be commended for any real merit of their own."—Cowper. Applause is noisy; it is the sentiment of the multitude, who are continually changing;

While from both benches, with redoubled sounds, Th' applause of lords and commoners abounds. DRYDEN.

APPLAUSE, ACCLAMATION, PLAUDIT.

Applause, from the Latin applaudo, signifies literally to clap the bands or stamp the feet to a thing; accla-

'Take particular care that your amusements be of an | mation, from acclamo, signifies a crying out to a thing. These two words answer to the plausus and acclamation of the Romans, which were distinguished from each other in the same manner; but the plausus was an artful way of moving the hands so as to produce an harmonious sound by way of applause, particularly in the theatre:

> Datus in theatro, Cum tibi plausus .- HORACE.

In medio plausa, plausus tunc arte carebat.-Ovid. Stantiaque in plausum tota theatra juvent.

PROPERTIUS.

The word plausus was sometimes used in the sense of applause expressed by words; the acclamatio was an expression by the voice only, but it was either a mark of approbation or disapprobation; favourable acclamations were denominated laudationes et bona vota, the unfavourable were exsecrationes et convicia, all which were expressed by a certain prescribed modulation of the voice. Plaudit, or, as it was originally written, plaudite, is the imperative of the verb plaudo, and was addressed by the actors to the spectators at the close of the performance by way of soliciting their applause;

> Si plausoris eges aulæa manentis, et usque Sessuri, donec cantor, vos plaudite, dicat

Hence the term plaudit denotes a single act of applause, but is now mostly employed figuratively;

True wisdom must our actions so direct Not only the last plaudit to expect.—Denham.

These terms express a publick demonstration; the former by means of a noise with the hands or feet; latter by means of shouts and cries: the former being employed as a testimony of approbation; the latter as a sanction, or an indication of respect. An actor looks for applause; a speaker looks for acclamation.

What a man does calls forth applause, but the person himself is mostly received with acclamations. At the hustings popular speeches meet with applause, and favourite members are greeted with loud acclamations:

Amid the loud applauses of the shore Gyas outstripp'd the rest and sprung before. DRYDEN.

'When this illustrious person (the duke of Marlborough) touched on the shore, he was received by the acclamations of the people.'-STEELE.

ENCOMIUM, EULOGY, PANEGYRICK.

Encomium, in Greek ἐγκώμιον, signified a set form of verses, used for the purposes of praise; eulogy, in Greek ἐυλογία, from εὐ and λόγος, signifies well spoken, For a good word for any one; panegyrick, in Greek πανηγυρικός, from πᾶς the whole, and ἄγυρις au assembly, signifies that which is spoken before an assem bly, a solemn oration.

The idea of praise is common to all these terms: but the first seems more properly applied to the thing, or the unconscious object; the second to the person in general, or to the characters and actions of men in general; the third to the person of some particular individual: thus we bestow encomiums upon any work of art, or production of genius, without reference to the performer; we bestow eulogies on the exploits of a hero, who is of another age or country; but we write panegyricks either in a direct address, or in direct panegyricas ettier in a times an agyrized; the enco-reference to the person who is panegyrized; the enco-mium is produced by merit, real or supposed; the eulogy may spring from admiration of the person eulogized; may spring from admiration of the person eulogized; the panegyrick may be mere flattery, resulting from servile dependence: great encomiums have been paid by all persons to the constitution of England; 'Our lawyers are, with justice, copious in their encomiums on the common law.'—BLACKSTONE. Our naval and military heroes have received the eulogies of many besides their own countrymen; 'Sallust would say of Cato, "That he had rather be than appear good!" but indeed this eulogizar nose no higher than to aviece. but indeed this eulogium rose no higher than to an inoffensiveness.'—STEELE. Authors of no mean reputa-tion have condescended to deal out their pancgyricks pretty freely in dedications to their patrons;

On me, when dunces are satirick, I take it for a panegyrick.—Swift.

LAUDABLE, PRAISEWORTHY COM-MENDABLE.

Laudable, from the Latin laudo to praise, is in sense iterally praiseworthy, that is, worthy of praise, or to be praised (v. To praise); commendable signifies entitled to commendation.

Laudible is used in a general application; praise-worthy and commendable are applied to individuals: things are laudable in themselves; they are praiseworthy or commendable in this or that person.

That which is laudable is entitled to encouragement and general approbation; an honest endeavour to be useful to one's family or one's self is at all times laudable, and will ensure the support of all good people. What is praiseworthy obtains the respect of all men: as all have temptations to do that which is wrong, the performance of one's duty is in all cases praiscoorthy; but particularly so in those cases where it opposes one's interests and interferse with one's pleasures. What is commendable is not equally important with the two former; it entitles a person only to a temporary or partial expression of good will and approbation: the performance of those minor and particular duties which belong to children and subordinate persons is in the proper sense commendable.

It is a laudable ambition to wish to excel in that which is good; 'Nothing is more laudable than an inquiry after truth.'—Aborson. It is very praise-worthy in a child to assist its parent as occasion may require; 'Ridicule is generally made use of to laugh men out of virtue and good sense by attacking every thing praisevorthy in human life.—Addison. Si-lence is commendable in a young person when he is reproved; 'Edmund Waller was born to a very fair estate by the parsimony or frugality of a wise father and mother, and he thought it so commendable an advantage that he resolved to improve it with his utmost

care '-CLARENDON.

TO CONTEND, STRIVE, VIE.

Contend, in Latin contendo, compounded of con or contra and tendo to bend one's steps, signifies to exere one's self against any thing; strive, in Dutch streven, low German strevan, high German streben, is probably a frequentative of the Latin strepo to make a bustle vie is probably changed from view, signifying to look at with the desire of excelling.

Contending requires two parties; strive either one or two. There is no contending where there is not an opposition; but a person may strive by himself.

Contend and strive differ in the object as well as

mode: we contend for a prize; we strive for the mastery: we contend verbally; but we never strive with-out an actual effort, and labour more or less severe. We may contend with a person at a distance; but striving requires the opponent, when there is one, to be present. Opponents in matters of opinion contend for what they fancy to be the truth; sometimes they contend for trifles ;

Mad as the seas and the winds, when both contend Which is the master.—SHAKSPEARE.

Combatants strive to overcome their adversaries, either by dint of superiour skill or strength. In contention the prominent idea is the mutual efforts of two or more persons for the same object; but in striving the prominent idea is the efforts of one to attain an object; hence the terms may sometimes be employed in one and the same connexion, and yet expressing these collateral ideas:

Mad as the winds When for the empire of the main they strive.

Contend is frequently used in a figurative sense, in application to things; strive very seldom. We con-tend with difficulties; and in the spiritual application, we may be said to strive with the spirit.

Vie has more of striving than contending in it; we strive to excel when we vie, but we do not strive with any one; there is no personal collision or opposition: those we vie with may be as ignorant of our persons as our intentions. The term vie is therefore frequently applied to unconscious objects;

Shall a form Of elemental dross, of mould'ring clay, Vie with these charms imperial

MASON (on Truth)

Vying is an act of no moment, but contending and striving are always serious actions: neighbours often vie with each other in the finery and grandeur of their house, dress, and equipage.

COMPETITION, EMULATION, RIVALRY.

Competition, from the Latin competo, compounded of com or con and peto, signifies to sue or seek together, to seek for the same object; emulation, in Latin emulation, from emulor, and the Greek emulation accounts, signifies the sphit of contending; rivalry, from the Latin rivals the bank of a stream, signifies the undi vided or common enjoyment of any stream which is the natural source of discord.

Competition expresses the relation of a competitor, or the act of seeking the same object; emulation expresses a disposition of the mind toward particular objects; rivalry expresses both the relation and the disposition of a rival. Emulation is to competition as the motive to the action; emulation produces competi-tors, but it may exist without it; 'Of the ancients enough remains to excite our emulation and direct our

endeavours.'-Johnson.

Competition and emulation have the same marks to distinguish them from rivalry. Competition and emulation have honour for their basis; rivalry is but a desire for selfish gratification. A competitor strives to surpass by honest means; he cannot succeed so we'll by any other; 'It cannot be doubted but there is as by any other; 'Il cannot be doubted but there is as great a desire of glory in a ring of wrestlers or cudged players as in any other more refined competition for superiority.'—HUGHES. A rival is not bound by any principle; he seeks to supplant by whatever means seem to promise success; 'Those, that have been recall by the interest of secretary visits and the seems of the supplant by the interest of secretary visits. raised by the interest of some great minister, trample raised by the interest of some great minister, trample upon the steps by which they rise, to rival him in his greatness, and at length step into his place.'—South, An usfair competitor and a generous rival are equally anusual and inconsistent. Competition animates to exertion; rivalry provokes hatred:* competition seeks to merit success; rivalry is contented with obtaining it; 'To be no man's rival in love, or competitor in business, is a character which, if it does not recom-mend you as it ought to benevolence among those whom you live with, yet has it certainly this effect, that you do not stand so much in need of their approbation as if you aimed at more.'-STEELE. Competitors may sometimes become rivals in spirit, although rivals will never become competitors.

It is further to be remarked, that competition sup-poses some actual effort for the attainment of a specifick object set in view · rivalry may consist of a continued wishing for and aiming at the same general end without necessarily comprehending the idea of close action.

Competitors are in the same line with each other; rivals may work toward the same point at a great distance from each other. Literary prizes are the objects of competition among scholars; 'The prize of beauty was disputed till you were seen, but now all pretenders have withdrawn their claims; there is no competition but for the second place.—DRYDEN, The affections of a female are the object of rivals;

Oh, love! thou sternly dost thy power maintain, And wilt not bear a rival in thy reign, Tyrants and thou all fellowship disdain.—DRYDEN

William the Conqueror and Harold were competitors William the Conqueror and Haroid were competitors for the crown of England; Æneas and Turnus were rivals for the hand of Lavinia. In the games which were celebrated by Æneas in honour of his father Anchises, the naval competitors were the most eager in the contest. Juno, Minerva, and Venus, were rival goddesses in their pretensions to beauty.

TO CONTEND, CONTEST, DISPUTE.

To contend signifies generally to strive one against another; to contest, from the Latin contestor, to call one witness againt another; and dispute, from dispute

* Vide Abbe Roubaud: " Emulation, rivalité."

to think differently, or maintain a different opinion, are different modes of contending. We may contend for or dispute a prize, but the latter is a higher form of expression, adapted to the style of poetry

Permit me not to languish out my days, But make the best exchange of life for praise This arm, this lance, can well dispute the prize

We cannot contest or dispute without contending, although we may contend without contesting or dis-puting. To contend is confined to the idea of setting one's self up against another; to contest and dispute must include some object contested or disputed. tend is applied to all matters, either of personal interest or speculative opinion; contest always to the former; dispute mostly to the latter. We contend with a person, and contest about a thing;

'Tis madness to contend with strength Divine DRVDEN.

During the present long and eventful contest between England and France, the English have contended with their enemies as successfully by land as by sea. Tritheir enemies as successfully by land as by sea. Tri-fling matters may give rise to contending; serious points only are contested. Contentions are always conducted personally, and in general verbally; con-tests are carried on in different manners according to the nature of the object. The parties themselves mostly decide contentions; but contested matters mostly depend upon others to decide.

For want of an accommodating temper, men are

frequently contending with each other about little points of convenience, advantage, or privilege, which they ought by mutual consent to share, or voluntarily

to resign;

Death and nature do contend about them Whether they live or die. - SHAKSPEARE.

When seats in parliament or other posts of honour are to be obtained by suffrages, rival candidates contest their claims to publick approbation; 'As the same causes had nearly the same effects in the different countries of Europe, the several crowns either lost or acquired authority, according to their different success in the contest. — Hume.

When we assert the right, and support this assertion with reasons, we contend for it,

'T is thus the spring of youth, the morn of life, Rears in our minds the rival seeds of strife; Then passion riots, reason then contends, And on the conquest every bliss depends

SHENSTONE.

But we do not contest until we take serious measures to obtain what we contend for ; Shall prove her contest vain. Life's little day Shall pass, and she is gone. While I appear

Shall pass, and she is gone. While I appear Flush'd with the bloom of youth through heav'n's eternal year.—Mason (on Truth).

Contend is to dispute as a part to the whole: two parties dispute conjointly; they contend individually. contends for his own opinion, which constitutes the dispute. Theological disputants often contend with more warmth than discretion for their favourite hypothesis; 'The question which our author would con-tend for, if he did not forget it, is what persons have a right to be obeyed.'—Locke. With regard to claims, it is possible to dispute the claim of another without contending for it for ourselves; 'Until any point is determined to be a law, it remains disputable by any subject.'-Swift.

CONTENTION, STRIFE.

Though derived from the preceding verbs (v. To contend, strine), have a distinct meaning in which they are analogous. The common idea to them is that of opposing one's self to another with an angry humour.

Contention is mostly occasioned by the desire of seeking one's own. Strife springs from a quarrelsome temper. Greedy and envious people deal in contention, the former because they are fearful lest they should not get enough; the latter because they are fearful lest others should get too much;

With these four more of lesser fame And humble rank, attendant came; Hypocrisy with smiling grace, And Impudence, with brazen face, Contention bold, with iron lungs, And Slander, with her hundred tongues.

Where bad tempers that are under no control come in frequent collision, perpetual strife will be the con sequence; 'A solid and substantial greatness of sour looks down with a generous neglect on the censures and applauses of the multitude, and places a man beyond the little noise and strife of tongues.'—Addison.

TO DIFFER, VARY, DISAGREE, DISSENT.

Differ, in Latin differe or dis and fero, signifies to make into two; vary, in Latin vario to make various, from varus a spot or speckle, because that destroys the uniformity in the appearance of things; to disagree is literally not to agree; and dissent, in Latin dissentio or dis and sentio, is to think or feel apart or differently.

Differ, vary, and disagree, are applicable either to Differ, vary, and usagree, are applicable either to persons or things; dissent to persons only. First as to persons; to differ is the most general and indefinite term, the rest are but modes of difference: we may differ from any cause, or in any degree; we vary only in small matters; thus persons may differ or vary in their statements. There must be two at least to differ; and there may be an indefinite number: one may vary, or an indefinite number may vary; two or a specifick number disagree: thus two or more may differ in an account which they give; one person may vary at different times in the account which he gives; and two particular individuals disagree; we may differ in matters of fact or speculation; we vary only in matters of fact; we disagree mostly in matters of speculation. Historians may differ in the representation of an affair, and authors may differ in their views of a particular subject; narrators vary in certain circumstances; two particular philosophers disagree in accounting for a phenomenon.

To disagree is the act of one man with another: to dissent is the act of one or more in relation to a community; thus two writers on the same subject may disagree in their conclusions, because they set out from different premises; men dissent from the established religion of their country according to their education

and character.

When applied to the ordinary transactions of life, differences may exist merely in opinion, or with a mixture of more or less acrimonious and discordant feeling; variances arise from a collision of interests; disagreements from asperity of humour; dissensions from a clashing of opinions; differences may exist between nations, and may be settled by cool discussions; 'The ministers of the different potentates conferred and conferred; but the peace advanced so slowly, that speedier methods were found necessary, and Bolingbroke was sent to Paris to adjust differences with less formality.'— JOHNSON. When variances arise between neighbours, their passions often interfere to prevent accommo-

How many bleed By shameful variance betwixt map and man.

When members of a family consult interest or humour rather than affections, there will be necessarily disa-greements; 'On his arrival at Geneva, Goldsmith was recommended as a travelling tutor to a young gentleman who had been unexpectedly left a sum of money by a they disagreed in the south of France and parted.—
they disagreed in the south of France and parted.

Johnson. When many members of a community have JOHNSON. When many members of a community have an equal liberty to express their opinions, there will necessarily be dissensions:

When Carchage shall contend the world with Rome, Then is your time for faction and debate, For partial favour and permitted hate:

Let now your immature dissension cease DRYDEN.

In regard to things, differ is said of two things with respect to each other; vary of one thing in respect to itself: thus two tempers differ from each other, and sperson's temper varies from time to time. Things differ

in their essences, they vary in their accidents: thus the genera and species of things differ from each other, and the individuals of each species vary; 'We do not know in what reason and instinct consist, and therefore cannot tell with exactness in what they differ?—Johnson. 'Trade and commerce might doubtless be still varied a thousand ways, out of which would arise such branches as have not been touched.'-Johnson. Differ is said of every thing promiscuously, but disagree is only said of such things as might agree; thus two trees differ from each other by the course of things, but two numbers disagree which are intended to agree; 'The several parts of the same animal differ in their qualities.'-ARBUTHNOT.

That mind and body often sympathize Is plain; such is this union nature ties; But then as often too they disagree, Which proves the soul's superiour progeny. JENYNS.

DIFFERENCE, DISPUTE, ALTERCATION, QUARREL.

The difference is that on which one differs, or the state of differing (s. To differ); the dispute that on which one disputes, or the act of disputing; altercation, in Latin altercatio and alteroo, from alternam and coranother mind, signifies expressing another opinion; quarrel, in French querelle, from the Latin queror to complain, signifies having a complain against another.

All these terms are here taken in the general sense of a difference on some personal question; the term difference is here as general and indefinite as in the former case (v. To differ, vary): a difference, as distinguished from the others, is generally of a less serious and personal kind; a dispute consists not only of angry words. but much ill blood and unkind offices; an altercation is a wordy dispute, in which difference of opinion is drawn out into a multitude of words on all sides; quarrel is the most serious of all differences, which leads to every species of violence: the difference may some-times arise from a misunderstanding, which may be easily rectified; differences seldom grow to disputes but by the fault of both parties; altercations arise mostly from pertinacious adherence to, and obstinate defence of, one's opinions; quarrels mostly spring from injuries real or supposed: differences subsist between men in an individual or publick capacity: they may be carried on in a direct or indirect manner; 'Ought less differences altogether to divide and estrange those from one another, whom such ancient and sacred bands unite?—BLAIR. Disputes and altercations are mostly conducted in a direct manner between individuals; 'I have often been pleased to hear disputes on the Exchange adjusted between an inhabitant of Japan and an alderman of London.'—Addison. 'In the house of Peers the bill passes through the same forms as in the other house, and if rejected no more notice is taken, but it passes sub silensio to prevent unbecoming altercation. —BLACKSTONE. Quarrels may arise between nations or individuals, and be carried on by acts of offence directly or indirectly;

Unvex'd with quarrels, undisturb'd with noise, The country king his peaceful realm enjoys.

DISSENSION, CONTENTION, DISCORD, STRIFE

Dissension, contention, and strife, mark the act or state of dissenting, of contending and striving; discord derives its signification from the harshness produced in musick by the clashing of two strings which do not suit with each other; whence, in the moral sense, chords of the mind, which come into an unsuitable collision, produce a discord.

A collision of opinions produces dissension; a collision of interests produces contention; a collision of humours produces discord (v. Contention). A love of one's own opinion, combined with a disregard for the opinions of others, gives rise to dissension; selfishness is the main cause of contention; and an ungoverned

with whom one is in connexion would do away dissension; 'At the time the poem we are now treating of was written, the dissensions of the barons, who were then so many petty princes, ran very high."—ADDISON, A limitation of one's desire to that which is attainable by legitimate means would put a stop to contention; 'Because it is apprehended there may be great conten. tion about precedence, the proposer humbly desires the assistance of the learned.'—Swift. A correction of one's impatient and irritable humour would check the progress of discord;

But shall celestial discord never cease? T is better ended in a lasting peace. - DRYDEN.

Dissension tends not only to alienate the minds of men from each other, but to dissolve the bonds of society; Now join your hands, and with your hands your hearts, That no dissension hinder government.

SHAKSPEARE.

Contention is accompanied by anger, ill-will, envy, and many evil passions; The ancients made contention the principle that reigned in the chaos at first, and then love: the one to express the divisions, and the other the union of all parties in the middle and common bond."— BURNET. Discord interrupts the progress of the kind affections, and bars all tender intercourse;

See what a scourge is laid upon your hate * That heav'n finds means to kill your joys with love? And I, for winking at your discords too, Have lost a brace of kinsmen .- SHAKSPEARE.

Where there is strife, there must be discord; but there may be discord without strife: discord consists most in the feeling; strife consists most in the outward ac-Discord evinces itself in various ways; by looks, tion. words, or actions:

Good Heav'n! what dire effects from civil discord flow .- DRYDEN.

Strife displays itself in words or acts of violence .

Let men their days in senseless strife employ, We in eternal peace and constant joy .- Pope

Discord is fatal to the happiness of families; strife 10 the greatest enemy to peace between neighbours: cord arose between the goddesses on the apple being thrown into the assembly; Homer commences his poem with the strife that took place between Aga memnon and Achilles.

Discord may arise from mere difference of opinion; strife is in general occasioned by some matter of per-sonal interest: discord in the councils of a nation is the almost certain forerunner of its ruin; the common principles of politeness forbid strife among persons of good breeding.

QUARREL, BROIL, FEUD, AFFRAY OR FRAY.

Quarrel (v. Difference) is the general and ordinary term; broil, feud, and affray, are particular terms; broil, from braul, is a noisy quarrel; feud, from the German fehde, and the English fight, is an active quarrel; affray or fray, from the Latin frico to rub, signifying the collision of the passions, is a tumultuous

The idea of a variance between two parties is common to these terms; but the former respects the complaints and charges which are reciprocally made; broil respects the confusion and entanglement which arises from a contention and collision of interests; feud respects the hostilities which arise out of the variance. There are guarrels where there are no broils, and there are both where there are no fouds; but there are no broils and feuds without quarrels : the quarrel is not always openly conducted between the parties; it may sometimes be secret, and sometimes manifest itself only in a coolness of behaviour: the broil is a noisy kind of quarrel, it always breaks out in loud, and mostly reproachful language: feud is a deadly kind of quarrel which is heightened by mutual aggravations and insults. Quarrels are very lamenta-ble when they take place between members of the same temper that of discord.

Dissension is peculiar to bodies or communities of men; contention and discord to individuals. A Chrisitan temper of conformity to the general will of those and restless people who live together; Ev'n haughty Juno, who with endless broils, Earth, seas, and heav'n, and Jove himself turmoils, At length aton'd, her friendly pow'r shall join To cherish and advance the Trojan line.—DRYDEN.

Feuds were very general in former times between different families of the nobility; 'The poet describes (in the poem of Chevy-Chase) a battle occasioned by the mutual feuds which reigned in the families of an English and Scotch nobleman.'—Approxon.

A quarrel is indefinite, both as to the cause and the manner in which it is conducted; an affray is a sudden violent kind of quarrel: a quarrel may subsist between two persons from a private difference; an affray always takes place between many upon some publick occasion: a quarrel may be carried on merely by words; an affray is commonly conducted by acts of violence: many angry words pass in a quarrel between two hasty people; 'The quarrel between my friends did not run so high as I find your accounts have made it.'—STELLE. Many are wounded, if not being in the property of the property o killed in affrays, when opposite parties meet; 'The provost of Edinburgh, his son, and several citizens of distinction, were killed in the fray.'—ROBERTSON.

TO JANGLE, JAR, WRANGLE.

A verbal contention is expressed by all these terms, but with various modifications; jungtle seems to be an onomatopoeia, for it conveys by its own discordant sound an idea of the discordance which accompanies sourd an idea of the discontainer winer accompanies this kind of war of words; jar and war are in all probability but variations of each other, as also jungle and wrangle. There is in jangling more of cross questions and perverse replies than direct differences of opinion; 'Where the judicatories of the church were near an equality of the men on both sides, there were perpetual janglings on both sides. —BURNET. Those jangle who are out of humour with each other; there is more of discordant feeling and opposition of opinion in jarring: those who have no good will to each other will be sure to jar when they come in colli-sion; and those who indulge themselves in jarring will soon convert affection into ill will; 'There is no jar or contest between the different gifts of the spirit. Par or contest between the different guts of the spirit.—South. Married people may destroy the good humour of the company by jangling, but they destroy their domestick peace and felicity by jarring. To wrangle is technically, what to jangle is morally: those who dispute by a verbal opposition only are said to wrangle; and the disputers who engage in this scholastick exercise are termed wranglers; most disputations among to little more than exercise. tions amount to little more than wrangles;

Peace, factious monster! born to vex the state, With wrangling talents form'd for foul debate.

POPE.

TO COMBAT, OPPOSE.

Combat, from the French combattre to fight together, is used figuratively in the same sense with regard to matters of opinion; oppose, in French opposer, Latin opposui perfect of oppono, compounded of ob and pono to place one's self in the way, signifies to set one's self up against another.

Combat is properly a species of opposing; one always opposes in combotting, though not vice versa. To combat is used in regard to speculative matters; oppose in regard to private and personal concerns as well as matters of opinion. A person's positions are combatted, his interests or his measures are opposed. The Christian combats the erroneous doctrines of the infidel with no other weapon than that of argument;

When fierce temptation, seconded within By traitor appetite, and armed with darts Tempered in hell, invades the throbbing breast,

To combat may be glorious, and success Perhaps may crown us, but to fly is safe.—Cowper. The sophist opposes Christianity with ridicule and misrepresentation;

Though various foes against the truth combine, Pride above all opposes her design .- COWPER.

The most laudable use to which knowledge can be converted is to combat errour wherever it presents it self; but there are too many, particularly in the present day, who employ the little pittance of knowledge niste."

which they have collected, to no better purpose than to oppose every thing that is good, and excite the same spirit of opposition in others.

COMBATANT, CHAMPION.

Combatant, from to combat, marks any one that engages in a combat; champion, in French champion, Saxon cempe, German kaempe, signifies originally a solder or fighter, from the Latin campus a field of

A combatant fights for himself and for victory; a champion fights either for another, or in another's cause. The word combatant has always relation to some actual engagement; champion may be employed for one ready to be engaged, or in the habits of being engaged. The combatants in the Olympic games used to contend for a prize; the Roman gladiators were combatants who fought for their lives: when knighterrantry was in fashion there were champions of all descriptions, champions in behalf of distressed females, champions in behalf of the injured and oppressed, or

champions in behalf of aggrieved princes.

The mere act of fighting constitutes a combatant; the act of standing up in another's defence at a personal risk, constitutes the champion. Animals have their combats, and consequently are combatants; they are seldom champions. In the present day there are fewer combatants than champions among men. We have champions for liberty, who are the least honourable and the most questionable members of the community; they mostly contend for a shadow, and court persecution, in order to serve their own purposes of ambition. Champions in the cause of Christianity are not less ennobled by the object for which they contend, than by the disinterestedness of their motives in contending; they must expect in an infidel age, like the present, to be exposed to the derision and contempt of their self-sufficient opponents; 'Conscious that I do not possess the strength, I shall not assume the importance, of a champion, and as I am not of dignity enough to be angry, I shall keep my temper and my distance too, skirmishing like those insignificant gentry, who play the part of teasers in the Spanish buil-fights while bolder combatants engage him at the point of his horns.'—Cumberland.

ENEMY, FOE, ADVERSARY, OPPONENT, ANTAGONIST.

Enemy, in Latin inimicus, compounded of in priva tive, and amicus a friend, signifies one that is unfriendly; foe, in Saxon fah, most probably from the old Teutonic fian to hate, signifies one that bears a hatred; adversary, in Latin adversarius, from adversus against, signifies one that takes part against another; adversarius in Latin was particularly applied to one who con-tested a point in law with another; opponent, in Latin opponens, participle of oppone or objoco to place in the way, signifies one pitted against another; antagonist, in Greek arrayoutgos, compounded of arra against, and deventions to contend signifies one structure. and αγωνίζομαι to contend, signifies one struggling against another.

An enemy is not so formidable as a foe; the former may be reconciled, but the latter always retains a may be reconciled, but the latter always retains a deadly hatred. An exemy may be so in spirit, in action, or in relation; a foe is always so in spirit, if not in action likewise: a man may be an enemy to himself, though not a foe. Those who are national or political enemies are often private friends, but a foe a surface of may deep to a surface of the property of the surface of never any thing but a foe. A single act may create an enemy, but continued warfare creates a foe.

Enemies are either publick or private, collective or personal; in the latter sense the word enemy is most personal; in the latter sense the word exemy is most analogous in signification to that of adversary, opponent, antagonist. * Enemies seek to injure each other commonly from a sentiment of hatred; the heart is always more or less implicated; 'Plutarch says very finely, that a man should not allow himself to hate even his enemies.—Addison. Adversaries set up their claims, and frequently urge their pretensions with angry strife; but interest or contrariety of opinion more than sentiment stimulates to action; 'Those disputants (the persecutors) convince their adversaries

• Vide Abbe Girard: "Ennemi adversaire, antago

with a sorites commonly called a pile of fagots.'-Addison. Opponents set up different parties, and Fest each other sometimes with acrimony; but their difference do not necessarily include any thing personal; 'The name of Boyle is indeed revered, but his works are neglected; we are contented to know that he conquered his opponents, without inquiring what cavils were produced against him.'—Johnson. Antagonists are a species of opponents who are in actual engagement; emulation and direct exertion, but not anger, is concerned in making the antagonist; 'Sir Francis Bacon observes that a well written book, compared with its rivals and antagonists, is like Moses's serpent that immediately swallowed up those of the Egyptians. — Additional management of the Egyptians. — Additional management acts of personal violence: adversaries are contented with appropriating to themselves some object of desire, or depriving their rival of it; cupidity being the moving principle, and gain the object: opponents oppose each other systematically and perpetually; each aims at being thought right in their disputes: tastes and opinions are commonly the subjects of debate, self-love oftener than a love of truth is the moving principle: antagonists engage in a trial of strength; victory is the end; the love of dis tinction or superiority the moving principle; the contest may lie either in mental or physical exertion; may aim at superiority in a verbal dispute or in a manual combat. There are nations whose subjects are born enemies to those of a neighbouring nation: nothing evinces the radical corruption of any country more than when the poor man dares not show himself as an adversary to his rich neighbour without fearing to lose more than he might gain: the ambition of some men does not rise higher than that of being the opponent of ministers: Scalger and Petavius among the French were great antagonists in their day, as were Boyle and Bentley among the English; the Horatii and Curiatii were equally famous antagonists in their way.

Enemy and foe are likewise employed in a figurative sense for moral objects: our passions are our enemies, when indulged; envy is a foe to happiness.

ENMITY, ANIMOSITY, HOSTILITY.

Enmity lies in the heart; it is deep and malignant; animosity, from animus, a spirit, lies in the passions it is fierce and vindictive: hostility, from hostis a political enemy, lies in the action; it is mischievous and destructive

Enmity is something permanent; animosity is partial and transitory: in the feudal ages, when the darkness and ignorance of the times prevented the mild influence of Christianity, enmities between particular families were handed down as an inheritance from father to son; in free states, party spirit engenders

greater animosities than private disputes

Enmity is altogether personal: hostility mostly respects publick measures, animosity respects either one or many individuals. Enmity often lies concealed in the heart; animosity mostly betrays itself by some open act of hostility. He who cherishes enmity towards act of hostility. He who energines enuncy towards another is his own greatest enemy, 'In some instances, indeed, the enunity of others cannot be avoided without a participation in their guilt; but then it is the enunity of those with whom neither wisdom nor virtue can desire to associate.'-Johnson. He who is guided by a spirit of animosity is unfit to have any command over others; 'I will never let my heart reproach me with having done any thing towards increasing those ani mosities that extinguish religion, deface government, and make a nation miserable.'—Appropriate who proceeds to wanton hostility often provokes an enemy where he might have a friend; 'Erasmus himself had, it seems, the misfortune to fall into the hands of a party Trojans who laid on him with so many blows buffets, that he never forgot their hastilities to his dying day.'—Addison.

ADVERSE, CONTRARY, OPPOSITE.

Adverse, in French adverse, Latin adversus, participle of adverto, compounded of ad and verto, signifies turning towards or against; contrary, in French contraire, Latin contrarius, comes from contra against; op-veste, in Latin oppositus, participle of appono, is compounded of ob and pouo, signifying placed in the way

Adverse respects the feelings and interests of persons; contrary regards their plans and purposes; op-posite relates to the situation of persons and nature of things;

And as Ægæon, when with heav'n he strove. Stood opposite in arms to mighty Jove .- DRYDEN.

Fortune is adverse; an event turns out contrary to what rortune is awerse; an event turns out contrary to what was expected; sentiments are opposite to each other. An adverse wind comes across our wishes and pursuits; 'The periodical winds which were then set in were distinctly adverse to the course which Pizarro proposed to steer.'—Robertson. A contrary wind lies in an opposite direction; contrary winds are mostly adverse to some one who is crossing the ocean; adverse winds need not always be directly contrary.

Circumstances are sometimes so adverse as to baffle the best concerted plans. Facts often prove directly contrary to the representations given of them; 'As I should be loth to offer none but instances of the abuse of prosperity, I am happy in recollecting one very singular example of the contrary sort. Cumberland.

People with opposite characters cannot be expected to act together with pleasure to either party. Adverse events interrupt the peace of mind; contrary accounts invalidate the testimony of a narration; opposite prin

ciples interrupt the harmony of society.

COMPARISON, CONTRAST.

Comparison, from compare, and the Latin compare or com and par equal, signifies the putting together of things that are equal; contrast, in French contraster, Latin contrasto or contra and sto to stand, or sisto to place against, signifies the placing of one thing opposite

Likeness in the quality and difference in the degree are requisite for a comparison; likeness in the degree and opposition in the quality are requisite for a contrast; things of the same colour are compared; those of an opposite colour are contrasted: a comparison is made between two shades of red: a contrast between

black and white.

Comparison is of a practical utility, it serves to ascertain the true relation of objects; contrast is of utility among poets, it serves to heighten the effect of opposite qualities: things are large or small by comparison; things are magnified or diminished by contrast: the value of a coin is best learned by comparing it with another of the same metal; 'They who are apt to remind us of their ancestors only put us upon making comparisons to their own disadvantage.'- Spectator.

The generosity of one person is most strongly felt when contrasted with the meanness of another;

In lovely contrast to this glorious view, Calmly magnificent then will we turn To where the silver Thames first rural grows. THOMSON

ADVERSE, INIMICAL, HOSTILE, REPUGNANT

Adverse signifies the same as in the preceding article; inimical, from the Latin inimicus an enemy, signifies belonging to an enemy; which is also the meaning of hostile, from hostis an enemy; repugnant, in Latin repugnans, from repugno, or re and pugno to fight against, signifies warring with.

Adverse may be applied to either persons or things; inimical and hostile to persons or things personal; repugnant to things only: a person is adverse or a thing is adverse to an object; a person, or what is personal, is either inimical or hostile to an object; one thing is repugnant to another. We are adverse to a proposition; or circumstances are adverse to our advancement. Partizans are inimical to the proceedings of government, and hostile to the possessors of power. Sl very is repugnant to the mild temper of Christianity.

Adverse expresses simple dissent or opposition; inimical either an acrimonious spirit or a tendency to injure; hostile a determined resistance; repugnant a direct relation of variance. Those who are adverse to rect relation of variance. Those who are adverse to any undertaking will not be likely to use the endeavours which are essential to ensure its success; 'Only two soldiers were killed on the side of Cortes, and two officers with fifteen privates of the adverse faction.'—

ment, are inimical to its forms, its discipline, or its doctrine; 'God hath shown himself to be favourable to virtue, and inimical to vice and guilt.'—BLAIR. Many are so hostile to the religious establishment of their country as to aim at its subversion;

Then with a purple veil involve your eyes, Lest hostile faces blast the sacrifice .- DRYDEN.

The restraints which it imposes on the wandering and licentious imagination is repugnant to the temper of their minds; 'The exorbitant jurisdiction of the (Scotch) ecclesiastical courts were founded on maxims repugnant to justice.'-Robertson.

Sickness is adverse to the improvement of youth. The dissensions in the Christian world are inimical to the interests of religion, and tend to produce many hostile measures. Democracy is inimical to good order, the fomenter of hostile parties, and repugnant to every

sound principle of civil society.

ADVERSE, AVERSE.

Adverse (v. Adverse), signifying turned against or over against, denotes simply opposition of situation; averse, from a and versus, signifying turned from or away from, denotes an active removal or separation Adverse is therefore as applicable to inanimate as to animate objects, averse only to animate objects. When applied to conscious agents agverse refers to when applied to conscious agents awerse refers to matters of opinion and sentiment, awerse to those affecting our feelings. We are adverse to that which we think wrong; 'Before you were a tyrant I was your friend, and am now no otherwise your enemy than every Athenian must be who is adverse to your usurpation.—Comberrance.

We are averse to that which opposes our inclinations, our habits, or our in-'Men relinquish ancient habits slowly, and with reluctance. They are averse to new experiments, and venture upon them with timidity.—ROBERTSON. Sectarians profess to be adverse to the doctrines and discipline of the establishment, but the greater part of them are still more averse to the wholesome restraints which it imposes on the imagination.

AVERSE, UNWILLING, BACKWARD, LOATH, RELUCTANT.

Averse signifies the same as in the preceding article; unwilling interally signifies not willing; backward, having the will in a backward direction; loath or loth, from to loath, denotes the quality of loathing: reluctant, from the Latin re and lucto to struggle, signifies struggling with the will against a thing.

Averse is positive, it marks an actual sentiment of dislike; unwilling is negative, it marks the absence of the will; backward is a sentiment between the two, it marks the leaning of a will against a thing; loath and reluctant mark strong feelings of aversion. Anersian is an habitual sentiment; unwillingness and backward ness are mostly occasional; loath and reluctant always

occasional.

Aversion must be conquered; unwillingness must be removed; backwardness must be counteracted, or urged forward; loathing and reluctance must be over-powered. One who is averse to study will never have recourse to books; but a child may be unwilling or backward to attend to his lessons from partial motives, which the authority of the parent or master may correct; he who is loath to receive instruction will always remain ignorant; he who is reluctant in doing his duty will always do it as a task

A miser is averse to nothing so much as to parting with his money;

Of all the race of animals, alone, The bees have common cities of their own;

But (what 's more strange) their modest appetites, Averse from Venus, fly the nuptial rites .- DRYDEN.

The miser is even unwilling to provide himself with necessaries, but he is not backward in disposing of his money when he has the prospect of getting more;

I part with thee, As wretches that are doubtful of hereafter Part with their lives, unwilling, loath, and fearful, And trembling at futurity.—Rowe.

All men, even the most depraved, are subject more

ROBERTSON. Those who dissent from the establish- or less to compunctions of conscience; but backward at the same time to resign the gains of dishonesty, or the pleasures of vice.'—BLAIR. Friends are loath to part who have had many years' enjoyment in each other's society;

> E'en thus two friends condemn'd Embrace, and kiss, and take ten thousand leaves, Loather a hundred times to part than die.

SHARSPEARE

One is reluctant in giving unpleasant advice;

From better habitations spurn'd, Reluctant dost thou rove Or grieve for friendship unreturn'd, Or unregarded love ?—Goldsmith.

Lazy people are averse to labour: those who are not paid are unwilling to work; and those who are paid less than others are backward in giving their services: every one is loath to give up a favourite pursuit, and when compelled to it by circumstances they do it with reluctance.

AVERSION, ANTIPATHY, DISLIKE, HATRED, REPUGNANCE.

Aversion denotes the quality of being averse (vide Averse); antipathy, in French antipathie, Latin anti-pathia, Greek αντικαβεία, compounded of αντί αιαία, 1, and παθεία feeling, signifies a feeling against; distike, compounded of the privative dis and like, signifies not to like or be attached to; hatred, in German hass, is supposed by Adelung to be connected with heiss hot, signifying heat of temper; repugnance, in French repug-nance, Latin repuguantia and repugna, compounded of re and pugna, signifies the resistance of the feelings to an object.

Apersion is in its most general sense the generick term to these and many other similar expressions, in which case it is opposed to attachment; the former denoting an alienation of the mind from an object; the latter a knitting or binding of the mind to objects: it has, however, more commonly a partial acceptation, in which it is justly comparable with the above words. Aversion and antipathy apply more properly to things: dislike and hatred to persons; repugnance to actions, that is, such actions as one is called upon to perform.

Aversion and antipathy seem to be less dependent on the will, and to have their origin in the temperament or natural taste, particularly the latter, which springs from causes that are not always visible; and lies in the physical organization. Antipathy is in fact a natural aversion opposed to sympathy: dislike and hatred are on the contrary voluntary, and seem to have their root in the angry passions of the heart; the former is less deep-rooted than the latter, and is commonly awakened by slightly appears to the halitangle of the ha by slighter causes; repugnance is not an habitual and lasting sentiment, like the rest; it is a transitory but strong dislike to what one is obliged to do.

An unfitness in the temper to harmonize with an object produces aversion; a contrariety in the nature of particular persons and things occasions antipathies, although some pretend that there are no such nivsterious incongruities in nature, and that all antipathies are but aversions early engendered by the influence of fear and the workings of imagination; but under this supposition we are still at a loss to account for those singular effects of fear and imagination in some persons which do not discover themselves in others: a difference in the character, habits, and manners, produces dislike: injuries, quarrels, or more commonly the influence of malignant passions, occasion hatred: a contrariety to one's moral sense, or one's humours, awakens repug nance.

People of a quiet temper have an aversion to disputing or argumentation; those of a gloomy temper have an aversion to society; 'I cannot forbear men tioning a tribe of egotists, for whom I have always had a mortal aversion; I mean the authors of memoirs who are never mentioned in any works but their own.'are never mentioned in any works but their own. Additions. Additional Additional Milipathies mostly discover themselves in early life, and as soon as the object comes within the view of the person affected; "There is one species of terriour which those who are unwilling to suffer the reproach of cowardice have wisely dignified with the name of antipathy. A man has indeed no dread of harm from an insect or a worm, but his antipathy turns

him pale whenever they approach him.'—Johnson. Men of different sentiments in religion or politicks, if not of amiable temper, are apt to contract diskless to each other by frequent irritation in discourse; 'Every man whom business or curiosity has thrown at large into the world, will recollect many instances of fondness and disklike, which have forced themselves upon him without the intervention of his judgement.'—Johnson. When men of malignant tempers come in collision, nothing but a deadly hatred can ensue from their repeated and complicated aggressions towards each other; 'One punishment that attends the lying and deceitful person is the hatred of all those whom he either has, or would have deceived. I do not say that a Christian can lawfully bate any one, and yet I affirm that some may very worthily deserve to be hated.'—South. Any one who is under the influence of a misplaced pride is apt to feel a repugnance to acknowledge himself in an errou; 'In this dilemma Aristophanes conquered his repugnance, and determined upon presenting himself on the stage for the first time in his life.'—CUMBERLAND.

Aversions produce an anxious desire for the removal of the object distiked: antipathies produce the most violent physical revulsion of the frame, and vehement recoiling from the object; persons have not unfrequently been known to faint away at the sight of insects for whom this antipathy has been conceived: distikes too often betray themselves by distant and uncourteous behaviour: hatred assumes every form which is black and horrid: repugnance does not make its appearance

until called forth by the necessity of the occasion.

Aversions will never be so strong in a well-regulated mind, that they cannot be overcome when their cause is removed, or they are found to be ill-grounded; sometimes they lie in a vicious temperament formed by nature or habit, in which case they will not easily be destroyed: a slothful man will find a difficulty in overcoming his aversion to labour, or an idle man his aversion to steady application. Antipathies may be indulged or resisted: people of irritable temperaments, particularly females, are liable to them in a most violent degree; but those who are fully persuaded of their fallacy, may do much by the force of conviction to diminish Dislikes are often groundless, or have their violence. their origin in trifles, owing to the influence of caprice or humour: people of sense will be ashamed of them, and the true Christian will stifle them in their birth, lest they grow into the formidable passion of hatred, which strikes at the root of all peace; being a mental poison that infuses its venom into all the sinuosities of the heart, and pollutes the sources of human affection. Repugnance ought always to be resisted whenever it prevents us from doing what either reason, honour, or duty require.

Aversions are applicable to animals as well as men: does have a particular aversion to beggars, most probably from their suspicious appearance; in certain cases likewise we may speak of their antipathies, as in the instance of the dog and the cat; according to the schoolmen there existed also antipathies between certain plants and vegetables; but these are not borne out by facts sufficiently strong to warrant a belief of their existence. Dislike and hatred are sometimes applied to things, but in a sense less exceptionable than in the former case; dislike does not express so much as aversion, and aversion not so much as hatred; we ought to have a hatred for vice and sin, an aversion to gossipping and idle talking, and a dislike to the frivolities of fashionable life.

TO HATE, DETEST.

Hate has the same signification as in the preceding article; detest, from detestor or de and testor, signifies to call to witness against. The difference between these two words consists more insense than application. To hate is a personal feeling directed toward the object independently of its qualities; to detest is a feeling independent of the person, and altogether dependent upon the nature of the thing. What one hates, one hates commonly on one's own account; what one detests on account of the object; hence it is that one hates, but not detests, the person who has done an injury to one's self; and that one detests, rather than hates, the person who has done injuries to others. Joseph's brethren hated him because he was more beloved than they;

Spleen to mankind his envious heart possest, And much he hated all, but most the best.—Popg.

We detest a traitor to his country because of the enor mity of his offence;

Who dares think one thing, and another tell, My heart detests him as the gates of hell.—Pops.

In this connexion, to hate is always a bad passion; to detest always laudable: but when both are applied to inanimate objects, to hate is bad or good according to circumstances; to detest always retains its good meaning. When men hate things because they interfere with their indulgences, as the wicked hate the light, it is a bad personal feeling, as in the former case; but when good men are said to hate that which is bad, it is a laudable feeling justified by the nature of the object. As this feeling is, however, so closely allied to detestation, it is necessary farther to observe that hate, whether rightly or wrongly applied, seeks the injury or destruction of the object; but detest is confined simply to the shunning of the object, or thinking of it with very great pain. God hates sin, and on that account punishes sinners; conscientious men detest all fraud, and therefore cautiously avoid being concerned in it

HATEFUL, ODIOUS.

Hateful, signifies literally full of that which is apt to excite hatred; odious, from the Latin odi to hate, has the same sense originally.

the same sense originally.

These epithets are employed in regard to such objects as produce strong aversion in the mind; but when employed as they commonly are upon familiar subjects, they indicate an unbecoming vehemence in the speaker. The hateful is that which we ourselves hate; but the odious is that which makes us hateful to others. Hateful is properly applied to whatever violates general principles of morality: lying and swearing are hateful vices: odious applied to such things as affect the interests of others, and bring odium upon the individual; a tax that bears particularly hard and unequally is termed odious; or a measure of government that is thought oppressive is denominated odious. There is something particularly hateful in the meanness of cringing syconhants:

Let me be deemed the hateful cause of all,
And suffer, rather than my people fall.—Pope.

Nothing brought more odium on King James than his attempts to introduce popery; 'Projectors and inventors of new taxes being hateful to the people, seldom fail of bringing odium on their master.'—Davenant.

HATRED, ENMITY, ILL WILL, RANCOUR.

These terms agree in this particular, that those who are under the influence of such feelings derive a pleasure from the misfortune of others; but hatred, (v. Aversion) expresses more than emmity, (v. Enemy,) and this is more than ill will, which signifies merely willing ill or evil to another. Hatred is not contented with merely wishing ill to others, but derives its whole happiness from their misery or destruction; emmity on the contrary is limited in its operations to particular circumstances: hatred, on the other hand, is frequently confined to the feeling of the individual; but emmity consists as much in the action as the feeling. He who is possessed with hatred is happy when the object of his passion is miserable, and is miserable when he is happy; but the hater is not always instrumental in causing his misery or destroying his happiness: he who is inflamed with enmity, is more active in disturbing the peace of his enemy; but oftener displays his temper in trifling than in important matters. Ill will, as the word denotes, lies only in the mind, and is so indefinite in its signification, that it admits of every conceivable degree. When the will is evily directed towards another, in ever so small a degree, it constitutes ill will. Rancour, in Latin rancor, from ranceo to grow stale, signifying staleness, mustiness, is a species of bitter, deep-rooted emmity, that has lain so long in the mind as to hecome thorously corrunt.

as to become thoroughly corrupt.

Hatred is opposed to love; the object in both cases occupies the thoughts: the former torments the possessor; the latter delights him;

Phenician Dido rules the growing state, Who fled from Tyre to shun her brother's hate. DRYDEN.

Enmity is opposed to friendship; the object in both cases interests the passions: the former the bad, and the latter the good passions or the affections: the possessor is in both cases busy either in injuring or for warding the cause of him who is his enemy or friend;

That space the evil one abstracted stood From his own evil, and for the time remain'd Stupidly good, of enmity disarm'd.—MILTON.

Ill will is opposed to good will; it is either a general or a particular feeling; it embraces many or few, a single individual or the whole human race: he is least unhappy who bears least ill will to others; he is most happy who bears true good will to all; he is neither happy or unhappy who is not possessed of the one or the other; 'For your servants neither use them so familiarly as to lose your reverence at their hands, nor so disdainfully as to purchase yourself their ill will.'-

WENTWORTH.

There is a farther distinction between these terms; that hatred and ill will are oftener the fruit of a de-prayed mind, than the consequence of any external provocation; enmity and rancour, on the contrary, are mostly produced by particular circumstances of offence or commission; the best of men are sometimes the objects of hatred on account of their very virtues, which have been unwittingly to themselves the causes of producing this evil passion; good advice, however kindly given, may probably occasion ill will in the mind of him who is not disposed to receive it kindly; an angry word or a party contest is frequently the causes of enmity between irritable people, and of rancour between resentful and imperious people;

Oh lasting rancour! oh insatiate hate, To Phrygia's monarch, and the Phrygian state. POPE.

TO ABHOR, DETEST, ABOMINATE, LOATH.

These terms equally denote a sentiment of aversion; bhar, in Latin abhorree, compounded of ab from and horreo to stiffen with horrour, signifies to start from, with a strong emotion of horrour; detest (v. To hate, detest), abominate, in Latin abominatus, participle of abominor compounded of ab from or against, and ominar to wish ill luck, signifies to hold in religious abhorrence, to detest in the highest possible degree; loath, in Saxon lathen, may possibly be a variation of load, in the sense of overload, because it expresses the nausea which commonly attends an overloaded stomach. In the moral accentation, it is a strong future of except. the moral acceptation, it is a strong figure of speech to mark the abhorrence and disgust which the sight of offensive objects produces.

What we abhor is repugnant to our moral feelings what we detest contradicts our moral principle; what we abominate does equal victence to our religious and moral sentiments; what we loath acts upon us physi-

cally and mentally.

Inhumanity and cruelty are objects of abhorrence crimes and injustice of detestation; impiety and profaneness of abomination; enormous offenders of loathing.

The tender mind will abhor what is base and atrocious:

The lie that flatters I abhor the most .- Cowper. The rigid moralist will detest every violent infringement on the rights of his fellow creatures;

This thirst of kindred blood my sons detest. DRYDEN.

The conscientious man will abominate every breach of the Divine law; 'The passion that is excited in the fable of the Sick Kite is terrour; the object of which is the despair of him who perceives himself to be dying, and has reason to fear that his very prayer is an abomi nation.'-Hawkesworth. 'The agonized mind loaths the sight of every object which recalls to its recollection the subject of its distress;

No costly lords the sumptuous banquet deal, To make him loath his vegetable meal. GOLDSMITH

Revolving in his mind the stern command, He longs to fly, and loaths the charming land.

The chaste Lucretia abhorred the pollution to which she had been exposed, and would have loathed the sight of the atrocious perpetrator: Brutus detested the oppression and the oppressor.

ABOMINABLE, * DETESTABLE, EXECRABLE.

The primitive idea of these terms, agreeable to their derivation, is that of badness in the highest degree; conveying by themselves the strongest signification, and excluding the necessity for every other modifying epithet.

The abominable thing excites aversion; the detestable thing, hatred and revulsion; the execrable thing,

indignation and horrour.

These sentiments are expressed against what is abominable by strong ejaculations, against what is abetestable by animadversion and reprobation, and against what is execrable by imprecations and anathemas.

In the ordinary acceptation of these terms, they serve to mark a degree of excess in a very bad thing; abominable expressing less than detestable, and that less than execrable. This gradation is sufficiently illustrated in the following example. Dionysius, the tyrant, having been informed that a very aged woman prayed naving been informed that a very aget woman payor to the gods every day for his preservation, and wondering that any of his subjects should be so interested for his safety, inquired of this woman respecting the motives of her conduct, to which she replied, "In my infancy I lived under an abominable prince, whose death I desired; but when he perished, he was succeeded by a detestable tyrant worse than himself. offered up my vows for his death also, which were in like manner answered; but we have since had a worse tyrant than he. This execrable monster is yourself, whose life I have prayed for, lest, if it be possible, you should be succeeded by one even more wicked."

The exaggeration conveyed by these expressions has given rise to their abuse in vulgar discourse, where they are often employed indifferently to serve the humour of the speaker; 'This abominable endeavour to suppress or lessen every thing that is praiseworthy is as frequent among the men as among the women.

STELLS. 'Nothing can atone for the want of modesty, without which beauty is ungraceful, and wit

detestable.'-STEELE.

All vote to leave that execrable shore,
Polluted with the blood of Polydore.—DRYDEN.

TO BRAVE, DEFY, DARE, CHALLENGE.

Brave, from the epithet brave (v. Brave), signifies to act the brave; defy, in French defier, is probably changed from defaire to undo, signifying too make nothing or set at nought; dare, in Saxon dearran, dyrran, Franconian, &c. odurren, thorren, Greek θάρρειν, signifies to be bold, or have the confidence to a thing; challenge is probably changed from the

Greek kaliw to call.

We brave things; we dare and challenge persons we defy persons or their actions: the sailor braves the tempestuous ocean, and very often braves death itself in its most terrifick form; he dares the enemy whom he meets to the engagement; he defies all his boastings

and vain threats.

Brave is sometimes used in a bad sense; defy and tree commonly so. There is much idle contempt and dare commonly so. dare commonly so. There is much the contempt and affected indifference in braving; much insolent resistance to authority in defying; much provocation and affront in daring; a bad man braves the scorn and reproach of all the world; he defies the threats of his superiours to punish him; he dares them to exert

their power over him.

Brave and defy are dispositions of mind which dis play themselves in the conduct; dare and challenge are modes of action; we brave a storm by meeting its violence, and bearing it down with superiour force: we defy the malice of our enemies by pursuing that line of conduct which is most calculated to increase its bitter-

* Vide Abbe Roubaud's Synonymes: "Abominable, detestable, execrable."

To brave, conveys the idea of a direct and perness. sonal application of force to force; defying is carried on by a more indirect and circuitous mode of procemen brave the dangers which threaten them with evil, and in a figurative application things are said to brave resistance; 'Joining in proper union the amiable and the estimable qualities, in one part of our character we shall resemble the flower that smiles in spring; in another the firmly-rooted tree, that braves the winter storm.'-Blair. Men defy the angry will which opposes them;

The soul, secur'd in her existence, smiles At the drawn dagger, and defies its point.—Addison.

To dare and challenge are both direct and personal; but the former consists either of actions, words, or looks; the latter of words only. We dare a number of persons indefinitely; we challenge an individual, and very

frequently by name.

Daring arises from our contempt of others; chal-lenging arises from a high opinion of ourselves; the former is mostly accompanied with unbecoming ex-pressions of disrespect as well as aggravation; the latter is mostly divested of all angry personality. Melatter is mostly divested of all angry personality. tius the Tuscan dared Titus Manlius Torquatus, the son of the Roman consul, to engage with him in contradiction to his father's commands. Paris was persuaded to challenge Menelaus in order to terminate the Grecian war.

We dare only to acts of violence; we challenge to any kind of contest in which the skill or power of the parties are to be tried. It is folly to dare one of superiour strength if we are not prepared to meet with the

just reward of our impertinence;

Troy sunk in flames I saw (nor could prevent). And lium from its old foundations rent Rent like a mountain ash, which dar'd the winds, And stood the sturdy strokes of lab'ring hinds. DRYDEN.

Whoever has a confidence in the justice of his cause. needs not fear to challenge his opponent to a trial of their respective merits; 'The Platos and Ciceros among the ancients; the Bacons, Boyles, and Lockes, among our own countrymen, are all instances of what I have been saying, namely, that the greatest persons in all ages have conformed to the established religion of their courtry; not to mention any of the divines, however celebrated, since our adversaries challenge all those as men who have too much interest in this case to be impartial evidences.'—Budgell.

BRAVERY, COURAGE, VALOUR, GAL-LANTRY.

Bravery denotes the abstract quality of brave, which through the medium of the northern languages comes from the Greek βραβείον the reward of victory; courage, in French courage, from cour, in Latin cor the heart, which is the seat of courage; valour, in French valeur, Latin valor, from valeo to be strong, signifies by distinction strength of mind; gallantry, from the Greek ἀγαλλω to adorn or make distinguished for splendid qualities

Bravery lies in the blood; courage lies in the mind: the latter depends on the reason; the former on the physical temperament: the first is a species of instinct: the second is a virtue: a man is brave in proportion as he is without thought; he has courage in proportion

as he reasons or reflects.

Bravery seems to be something involuntary, a mechanical movement that does not depend on one's self; courage requires conviction, and gathers strength by delay; it is a noble and lofty sentiment: the force of example, the charms of musick, the fury and tumult of battle, the desperation of the conflict, will make cowards brave; the courageous man wants no other incentives than what his own mind suggests.

Bravery is of utility only in the hour of attack or contest; courage is of service at all times and under all circumstances: bravery is of avail in overcoming the obstacle of the moment; courage seeks to avert the distant evil that may possibly arrive. Bravery is a thing of the moment that is or is not, as circumstances may favour; it varies with the time and season: courage exists at all times and on all occasions. The brave

man who fearlessly rushes to the mouth of the cannon may tremble at his own shadow as he passes through a churchyard or turn pale at the sight of blood: the courageous man smiles at imaginary dangers, and pre

pares to meet those that are real.

It is as possible for a man to have courage without bravery, as to have bravery without courage: Cicero betrayed his want of bravery when he sought to shelter himself against the attacks of Cataline; he displayed his courage when he laid open the treasonable purposes of this conspirator to the whole senate, and charged him to his face with the crimes of which he knew him to be guilty.

Valour is a higher quality than either bravery or courage, and seems to partake of the grand characteristicks of both; it combines the fire of bravery with the determination and firmness of courage: bravery is most fitted for the soldier and all who receive orders; courage is most adapted for the general and all who give commands; valour for the leader and framer of enterprises, and all who carry great projects into exe cution: bravery requires to be guided; courage is equally fitted to command or obey; valour directs and executes. Bravery has most relation to danger; courage and valour include in them a particular reference to action: the brave man exposes himself; the courageous man advances to the scene of action which is before him; the valiant man seeks for occasions to act.

Courage may be exercised in ordinary cases; valour displays itself most effectually in the achievement of heroic exploits. A consciousness of duty, a love of one's country, a zeal for the cause in which one is engaged, an over-ruling sense of religion, the dictates of a pure conscience, always inspire courage: an ardent thirst for glory, and an insatiable ambition, render men

valiant.

The brave man, when he is wounded, is proud of being so, and boasts of his wounds; the courageous man collects the strength which his wounds have left him, to pursue the object which he has in view; the valiant man thinks less of the life he is about to lose, than of the glory which has escaped him. The brave man, in the hour of victory, exults and triumphs: he discovers his joy in boisterous war shouts. The courageous man forgets his success in order to profit by its advantages. The valiant man is stimulated by success to seek after new trophies. Bravery sinks after a defeat: courage may be damped for a moment, but is never destroyed; it is ever ready to seize the first op-portunity which offers to regain the lost advantage: valour, when defeated on any occasion, seeks another in which more glory is to be acquired.

The three hundred Spartans who defended the

Straits of Thermopylæ were brave;

This brave man, with long resistance, Held the combat doubtful.—Rows.

Socrates drinking the hemlock, Regulus returning to Carthage, Titus tearing himself from the arms of the weeping Berenice, Alfred the Great going into the camp of the Danes, were courageous;

"Oh! When I see him arming for his honour, His country, and his gods, that martial fire That mounts his courage, kindles even me.

Hercules destroying monsters, Perseus delivering An dromeda, Achilles running to the ramparts of Troy, and the knights of more modern date who have gone in quest of extraordinary adventures, are all entitled to the peculiar appellation of valiant;

True valour, friends, on virtue founded strong, Meets all events alike.—MALLETT.

Gallantry is extraordinary bravery, or bravery on extraordinary occasions. The brave man goes willingly where he is commanded; the gallant man leads on with vigour to the attack. Bravery is common to vast numbers and whole nations; gallantry is peculiar to individuals or particular bodies: the brave man bravely defends the post assigned him; the gallant man volunteers his services in cases of peculiar danger; a man may feel ashamed in not being considered brave; he feels a pride in being looked upon as gallant. To call a hero brave adds little or nothing to his chaquantance.'—Francis. But to entitle him gallant adds a lustre to the glory he has acquired;

Death is the worst; a fate which all must try, And fer our country 't is a bliss to die. The gallant man, though stain in fight he be, Yet leaves his nation safe, his children free

We cannot speak of a British tar without thinking of bravery; of his exploits without thinking of gallantry

COURAGE, FORTITUDE, RESOLUTION.

Courage signifies the same as in the preceding article; fortitude, in French fortitude, Latin fortitude, is the abstract noun from fortis strong; resolution, from the verb resolve, marks the habit of resolving.

Courage respects action, fortitude respects passion: a man has courage to meet danger, and fortitude to

endure pain.

Courage is that power of the mind which bears up against the evil that is in prospect; fortitude is that power which endures the pain that is felt; the man of courage goes with the same coolness to the mouth of the cannon, as the man of fortitude undergoes the amputation of a limb.

Putation of a limb.

Horatius Cocles displayed his courage in defending a bridge against the whole army of the Etruscans: Caius Mucius displayed no less fortitude when he thrust his hand into the fire in the presence of King Porsenna, and awed him as much by his language as

his action.

Courage seems to be more of a manly virtue; fortitude is more distinguishable as a feminine virtue : former is at least most adapted to the male sex, who are called upon to act, and the latter to females, who are obliged to endure: a man without courage would be as ill prepared to discharge his duty in his intercourse with the world, as a woman without fortitude would be to support herself under the complicated trials of body and mind with which she is liable to be assailed.

We can make no pretensions to courage unless we set aside every personal consideration in the conduct we should pursue; 'What can be more honourable than to have courage enough to execute the commands of reason and conscience ! - Collier. We cannot boast of fortitude where the sense of pain provokes a murmur or any token of impatience: since life is a chequered scene, in which the prospect of one evil is most commonly succeeded by the actual existence of another, it is a happy endowment to be able to ascend the scaffold with fortitude, or to mount the breach with courage as occasion may require;

With wonted fortitude she bore the smart, And not a groan confess'd her burning heart .- GAY.

Resolution is a minor species of courage; it is courage in the minor concerns of life: courage comprehends under it a spirit to advance; resolution simply marks the will not to recede: we require courage to bear down all the obstacles which oppose themselves to us; we require resolution not to yield to the first difficulties that offer : courage is an elevated feature in the human character which adorns the possessor; resolution is that common quality of the mind which is in perpetual request; the want of which degrades a man in the eyes of his fellow-creatures. Courage comprehends the absence of all fear, the disregard of all personal convenience, the spirit to begin and the determination to pursue what has been begun; resolution consists of no more than the last quality of courage, which respects the persistance in a conduct; 'The unusual extension of my muscles on this occasion made my face ache to such a degree, that nothing but an invincible resolution and perseverance could have prevented me from falling back to my monosyllables. Approx. Conrage is displayed on the most trying occasions: resolution is never put to any severe test; courage always supposes some danger to be encountered; resolution may be exerted in merely encountered. ing opposition and difficulty; we have need of courage in opposing a formidable enemy; we have need of resolution in the management of a stubborn will.

The brave unfortunate are our best ac- | AUDACITY, EFFRONTERY, HARDIHOOD OR HARDINESS, BOLDNESS.

Audacity, from audacious, in French audacieux, Latin audax and audeo to dare, signifies literally the quality of daring; effrontery, compounded of ef, en, or in, and frons a face, signifies the standing face to face hardihood or hardiness, from hardy or hard, signifies a capacity to endure or stand the brunt of difficulties, opposition, or shame; buldness, from bold, in Saxon bald, is in all probability changed from bald, that is, uncovered, open-fronted, without disguise, which are the characteristicks of boldness.

The idea of disregarding what others regard is com mon to all these terms. Audacity expresses more than effrontery; the first has something of vehemence or defiance in it; the latter that of cool unconcern: hardihood expresses less than boldness; the first has more of determination, and the second more of spirit and enterprise. Audacity and effrontery are always taken in a bad sense: hardihood in an indifferent, if not a bad sense; boldness in a good, bad, or indifferent

* Audacity marks haughtiness and temerity; 'As knowledge without justice ought to be called cunning rather than wisdom, so a mind prepared to meet danger, if excited by its own eagerness and not the publick n excited by its own eagerness and not the publick good, deserves the name of audacity rather than of fortitude.'—Steele. Effrontery is the want of all modesty, a total shamelessnes; 'I could never forbear to wish that while vice is every day multiplying seducements, and stalking forth with more hardened effronters, virtue would not withdraw the industry. effrontery, virtue would not withdraw the influence of her presence.'—Johnson. Hardihood indicates a firm resolution to meet consequences; 'I do not find any one so hardy at present as to deny that there are very great advantages in the enjoyment of a plentiful fortune.'-Bruggell. Boldness denotes a spirit to com mence action, or in a less favourable sense to be heed-less and free in one's speech; 'A bold tongue and a feeble arm are the qualifications of Drances in Virgil. -Addison. An audacious man speaks with a lofthaughty demeanour makes him forget what is due to his superiours. Effrontery discovers itself by an inso-lent air; a total unconcern for the opinions of those present, and a disregard of all the forms of civil so-A hardy man speaks with a resolute tone, which seems to brave the utmost evil that can result from what he says. A bold man speaks without re-serve, undaunted by the quality, rank, or haughtiness of those whom he addresses;

Bold in the council board, But cautious in the field, he shunn'd the sword. DRYDEN.

It requires audacity to assert false claims, or vindicate a lawless conduct in the presence of accusers and judges; it requires effrontery to ask a favour of the judges; it requires egrontery to ask a layour of the man whom one has basely injured, or to assume a placid unconcerned air in the presence of those by whom one has been convicted of flagrant atrocities; it requires hardihood to assert as a positive fact what is dubious or suspected to be false; it requires boldness to maintain the truth in spite of every danger with which one is threatened, or to assert one's claims in the presence of one's superiours.

Audacity makes a man to be hated; but it is not always such a base metal in the estimation of the world as it ought to be; it frequently passes current for boldness when it is practised with success. Efrontery makes a man despised; it is of too mean and vulgar a stamp to meet with general sanction: it is odious to all but those by whom it is practised, as it seems to run counter to every principle and feeling of common honesty. Hardshood is a die on which a man stakes his character for veracity; it serves the purpose of disputants and frequently brings a man through diffi-culties which, with more deliberation and caution, might have proved his ruin. Boldness makes a man universally respected though not always beloved: a bold man is a particular favourite with the fair sex, with whom timidity passes for folly, and boldness of course for great talent or a fine spirit. Audacity is the characteristick of rebels; effrontery

* Vide Girard: " Hardiesse, audace, effronterie "

that of villains; hardihood is serviceable to gentlemen of the bar; boldness is indispensable in every great undertaking.

DARING, BOLD.

Daring signifies having the spirit to dare; bold has the same signification as given under the head of

These terms may be both taken in a bad sense; but aring much oftener than bold; In either case daring expresses much more than bold; he who is daring provokes resistance, and courts danger; but the bold man is contented to overcome the resistance that is offered to him. A man may be bold in the use of words only; he must be daring in actions: a man is bold in the defence of truth: 'Boldness is the power to speak or to do what we intend without fear or disorder.'-Locke. A man is daring in military enterprise ;

Too daring prince! ah! whither dost thou run, Ah! too forgetful of thy wife and son.—Pops.

STRENUOUS, BOLD.

Strenuous, in Latin strenuus, from the Greek 5ρηνης undaunted, untamed, from 5ρηνίαω to be with-

out all rein or control; bold, v. Audacity.

Strenuous expresses much more than bold; boldness is a prominent idea, but it is only one idea which enters into the signification of strenuousness; it conbines likewise fearlessness, activity, and ardour. An advocate in a cause may be strenuous, or merely bold: in the former case he cmits nothing that can be either said or done in favour of the cause, he is always on the alert, he heeds no difficulties or danger; but in the latter case he only displays his spirit in the undisguised declaration of his sentiments. Strenuous supporters of any opinion are always strongly convinced of the truth of that which they support, and warmly impressed with a sense of its importance; 'While the good weather continued, I strolled about the country, and made many strenuous attempts to run away from this odious giddiness."—BEATTIE. But the bold sup-porter of an opinion may be impelled rather with the desire of showing his boldness than maintaining his point :

Fortune befriends the bold .- DRYDEN.

ARMS, WEAPONS.

Arms, from the Latin arma, is now properly used for instruments of offence, and never otherwise except from the German waffen, may be used either for an instruments of offence or defence. We say fire arms, but not fire weapons, and weapons offensive or defence. We say fire arms, but not fire weapons; and weapons offensive or defensive, not arms offensive or defensive. Arms likewise, agreeably to its origin, is employed for whatever is intentionally made as an instrument of offence; weapon, recording to its oversuched and in the fire weapon, according to its extended and indefinite application, is employed for whatever may be accidentally used for this purpose: guns and swords are always arms;

Louder, and yet more loud, I hear th' alarms Of human cries distinct and clashing arms

Stones, and brickbats, and pitchforks, may be occasionally weapons;

The cry of Talbot serves me for a sword : For I have loaded me with many spoils, Using no other weapon than his name. SHAKSPEARE.

ARMY, HOST.

An army is an organized body of armed men; a host, from hostis an enemy, is properly a body of hostile men.

An army is a limited body; a host may be unlimited, and is therefore generally considered a very large

body.

The word army applies only to that which has been formed by the rules of art for purposes of war;

No more applause would on ambition wait, And laying waste the world be counted great; But one goodnatured act more praises gain, Than armies overthrown and thousands slain.

Host has been extended in its application not only to bodies, whether of men or angels, that were assembled for purposes of offence, but also in the figurative sense to whatever rises up to assail:

He it was whose guile, Stirr'd up with envy and revenge, deceiv'd The mother of mankind, what time his pride Had cast him out of heav'n with all his host Of rebel angels .- MILTON.

Yet true it is, survey we life around, Whole hosts of ills on every side are found. JENYNS

BATTLE, COMBAT, ENGAGEMENT.

Battle, in French bataille, comes from the Latin batuo, Hebrew half to twist, signifying a beating; combat, from the French combattre, i. e. com or cum together, and battre to beat or fight, signifies literally a battle one with the other; engagement signifies the act of being engaged or occupied in a contest.

* Bettle is a general action requiring some prepara-"Bettee is a general action requiring some preparation: combat is only particular, and sometimes unexpected. Thus the action which took place between the Carthaginians and the Romans, or Cassar and Pompey, were battles; but the action in which the Horatii and the Curiatii, decided the fate of Rome, as also many of the actions in which Hercules was engaged, were combats. a decisive action between Philip of France and Charles of Austria, in their contest for the throne of Spain, in the combat between Menelaus and Paris, Homer very artfully describes the seasonable interference of Venus to save her favourite from destruction; most curious reason of all (for the wager of battle) is given in the Mirror, that it is allowable upon warrant of the combat between David for the people of Israel of the one party, and Goliath for the Philistines of the other party. "BLACKSTONE.

The word combat has more relation to the act of fighting than that of battle, which is used with more propriety simply to denominate the action. In the battle between the Romans and Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, the combat was obstinate and bloody; the Romans seven times repulsed the enemy, and were as often repulsed in their turn. In this latter sense engagement pulsed in their turn. In this latter sense engagement and combat are analogous, but the former has a specifick relation to the agents and parties engaged, which is not implied in the latter term. We speak of a person being present in an engagement; wounded in an engagement; or having fought desperately in an engagement; on the other hand; to engage in a combat; to challenge to single combat; combats are sometimes begun by the accidental meeting of avowed opponents; in such engagements nothing is thought of but the gratification of evenge. the gratification of revenge.

Battles are fought between armies only; they are gained or lost: combats are entered into between individuals, whether of the brute or human species, in which they seek to destroy or excel: engagements are confined to no particular member, only to such as are engaged: a general engagement is said of an army when the whole body is excepted; particles. when the whole body is engaged; partial engagements respect only such as are fought by small parties or companies of an army. History is mostly occupied

with the details of battles;

A battle bloody fought, Where darkness and surprise made conquest cheap.

In the history of the Greeks and Romans, we have likewise an account of the combats between men and wild beasts, which formed their principal amusement;

This brave man with long resistance, Held the combat doubtful.-Rowe.

It is reported of the German women, that whenever their husbands went to battle they used to go into the thickest of the combat to carry them provisions or dress

^{*} Girard "Bataille, combat."

their wounds; and that sometimes they would take ! part in the *engagement*; 'The Emperor of Morocco commanded his principal officers, that if he died during the engagement, they should conceal his death from the army, —Addison. The word combat is likewise sometimes taken in a moral application; The relation of events becomes a moral lecture, when the combat of honour is rewarded with virtue.'- HAWKES-WORTH.

CONFLICT, COMBAT, CONTEST.

Conflict in Latin conflictus, participle of confligo compounded of con and fligo, in Greek $\phi\lambda i\gamma\omega$ Colic for $\phi\lambda i\beta\omega$ to flip or strike, signifies to strike against each other. This term is allied to combat and conflict In the sense of striving for the superiority; but they differ both in the manner and spirit of the action.

A conflict has more of violence in it than a combat,

And a combat than a contest.

A conflict and combat, in the proper sense, are always attended with a personal attack; contest consists mostly of a striving for some common object.

A conflict is mostly sanguinary and desperate, it arises from the undisciplined operations of the bad passions, animosity, and brutal rage; it seldom ends in any thing but destruction: a combat is often a matter art and a trial of skill; it may be obstinate and lasting, though not arising from any personal resentment, and mostly terminates with the triumph of one party and the defeat of the other: a contest is interested and personal; it may often give rise to angry and even malignant sentiments, but is not necessarily associated with any bad passion; it ends in the advancement of one to the injury of the other.

The lion, the tiger, and other beasts of the forest, have dreadful conflicts whenever they meet; which seldom terminate but in the death of one if not both of the antagonists; it would be well if the use of the word were confined to the irrational part of the creation; but there have been wars and party broils among men, which have occasioned conflicts the most horrible and

destructive that can be conceived:

It is my father's face, Whom in this conflict, I unawares have kill'd.

That combats have been mere trials of skill is evinced by the combats in the ancient games of the Greeks and Romans, as also in the justs and tournaments of later date; but in all applications of the term, it implies a set engagement between two or more particular individuals:

Elsewhere he saw, where Troilus defied Achilles, an unequal combat tried .- DRYDEN.

Contests are as various as the pursuits and wishes of men: whatever is an object of desire for two parties becomes the ground of a contest; ambition, interest, and party-zeal are always busy in furnishing men with objects for a contest; on the same ground, the attainment of victory in a battle, or of any subordinate point during an engagement, become the object of contest; 'When the ships grappled together, and the contest became more steady and furious, the example of the King and so many gallant nobles, who accompa-nied him, animated to such a degree the seamen and soldiers, that they maintained every where a superi-ority.'—Hume.

In a figurative sense these terms are applied to the movements of the mind, the elements or whatever seems to oppose itself to another thing, in which sense they preserve the same analogy: violent passions have their conflicts: ordinary desires their combats; motives their contests; it is the poet's part to describe the conflicts between pride and passion, rage and despair, in the breast of the disappointed lover; 'Happy is the man who in the conflict of desire between God and the world, can oppose not only argument to argument but pleasure to pleasure.'—BLAIR. Reason will seldom come off victorious in its combat with ambition, avarice, a love of pleasure, or any predominant desire, unless aided by religion; 'The noble combat that, 'twixt oy and sorrow, was fought in Paulina! She had one eye declined for the loss of her husband, another elevated that the oracle was fulfilled. "Shirspears. Where there is a contest between the desire of following one's will and a sense of propriety, the voice of a prudent friend may be heard and heeded; 'Soon after-ward the death of the king furnished a general subject for poetical contest.'-Johnson.

TO CONFRONT, FACE.

Confront, from the Latin from a forehead, implies to set face to face; and face, from the noun face, signifies to set the face towards any object. The former of these terms is always employed for two or more persons with regard to each other; the latter for a single individual victory and the control of t vidual with regard to objects in general.

Witnesses are confronted; a person faces danger, or faces an enemy. when people give contrary evidence it is sometimes necessary, in extra-judicial matters, to confront them, in order to arrive at the truth;

Whereto serves mercy But to confront the visage of offence?

SHAKSPEARE.

The best test which a man can give of his courage, is to evince his readiness for facing his enemy whenever the occasion requires:

The rev'rend charioteer directs the course, And strains his aged arm to lash the horse Hector they face; unknowing how to fear, Fierce he drove on .- Pops.

TO BEAT, STRIKE, HIT.

Beat, in French battre, Latin baltuo, comes from the Hear, in French battre, Latin battao, comes from the Hebrew habat to beat; Strike, in Saxon strican, Danish stricker, &c. from the Latin strictum, participle of stringo to brush or sweep along, signifies literally to pass one thing along the surface of another; hit, in Latin ictus, participle of ico, comes from the Hebrew necat to strike.

To beat is to redouble blows; to strike is to give one single blow; but the bare touching in consequence of an effort constitutes hitting. We never beat but with design, nor hit without an aim, but we may strike by accident. It is the part of the strong to beat; of the most vehement to strike; of the most sure sighted to

Notwithstanding the declamations of philosophers as they are pleased to style themselves, the practice of beating cannot altogether be discarded from the mili-tary or scholastick discipline. The master who strikes his pupil hastily is oftener impelled by the force of pas-sion than of conviction. Hitting is the object and de-light of the marksman; it is the utmost exertion of his skill to hit the exact point at which he aims. In an extended application of these terms, beating is, for the most part, an act of passion, either from anger or sorrow:

Young Sylvia beats her breast, and cries aloud For succour from the clownish neighbourhood,

DRYDEN.

Striking is an act of decision, as to strike a blow;

Send thy arrows forth, Strike, strike these tyrants and avenge my tears. CUMBERLAND.

Hitting is an act of design, as to hit a mark; 'No man is thought to become vicious by sacrificing the life of an animal to the pleasure of hitting a mark. It's howevercertain that by this act more happiness is destroyed

than produced.'-HAWKESWORTH.

than produced."—HAWKESWORTH.

Blow probably derives the meaning in which it is here taken from the action of the wind, which it resembles when it is violent; stroke, from the word strike, denotes the act of striking.

Blow is used abstractedly to denote the effect of violence; stroke is employed relatively to the person producing that effect A blow may be received by the carelessness of the receiver, or by a pure accident; ducing that effect A blow may be received by the carelessness of the receiver, or by a pure accident; 'The advance of the human mind towards any object. of laudable pursuit may be compared to the progress of a body driven by a blow.'—Johnson. Strokes are Strokes are dealt out according to the design of the giver; 'Penetrated to the heart with the recollection of his behaviour, and the unmerited pardon he had met with, Thrasyppus was proceeding to execute vengeance on himself, by rushing on his sword, when Pisistratus again interposed, and seizing his hand, stopped the stroke.'—Cumberland. Children are always in the way of getting blows in the course of their play; and of receiving strokes by way of chastisement. A blow may be given with the hand, or with any flat

A blow may be given with the hand, or with any flat substance; a stroke is rather a long drawn blow given with a long instrument, like a stick. Blows may be given with the flat part of a sword, and strokes with a stick

Blow is seldom used but in the proper sense; stroke sometimes figuratively, as a stroke of death, or a stroke of fortune: 'This declaration was a stroke which Evander had neither skill to elude, nor force to resist.'

—HAWKESWORTH.

TO BEAT, DEFEAT, OVERPOWER, ROUT, OVERTHROW.

Beat is here figuratively employed in the sense of the former section; defeat, from the French defaire, implies to undo; overpower, to have the power over any one; rout, from the French mettre en deroute is to turn from one's route, and overthrow to throw over or upside down.

Beat respects personal contests between individuals or parties; defeat, rout, overpower, and overthrow, are employed mostly for contests between numbers. A general is beaten in important engagements: he is defeated and may be routed in partial attacks; he is overpowered by numbers, and overthrown in set engagements. The English pride themselves on beating their enemies by land as well as by sea, whenever they come to fair engagements, but the English are sometimes defeated when they make too desperate attempts, and sometimes they are in danger of being overpowered; they have scarcely ever been routed or overthrown.

To beat is an indefinite term expressive of no particular degree: the being beaten may be attended with greater or less damage. To be defeated is a specific disadvantage, it is a failure in a particular object of more or less importance. To be overprovered is a positive loss; it is a loss of the power of acting which may be of longer or shorter duration; to be routed is a temporary disadvantage; a roat alters the route or course of proceeding, but does not disable; to be overthrown is the greatest of all mischiefs, and is applicable only to great armies and great concerns, an overthrow commonly decides the contest;

Beat is a term which reflects more or less dishonour

on the general or the army or on both;

Turnus, I know you think me not your friend, Nor will I much with your belief contend; I beg your greatness not to give the law In other realms, but beaten to withdraw.

Defeat is an indifferent term; the best generals may sometimes be defeated by circumstances which are above human control; 'Satan f.equently contesses the omnipotence of the Supreme Being, that being the perfection he was forced to allow hin, and the only consideration which could support his pride under the shame of his defeat.'—Addison. Overpowering is coupled with no particular honour to the winner, nor disgrace to the loser; superiour power is oftener the result of good fortune than of skill. The bravest and finest troops may be overpowered in cases which exceed human power; 'The veterans who defended the walls, were soon overpowered by numbers.'—ROBERTSON. A rout is always disgraceful, particularly to the army; it always arises from want of firmness; 'The rout (at the battle of Pavia) now became universal, and resistance ceased in almost every part but where the king was in person.'—ROBERTSON. An overthrow is fatal rather than dishonourable; it excites pity rather than contempt; 'Milton's subject is rebellion against the Supreme Being; raised by the highest order of created beings; the overthrow of their host is the punishment of their crime.'—Johnson.

TO DEFEAT, FOIL, DISAPPCINT, FRUSTRATE.

To defeat has the same meaning as given under the article To beat; foil may probably come from fail, and the Latin fallo to deceive, signifying to make to fail; frustrate, in Latin frustratus, from frustra in vain, signifies to make vain; disappoint, from the pri-

vative dis and the verb appoint, signifies literally to do away what has been appointed.

Defeat and foil are both applied to matters of enterprise; but that may be defeated which is only planned, and that is foiled which is in the act of being executed. What is rejected is defeated; what is aimed at or purposed is frustrated; what is calculated on is disappointed. The best concerted schemes may sometimes be easily defeated; where art is employed against simplicity the latter may be easily foiled; when we aim at what is above our reach, we must be frustrated in our endeavours; when our expectations are extravagant, it seems to follow of course, that they will be disappointed.

Design or accident may tend to defeat, design only to foil, accident only to frustrate or disappoint. The superiour force of the enemy, or a combination of untoward events which are above the control of the commander, will serve to defeat the best concerted plans of the best generals; 'The very purposes of wantonness are defeated by a carriage which has so much boldness.'—Stelle. Men of upright minds can seldom foil the deep laid schemes of knaves; 'The devil haunts those nost where he half preatest hopes of success; and is too eager and intent upon mischief to employ his time and temptations where he half been so often foiled.'—Tillotson. When we see that the perversity of men is liable to frustrate the kind intentions of others in their behalf, it is wiser to leave them to their folly;

Let all the Tuscans, all th' Arcadians join,
Nor these nor those shall frustrate my design.

DRYDEN,

The cross accidents of human life are a fruitful source of disappointments to those who suffer themse wes to be affected by them; 'It seems rational to hope that minds qualified for great attainments should first en deavour their own benefit. But this expectation, how ever plausible, has been very frequently disappointed.

— JOHNSON.

TO BAFFLE, DEFEAT, DISCONCERT, CONFOUND.

Baffle, in French baffler, from buffle an ox, signifies to lead by the nose as an ox, that is, to amuse or disappoint; defent, in French defait, participle of defaire, is compounded of the privative de and faire to do, signifying to undo; disconcert is compounded of the privative dis and concert, signifying to throw out of concert or harmony, to put into disorder; confounds, in French confoundre, is compounded of con and foundre to melt or mix together in general disorder.

When applied to the derangement of the mind or rational faculties, brifle and defeat respect the powers of argument, disconcert and confound the thoughts and feelings: brifle expresses less than defaut: disconcert less than confound; a person is brifled in argument who is for the time discomposed and silenced by the superious address of his opponent: he is defeated in argument if his opponent has altogether the advantage of him in strength of reasoning and justers of sentiment: a person is disconcerted who loses his presence of mind for a moment, or has his feelings any way discomposed; he is confounded when the powers of thought and consciousness become torpid or vanish.

A superiour command of language or a particular degree of effrontery will frequently enable one person to baffle another who is advocating the cause of truth; 'When the mind has brought itself to close thinking, it may go on roundly. Every abstruse problem, every intricate question will not baffle, discourage, or break it.'—Locke. Ignorance of the subject, or a want of ability, may occasion a man to be defeated by his adversary, even when he is supporting a good cause; 'He that could withstand conscience is frighted at infamy, and shame prevails when reason is defeated.'—Johnson. Assurance is requisite to prevent any one from being disconcerted who is suddenly detected in any disgraceful proceeding; 'She looked in the glass while she was speaking to me, and without any confusion adjusted her tucker: she seemed rather pleased than disconcerted at being regarded with earnestness.'—HAWKESWORTH. Hardened effrontery sometimes keeps the daring villain from being confounded by any events, however awful; 'I could not help inquiring of the clerks if they knew this lady, and was greatly

founded when they told me with an air of secrecy that | external. We conquer and overcome what makes no

she was my cousin's mistress.'—HAWKESWORTH.
When applied to the derangement of plans, baffle expresses less than defeat; defeat less than confound; and disconcert less than all. Obstinacy, perseverance, skill, or art, baffles; force or violence defeats; awkward circumstances disconcert; the visitation of God con-founds. When wicked men strive to obtain their ends, it is a happy thing when their adversaries have suffi-cient skill and address to baffic all their arts, and sufficient power to defeat all their projects;

Now shepherds! To your helpless charge be kind, Baffle the raging year, and fill their pens

He finds himself naturally to dread a superiour Being, that can defeat all his designs and disappoint all his hopes.'—Tillotson. Sometimes when our best endea-vours fail in our own behalf, the devices of men are confounded by the interposition of heaven;

So spake the Son of God; and Satan stood A while as mute, confounded what to say.

It frequently happens even in the common transactions of life that the best schemes are disconcerted by the tri-vial casualties of wind and weather; 'The King (William) informed of these dangerous discontents hastened over to England; and by his presence, and the vigorous measures which he pursued, disconcerted all the schemes of the conspirators. —HUME. The obstinacy of a disorder may baffle the skill of the physician; the imprudence of the patient may defeat the object of his prescriptions: the unexpected arrival of a superiour may disconcert the unauthorized plan of those who are subordinate: the miraculous destruction of his army confounded the project of the King of Assyria.

TO CONQUER, VANQUISH, SUBDUE, OVERCOME, SURMOUNT.

Conquer, in French conquerir, Latin conquiro, com-Conquer, in French conquery, Latin conquery, com-counded of con and quæro, signifies to seek or try to rain an object; vanquish, in French vaincre, Latin vinco, Greek (per metathesin) νικάω, comes from the Hebrew 733 to destroy; subdue, from the Latin subdo, signifies to give or put under; overcome, compounded of over and come, signifies to come over or get the mastery over one: surmount, in French surmonter, compounded of sur over and monter to mount, signifies to rise above any one.

Persons or things are conquered or subdued: persons only are vanquished. An enemy or a country is con-

omy are vanquested. An enemy or a country is con-quered; a fee is vanquished; people are subducd.

We conquer an enemy or a country by whatever means we gain the mastery over him or it. The idea of something gained is most predominant: 'He (Ethel-wolf) began his reign with making a partition of his dominions, and delivering over to his eldest son Athelstan, the new conquered provinces of Essex, Kent, and Sussex.'-HUME. We vanquish him, when by force Sussex.—Hume. We vanquish him, when by lotted we make him yield; 'A few troops of the vanquished, had still the courage to turn upon their pursuers.'—
Hume. We subdue him by whatever means we check in him the spirit of resistance; 'The Danes, surprised to see an army of English, whom they considered as totally subdued, and still more astonished to hear that Alfred was at their head, made but a faint resistance.' HUME. A Christian tries to conquer his enemies by kindaess and generosity; a warriour tries to vanquish them in the field; a prudent monarch tries to subdue his rebellious subjects by a due mixture of clemency and rigour.

One may be vanquished in a single battle; one is subdued only by the most violent and persevering measures. William the First conquered England by vanquishing his rival Harold; after which he completely

subdued the English.

Alexander having nanquished all the enemies that opposed him, and subdued all the nations with whom he warred, fancied that he had conquered the whole world, and is said to have wept at the idea that there

were no more worlds to conquer.

In an extended and moral application these terms are nearly allied to overcome and surmount. quered and subdued which is in the mind; that is overcome and surmounted which is either internal or external. We endude and surmount what is vio lent and strong in its opposition; dislikes, attachments, and feelings in general, either for or against, are conquered: unruly and tunultuous passions are to be subdued; a man conquers himself;

Real glory Springs from the silent conquest of ourselves. THOMSON.

He subdues his spirit or his passions; 'Socrates and Marcus Aurelius are instances of men, who, by the strength of philosophy having subdued their passions, are celebrated for good husbands.'-SPECTATOR

One conquers by ordinary means and efforts; one subdues by extraordinary means. Antipathies when cherished in early life are not easily conquered in riper years: nothing but a prevailing sense of religion, and a perpetual fear of God, can ever subdue the rebellious wills and propensities.

It requires for the most part determination and force to overcome; patience and perseverance to surmount. Prejudices and prepossessions are overcome; obstacles and difficulties are surmounted; 'Actuated by some high passion, a man conceives great designs, and surmounts all difficulties in the execution.'—BLAIR. It too frequently happens that those who are eager to overcome their prejudices, in order to dispose themselves for the reception of new opinions, fall into greater errours than those they have abandoned. Nothing truly great has ever been effected where great difficulties have not been encountered: it is the characteristick of genius to surmount every difficulty: Alexander conceived that he could overcome nature herself, and Hannibal succeeded in this very point: there were scarcely any obstacles which she opposed to him that he did not sarmount by prowess and perseverance.

Whoever aims at Christian perfection must strive with God's assistance to conquer avarice, pride, and every inordinate propensity; to subdue wrath, anger, lust, and every carnal appetite; to overcome temptations, and to surmount trials and impediments which

obstruct his course.

To conquer and overcome may sometimes be indif-ferently applied to the same objects; but the former has always a reference to the thing gained, the latter to the resistance which is opposed, hence we talk of conquering a prejudice as far as we bring it under the power of the understanding; we overcome it as far as we successfully oppose its influence: this illustration will serve to show the propriety of using these words distinctly in other cases where they cannot be used in

Equal success hath set these champions high, And both resolv'd to conquer or to die .- WALLER.

The patient mind by yielding overcomes .- PHILIPS.

To vanquish in the moral application bears the same meaning as in the proper application, signifying to overcome in a struggle or combat; thus a person may be said to be vanquished by any ruling passion may be said to be varquesnea by any runing passion which gets the better of his conscience; 'There are two parts in our nature. The interiour part is gene rally much stronger, and has always the start of reason; which, if it were not aided by religion, would almost universally be varquished.'—BERKELEY.

TO OVERBEAR, BEAR DOWN, OVERPOWER, OVERWHELM, SUBDUE.

To overbear is to bear one's self over another, that is, to make another bear one's weight;

Crowding on the last the first impel; Till overborne with weight the Cyprians fell.

To bear down is literally to bring down by bearing upon; 'The residue were so disordered as they could not conveniently fight or fly, and not only justled and bore down one another, but in their confused tumbling back, brake a part of the avant-guard.—HAYWARD. To overpower is to get the power over an object; 'After the death of Crassus, Pompey found himself outwitted by Cæsar; he broke with him, overpowered him in the senate, and caused many unjust decrees to pass against him.'-DRYDEN. To overwhelm, from whelm or wheel, signifies to turn one quite round as well as over.

What age is this, where honest men, Plac'd at the helm, A sea of some foul mouth or pen Shall overwhelm .- Jonson.

To subdue (v. To conquer) is literally to bring or put

Nothing could have subdued nature To such a lowness, but his unkind daughters. SHAKSPEARE.

A man overbears by carrying himself higher than others, and putting to silence those who might claim an equality with him; an overbearing demeanour is most conspicuous in narrow circles where an individual, from certain casual advantages, affects a superidual, from certain casual advantages, antees a superiority over the members of the same community. To bear down is an act of greater violence: one bears down opposition; it is properly the opposing force to force, until one side yields: there may be occasions in which bearing down is fully justifiable and laudable. Mr. Pitt was often compelled to bear down a factious party which threatened to overturn the government Overpower, as the term implies, belongs to the exercise of power which may be either physical or moral: one may be overpowered by another, who in a struggle gets him into his power; or one may be overpowered in an argument, when the argument of one's antagonist is such as to bring one to silence. One is overborne or borne down by the exertion of individuals; one is overpowered by the active efforts of individuals, or by the force of circumstances; one is overwhelmed by circumstances or things only: one is overborne by auother of superiour influence; one is borne down by the force of his attack; one is overpowered by numbers, by entreaties, by looks, and the like; one is over-whelmed by the torrent of words, or the impetuosity of In the moral or extended application or the attack. bear and bear down both imply force or violence, but the latter even more than the former. One passion may be said to overbear another, or to overbear reason;
The duty of fear, like that of other passions, is not to overbear reason, but to assist it.'—Johnson. ever bears down carries all before it;

Contention like a horse Full of high feeding, madly hath broken loose, And bears down all before him.—SHAKSPEARE.

Overnower and overwhelm denote a partial superiority; subdue denotes that which is permanent and positive: we may overpower or overwhelm for a time, or to a certain degree; but to subdue is to get an entire or to a certain degree; but to subdue is to get an entire and lasting superiority. Overpower and overwhelm are said of what passes between persons nearly on a level; but subdue is said of those who are, or may be, reduced to a low state of inferiority: individuals or armies are overpowered or overwhelmed; individuals or nations are subdued; we may be overpowered in one engagement, and overpower our opponent in another; we may be overwhelmed by the suddenness and impetuosity of the attack, yet we may recover ourselves so as to renew the attack; but when we are

subdued all power of resistance is gone.

To overpower, overwhelm, and subdue, are applied either to the moral feelings or to the external relations of things; but the two former are the effects of external relations. nal circumstances; the latter follows from the exercise of the reasoning powers: the tender feelings are over powered, or the senses may be overpowered; 'All colours that are more luminous (than green) overpower and dissipate the animal spirits which are employed in sight.'—Addison. The mind is overwhelmed with shame, horrour, and other painful feelings; 'How trifling an apprehension is the shame of being laughed at by fools, when compared with that everlasting shame and astonishment which shall overwhelm the sinner when he shall appear before the tribunal of Christ.'-ROGERS.

Such implements of mischief as shall dash To pieces, and overwhelm whatever stands Adverse.—MILTON.

The unruly passions are subdued by the force of religious contemplation, or the fortitude is subdued by pain;

For what avails

Valour or strength, though matchless, quell'd with pain,
Which all subdues?-MILTON.

A person may be so overpowered, on seeing a dying friend, as to be unable to speak; he may be so over-whelmed with grief, upon the death of a near and dear relative, as to be unable to attend to his ordinary avocations; the angry passions have been so completely subdued by the influence of religion on the heart, that instances have been known of the most irascible tempers being converted into the most mild and forbearing.

TO SUBJECT, SUBJUGATE, SUBDUE.

Subdue, v. To conquer.
To subject, signifying to make subject, is here the generick term: to subjugate, from jugum a yoke, signifying to bring under a yoke: and subdue, signifying as in the preceding article to bring under, are specifick terms. We may subject either individuals or nations; but we subjugate only nations. We subject ourselves to reproof, to inconvenience, or to the influence of our

Think not, young warriours, your diminish'd name Shall lose of lustre, by subjecting rage
To the cool dictates of experienced age.—Dryden.

Where there is no awe, there will be no subjection.

One nation subjugates another: subjugate and subdue are both employed with regard to nations that are compelled to submit to the conqueror: but subjugate ex presses even more than subdue, for it implies to bring into a state of permanent submission; whereas to subdue may be only a nominal and temperary subjection. Cæsar subjug ated the Gauls, for he made them subjects to the Roman empire;

O fav'rite virgin, that hast warm'd the breast Whose sov'reign dictates subjugate the east

Alexander subdued the Indian nations, who revolted after his departure;

Thy son (nor is th' appointed season far,) In Italy shall wage successful war, Till, after every foe subdu'd, the sun Thrice through the signs his annual race shall run. DRYDEN.

INVINCIBLE, UNCONQUERABLE, INSUPER-ABLE, INSURMOUNTABLE.

Invincible signifies not to be vanquished (v. To conuer) : unconquerable, not to be conquered : insuperable, not to be overcome: insurmountable, not to be surmounted. Persons or things are in the strict sense invincible which can withstand all force, but as in this sense nothing created can be termed invincible, the term is employed to express strongly whatever can the term is employed to express strongly whatever can withstand human force in general: on this ground the Spaniards termed their Armada invincible; 'The Americans believed at first, that while cherished by the parental beams of the sun, the Spaniards were invincible.'—ROBERTSON. The qualities of the mind are termed unconquerable when they are not to be gained over or brought under the control of one's own gained over or brought under the control of one's own reason, or the judgement of another: hence obstinacy is with propriety denominated unconquerable which will yield to no foreign influence; 'The mind of an ungrateful person is unconquerable by that which conquers all things else, even by love itself.'—SOUTH. The particular disposition of the mind of turn of thinking is termed insuperable, inasmuch as it baffles our resolution or wishes to have it altered: an aversion is insuperable which no reasoning or endeavour on our own part can overcome; 'To this literary word (metaphysicks) I have an insuperable aversion.'—BEATTIE. Things are denominated insurmountable, inasmuch as they baffle one's skill or efforts to get over them, or put them out of one's way: an obstacle is insurmountable which in the nature of things is irremoveable; 'It is a melancholy reflection, that while one is plagued with acquaintance at the corner of every street, real friends should be separated from each other by insurmountable bars.—Gibbon. Some people have an insuperable antipathy to certain animals; some persons are of so modest and timid a character, that the necessity of addressing strangers is with them an insuperable ob jection to using any endeavours for their own advance-

ment: the difficulties which Columbus had to encoun- 1 of ex and pono, signifies set out, set within the view or ter in his discovery of the New World, would have appeared insurmountable to any mind less determined and persevering.

SUBJECT, SUBORDINATE, INFERIOUR, SUBSERVIENT.

Subject, in Latin subjectus, participle of subjicio or sub and jacio to throw under, signifies thrown and cast under; subordinate, compounded of sub and order, signifies to be in an order that is under others; inferiour in Latin inferior, comparative of inferus low, which probably comes from infero to cast into, because we are cast into places that are low; subservient, compounded of sub and servio, signifies serving under

something else.

These terms may either express the relation of persons to persons, or of things to persons and things. Subject in the first case respects the exercise of power; subordinate is said of the station and office; inferiour either of a man's outward circumstances or of his merits and qualifications; subservient, of one's relative services to another, but mostly in a bad sense. According to the law of nature, a child should be subject to his parents; according to the law of God and man he must be subject to his prince; 'Esau was never subject to Jacob, but founded a distinct people, and government, and was himself prince over them.'—
Locke. The good order of society cannot be rightly maintained unless there be some to act in a subordinate capacity; 'Whether dark presages of the night proceed from any latent power of the soul, during her abstraction, or from any operation of subordinate spirits, has been a dispute.'—Applson. Men of inferiour talent have a part to act which, in the aggregate, is of no less importance than that which is sustained by men of the highest endowments; 'A great person gets more by obliging his inferiour than by disdaining him.' -South. Men of no principle or character will be most subservient to the base purposes of those who pay them best; 'Wicked spirits may, by their cunning, carry farther in a seeming confederacy or subserviency to the designs of a good angel.'-DRYDEN. It is the part of the prince to protect the subject, and of the subject to love and honour the prince; it is the part of the exalted to treat the subordinate with indulgence; and of the latter to show respect to those under whom they are placed; it is the part of the superiour to instruct, assist, and encourage the *inferiour*; it is the part of the latter to be willing to learn, ready to obey and prompt to execute. It is not necessary for any one to act the degrading part of being subservient to another

In the second instance subject preserves the same sense as before, particularly when it expresses the relation of things to persons; subordinate designates the degree of relative importance between things: inferiour designates every circumstance which can render things comparatively higher or lower; subservient designates the relative utility of things under certain circumstances, but seldom in the bad sense. All creatures are subject to man; 'Contemplate the world as subject to the Divine dominion.'-BLAIR. Matters of subordinate consideration ought to be entirely set out of the question, when any grand object is to be obtained; 'The idea of pain in its highest degree is much stronger than the highest degree of pleasure, and pre-serves the same superiority through all the subordinate gradations."—BURKE. Things of inferiour value must necessarily sell for an inferiour price; 'I can myself remember the time when in respect of musick our reigning taste was in many degrees inferiour to the French. —SHAFTESBURY. There is nothing so insignificant but it may be made *subservient* to some purpose; 'Though a writer may be wrong himself, he may chance to make his errours subservient to the cause of truth."—BURKE. The word subject when expressing the relation of things to things has the meaning of

liable, as in the following article.

SUBJECT, LIABLE, EXPOSED, OBNOXIOUS.

Subject is here considered as expressing the relation of things to things, in distinction from its signification in the preceding article; liable, compounded of lie and able, signifies ready to lie near or lie under; exposed, in Latin expositus, participle of expono, compounded

reach; obnozious, in Latin obnozius, compounded of ob and nozia mischief, signifies in the way of mischief.

All these terms are applied to those circumstances in human life by which we are affected independently of our own choice. Direct necessity is included in the term subject; whatever we are obliged to suffer, that we are subject to; we may apply remedies to remove the evil, but often in vain; 'The devout man aspires after some principles of more perfect felicity, which shall not be subject to change or decay.—BLAIR. Li-able conveys more the idea of casualties; we may suffer that which we are liable to, but we may also escape the evil if we are careful; 'The sinner is not only liable to that disappointment of success which so often frustrates all the designs of men, but liable to a disappointment still more cruel, of being successful and miserable at once. —BLAIR. Exposed conveys the idea of a passive state into which we may be brought, either through our own means or through the instrumentality of others; we are exposed to that which we are not in a condition to keep off from ourselves; it is frequently not in our power to guard against the evil;

On the bare earth expos'd he lies, With not a friend to close his eyes .- DRYDEN.

Obnoxious conveys the idea of a state into which we have altogether brought ourselves; we may avoid bringing ourselves into the state, but we cannot avoid the consequences which will ensue from being thus involved:

And much he blames the softness of his mind, Obnoxious to the charms of womankind .- DRYDEN.

We are subject to disease, or subject to death; this is the irrevocable law of our nature: tender people are liable to catch cold; all persons are liable to make mistakes: a person is exposed to insults who provokes the anger of a low-bred man: a minister sometimes renders himself obnoxious to the people, that is, puts

himself in the way of their animosity.

To subject and expose, as verbs, are taken in the same sense: a person subjects himself to impertinent freedoms by descending to indecent familiarities with his inferiours; 'If the vessels yield, it subjects the person to all the inconveniences of an erroneous circulation.'-ARBUTHNOT. He exposes himself to the derision of his equals by an affectation of superiority;

Who here Will envy whom the highest place exposes
Foremost to stand against the Thunderer's aim. MILTON

OBNOXIOUS, OFFENSIVE.

Obnoxious, from the intensive syllable ob and noxious, signifies exceedingly noxious and causing offence, or else liable to offence from others by reason of its noziousness; offensive signifies simply liable to give offence. Obnozious is, therefore, a much more comprehensive term than offensive; for an obnozious man both suffers from others and causes sufferings to others: an obnoxious man is one whom others seek to exclude ; an offensive man may possibly be endured; gross vices, or particularly odious qualities, make a man obnoxious; 'I must have leave to be grateful to any one nozions; I must nave leave to be graculto any any who serves me, let him be ever so obnozions to any party.—Pops. Rude manners and perverse tempers, nake men offensive; 'The understanding is often drawn by the will and the affections from fixing its contemplation on an offensive truth.'-South. is obnoxious to many, and offensive to individuals: a man of loose Jacobinical principles will be obnoxious to a society of loyalists; a child may make himself offensive to his friends.

TO HUMBLE, HUMILIATE, DEGRADE.

Humble and humiliate signify to make humble or bring low; degrade has the same signification as given under Abase.

Humble is commonly used as the act either of persons or things; a person may humble himself or he may be humbled: humiliate is employed to characterize things; a thing is humiliating or an humiliation. No man humbles himself by the acknowledgement of a fault:

Deen horrour seizes ev'ry human breast, Their pride is humbled, and their fear confess'd. DRYDEN.

It is a great humiliation for a person to be dependent It is a great numeration for a person to be dependent on another for a living when he has it in his power to obtain it for himself; 'A long habit of humiliation does not seem a very good preparative to manly and vigorous sentiments.'—BURKER. To humble is to bring down to the ground; it supposes a certain eminence, either created by the mind, or really existing in the outward circumstances: to degrade is to let down lower; it supposes steps for ascending or descending. He who is most elevated in his own esteem may be most humbled; misfortunes may humble the proudest

The mistress of the world, the seat of empire, The nurse of heroes, the delight of gods, That humbled the proud tyrants of the earth.

ADDISON.

He who is most elevated in the esteem of others, may be the most degraded; envy is ever on the alert to degrade; 'Who but a tyrant (a name expressive of degrade; 'Who but a tyrant (a name expressive of every thing which can vitiate and degrade human nature,) could think of seizing on the property of men unaccused and unheard?—BURKE. A lesson in the school of adversity is humbling to one who has known nothing but prosperity: terms of peace are humiliating; low vices are peculiarly degrading to a man of sank

HUMBLE, LOWLY, LOW.

Humble (v. Humble, modest) is here compared with the other terms as it respects both persons and things. A person is said to be humble on account of the state of his mind; he is said to be lowly and low either on account of his mind or his outward circumstances. humble person is so in his principles and in his conduct: a lowly person is so in the tone of his feelings, or in his station and walk of life; a low person is so either in his sentiments, in his actions, or in his rank and

Humility should form a part of the character, as it is opposed to arrogance and assumption; it is most consistent with the fallibility of our nature;

Sleep is a god too proud to wait in palaces, And yet so humble too as not to scorn The meanest country cottages.—Cowley.

Lowliness should form a part of our temper, as it is opposed to an aspiring and lofty mind; it is most consistent with the temper of our Saviour, who was meek and lowly of mind;

Where purple violets lurk, With all the lowly children of the shade.

THOMSON

The humble and lowly are always taken in a good sense; but the low either in a bad or an indifferent A lowly man, whether as it respects his mind or his condition, is so without any moral debasement; but a man who is low in his condition is likewise conceived to be *low* in his habits and his sentiments, which is being near akin to the vicious. The same distinction is preserved in applying these terms to in-animate or spiritual objects. An humble roof, an humble office, an humble station, are associated with the highest moral worth;

The example of the heavenly lark,
Thy fellow poet, Cowley, mark!
Above the skies let thy proud musick sound,
Thy humble nest build upon the ground.

COWLEY. A low office, a low situation, a low birth, seem to exclude the idea of worth;

To be worst, The lowest, most dejected thing of fortune Stands still in esperance. - SHAKSPEARE.

HUMBLE, MODEST, SUBMISSIVE.

Humble, in Latin humilis low, comes from humus the ground, which is the lowest position; modest, in Latin modestus, from modus a measure, signifies keeping a measure; submissive, in Latin submissus, participle of submitto, signifies put under.

These terms designate a temper of mind, the reverse of self-concert or pride. The humble is so with regard to ourselves or others: modesty is that which respects ourselves only: submissiveness that which respects others, A man is humble from a sense of his comparative inferiority to others in point of station and outward cir-cumstances; or he is humble from a sense of his imperfections, and a consciousness of not being what he ought to be; 'In God's holy house, I prostrate myself in the humblest and decentest way of genufication I can imagine.'—Hows. A man is modest in as much as he sets but little value on his qualifications acquirements and endoursets. ments, and endowments:

Of boasting more than of a tomb afraid A soldier should be modest as a maid .-

Humility is a painful sentiment; for when it respects others it is coupled with fear, when it respects our own unworthiness it is coupled with sorrow: modesty is a peaceful sentiment; it serves to keep the whole mind in due bounds.

When humility and modesty show themselves in the nitward conduct, the former bows itself down, the latter shrinks: an humble man gives freely to others from a sense of their desert: a modest man demands nothing for himself, from an unconsciousness of desert in himself; 'Sedition itself is modest in the dawn, and

himself; 'Secution itself is modest in the dawn, and only toleration may be petitioned, where nothing less than empire is designed.'—South.

Between humble and submissive there is this prominent feature of distinction, that the former marks a temper of mind, the latter a mode of action: the former is therefore often the cause of the latter, but not so always; we may be submissive because we are humble; but we may likewise be submissive from fear, from interested motives, from necessity, from duty, and the

And potent Rajahs, who themselves preside O'er realms of wide extent! But here submissive Their homage pay; alternate kings and slaves! SOMERVILLE.

And on the other hand, we may be humble without being submissive, when we are not brought into connexion with others. A man is humble in his closet when he takes a review of his sinfulness: he is submissive to a master whose displeasure he dreads.

As humility may display itself in the outward con

duct, it approaches still nearer to submissive in application: hence we say an humble air, and a submissive air; the former to denote a man's sense of his own comparative littleness, the latter to indicate his readi ness to submit to the will of another: a man therefore carries his humble air about with him to all his superiours, nay, indeed, to the world at large; but he puts on his submissive air only to the individual who has the power of controlling him. Upon the same principle, if humbly ask a person's pardon, or humbly solicit any favour, I mean to express a sense of my own unworthiness, compared with the individual addressed: when a counsellor submissively or with submission addresses a judge on the bench, it implies his willingness to submit to the decision of the bench: or if a person submissively yields to the wishes of another, it s done with an air that bespeaks his readiness to con form his actions to a prescribed rule;

She should be humble, who would please; And she must suffer, who can love.—PRIOR.

LOW, MEAN, ABJECT.

Low (v. Humble) is a much stronger term than mean; for what is low stands more directly opposed to what is high, but what is mean is intermediate: mean, in German gemein, &c. comes from the Latin commu-nis common. The low is applied only to a certain number or description; but mean, like common, is ap-plicable to the great bulk of mankind. A man of low extraction falls below the ordinary level; he is opposed to a nobleman;

Had I been born a servant, my low life Had steady stood from all these miseries.

RANDOLPH.

A man of mean birth does not rise above the ordinary level; he is upon a level with the majority;

10*

For t is the mind that makes the body rich; And as the sun breaks through the darkest clouds, So honour 'peareth in the meanest habit.

SHAKSPEARI

When employed to designate character, they preserve the same distinction; the *low* is that which is positively sunk in itself;

Yet sometimes nations will decline so low From virtue.—Milton.

But the mean is that which is comparatively low in regard to the outward circumstances and relative condition of the individual. Swearing and drunkenness are low vices; boxing, cudgelling, and wrestling, are low games; a misplaced economy in people of property is mean; a condescension to those who are beneath us, for our own petty advantages, is meanness; 'We fast not to please men, nor to promote any mean, worldly interest.'—SMARTIGE. A man is commonly low by birth, education, or habits; but meanness is a defect of nature which sinks a person in spite of every external

advantage.

The low and mean are qualities whether of the condition or the character; but abject is a peculiar state into which a man is thrown; a man is in the course of things low; he is voluntarily mean and involuntarily abject; the word abject, from the Latin abjicio to cast down, signifying literally brought very low. Lowness discovers itself in one's actions and sentiments; the mean and abject in one's spirit; the latter being much more powerful and oppressive than the former: the mean man stoops in order to get: the abject man crawls in order to submit : the lowest man will sometimes have a consciousness of what is due to himself; he will even rise above his condition; the mean man sacrifices his dignity to his convenience; he is always below himself; the abject man altogether forgets that he has any dignity; he is kept down by the pressure of adverse circumstances. The condition of a servant is low; his mangenders. The condition of a servant is tow; his manners, his words, and his habits, will be low; but by good conduct he may elevate himself in his sphere of life: a nobleman is in station the reverse of low; but if he will stoop to the artifices practised by the vulgar in order to carry a point, we denominate it mean, if it be but trifling; otherwise it deserves a stronger epithet. The slave is, in every sense of the word abject; as he is bereft of that quality which sets man above the brute, so, in his actions, he evinces no higher impulse than what guides brutes: whether a man be a slave to another's will or to any passion, such as fear or super-cition, he is equally said to be abject; 'There needs no more be said to extol the excellence and power of his (Waller's) wit, than that it was of magnitude enough to cover a world of very great faults, that is, a narrow-ness in his nature to the lowest degree, an abjectness and want of courage, an insinuating and servile flattering,' &c .- CLARENDON.

TO REDUCE, LOWER.

Reduce is to bring down, and lower to make low or lower, which proves the close connexion of these words in their original meaning; it is, however, only in their improper application that they have any further connexion. Reduce is used in the sense of lessen, when applied to number, quantity, price, &c.: lower is used in the same sense when applied to price, demands, terms, &c.: the former, however, occurs in cases where circumstances as well as persons are concerned; the latter only in cases where persons act: the price of corn is reduced by means of importation; a person lowers his price or his demand, when he finds them too high. As a moral quality, the former is much stronger than the latter: a man is said to be reduced to an abject condition; but to be lowered in the estimation of others, to be reduced to a state of slavery, to be lowered in his own eyes; 'The regular metres then in use may be reduced, I think, to lour.'—Tyrkwhitt. 'It would be a matter of astonishment to me, that any critic should be found proof against the beauties of Agamemnon so as to lower its author to a comparison with Sophocles or Euripides.'—Cumberland.

BASE, VILE, MEAN.

Base, in French bas low, from the Latin basis the foundation or lowest part, is the most directly opposed

to the elevated; vile, in French vil, Latin vilis, Greek φαλλος, worthless, of no account, is literally opposed to the worthy; mean and middle, from the Latin medius, signify moderate, not elevated, of little value.

Base is a stronger term than vile, and vile than mean. Base marks a high degree of moral turpitude; vile and mean denote in different degrees the want of all value or esteem. What is base excites our abbor rence, what is vile provokes disgust, what is mean awakens contempt. Base is opposed to magnanimous vile to noble; mean to generous. Ingratitude is base, it does violence to the best affections of our nature-flattery is vile; it violates truth in the grossest manner for the lowest purposes of gain; compliances are mean which are derogatory to the rank or dignity of the individual.

The base character violates the strongest moral obligations; the vile character blends low and despicable arts with his vices; the mean character acts inconsistently with his honour or respectability. Depravity of mind dictates base conduct; lowness of sentiment or disposition leads to vileness; a selfish temper engenders meanness. The schoolmaster of Faleri was guilty of the basest treachery in surrendering his helpless charge to the enemy; the Roman general, therefore, with true nobleness of mind treated him as a vile malefactor: sycophants are in the habits of practising every mean artifice to obtain favour.

thateractor: sycophants are in the habits of practising every mean artifice to obtain favour.

The more elevated a person's rank, the greater is his baseness who abuses his influence to the injury of

those who repose confidence in him ;

Scorns the base earth and crowd below, And with a soaring wing still mounts on high. Creech.

The lower the rank of the individual, and the more atrocious his conduct, the viler is his character;

That all the petty kings him envy'd, And worshipp'd be like him and deify'd, Of courtly sycophants and caitiffs vile. GLEBERT WEST

The more respectable the station of the person, and the more extended his wealth, the greater is his meanness when he descends to practices fitted only for his inferiours; 'There is hardly a spirit upon earth so mean and contracted as to centre all regards on its own interest exclusive of the rest of mankind.'—BERKELEY.

MODEST, BASHFUL, DIFFIDENT.

Modest, in Latin modestus, from modus a measure, signifies setting a measure, and in this case setting a measure to one's estimate of one's self; bashful signifies ready to be abashed; diffident, from the Latin diffido or dis privative, and fido to trust, signifies literally not trusting, and in this case not trusting to one's self.

Modesty is a habit or principle of the mind; bashfulness is a state of feeling: modesty is at all times becoming; bashfulness is only becoming in females, or very young persons, in the presence of their superiours: modesty discovers itself in the absence of every thing assuming, whether in look, word, or action;

Her face, as in a nymph display'd
A fair fierce boy, or in a boy betray'd
The blushing beauties of a modest maid.

DRYDE:

Bashfulness betrays itself by a downcast look, and a timid air: a modest deportment is always commendable; a bashful temper is not desirable; 'Mere bashful-ness, without merit, is awkwardness.'—Additional Mackety does not necessarily discover itself by any external mark; but bashfulness always shows itself in the manner; 'A man truly modest is as much so when he is alone as in company.'—Burgell.

Modesty is a proper distrust of ourselves; diffidence is a culpable distrust. Modesty, though opposed to assurance, is not incompatible with a confidence in ourselves; diffidence altogether unmans a person, and disqualifies him for his duty: a person is generally modest in the display of his talents to others; but a difident man cannot turn his talents to their proper use: 'Diffidence and presumption both arise from the want of knowing, or rather endeavouring to know, ourselves

-STEELE.

PASSIVE, SUBMISSIVE.

Passive, in Latin passivus from patior, and the Greek $\pi dox \omega$ to suffer, signifying disposed to suffer, is mostly taken in the bad sense of suffering indignity from another; submissive (v. Humble) is mostly taken in a good sense for submitting to another, or suffering one's self to be directed by another; to be passive therefore is to be submissive to an improper degree.

When men attempt unjustly to enforce obedience from a nere love of rule, it betrays a want of proper spirit to be passive, or to submit quietly to the imposition; 'I know that we are supposed (by the French revolutionists) a dull, sluggish race, rendered passive by finding our situation tolerable.'—Burke. When men lawfully enforce obedience, it is none but the unruly and self-willed who will not be submissive;

He in delight

Both of her beauty and submissive charms, Smil'd with superiour love.—MILTON.

PATIENCE, RESIGNATION, ENDURANCE.

Patience applies to any troubles or pains whatever, small or great; resignation is employed only for those of great moment, in which our dearest interests are concerned: patience when compared with resignation is somewhat negative; it consists in the abstaining from all complaint or indication of what one suffers but resignation consists in a positive sentiment of conformity to the existing circumstances, be they what There are perpetual occurrences which are they may. apt to harass the temper, unless one regards them with patience; 'Though the duty of patience and subjection, where men suffer wrongfully, might possibly be of some force in those times of darkness; yet modern Christianity teaches that then only men are bound to suffer when they are not able to resist.'—South. The misfortunes of some men are of so calamitous a nature. that if they have not acquired the resignation of Chris-tians, they must inevitably sink under them; 'My mo-ther is in that dispirited state of resignation which is the effect of a long life, and the loss of what is dear to us.'-POPE.

Patience applies only to the evils that actually hang over us; but there is a resignation connected with a firm trust in Providence which extends its views to futurity, and prepares us for the worst that may happen.

As patience lies in the manner and temper of suffering, and endurance in the act: we may have endurance and not patience: for we may have much to endure and consequently endurance; but if we do not endure it with an easy mind and without the disturbance of our looks and words, we have not patience; on the other hand we may have patience but not endurance; for our patience may be exercised by momentary trifles, which are not sufficiently great or lasting to constitute endurance;

There was never yet philosopher That could endure the tooth-ache patiently, Shakspeare.

PATIENT, PASSIVE.

Patient comes from patiens, the active participle of patior to suffer; passive comes from the passive participle of the same verb; hence the difference between the words: patient signifies suffering from an active principle, a determination to suffer; passive signifies suffered or acted upon for want of power to prevent. The former, therefore, is always taken in an indifferent or good sense; the latter in an indifferent or bad sense. When physically applied patient denotes the act of receiving impressions from external agents; 'Wheat, which is the best sort of grain, of which the purest bread is made, is patient of heat and cold.'—RAY. Passive implies the state of being acted upon by external agents;

High above the ground Their march was, and the passive air upbore Their nimble tread.—MILTON.

In the moral application the distinction is the same; but patience is always a virtue, as it signifies the suffering quietly that which cannot be remedied; as there are many such evils incident to our condition, it has been made one of the first Christian duties: passiveness is considered as a weakness, if not a vice; it is the enduring that from others which we ought not to endure

TO SUFFER, BEAR, ENDURE, SUPPORT.

Suffer, in Latin suffero, compounded of sub and fero, signifies hearing up or firm underneath; bear in Saxon baran, old German beran, Latin pario, and Hebrew R73 to create; endure, in Latin induro, signifies to harden or be hardened; support, from the Latin sub and porto, signifies to carry up or to carry from underneath ourselves, or to carry the weight.

To suffer is a passive and involuntary act; it denotes simply the being a receiver of evil; it is therefore the condition of our being: to bear is positive and voluntary; it denotes the manner in which we receive the evil. 'Man,' says the Psalmist,' is born to suffering as the sparks fly upwards;' hence the necessity for us to learn to bear all the numerous and diversified evils to which we are obnoxious; 'Let a man be brought into some such severe and trying situation as fixes the attention of the public ko un his behaviour. The first question which we put concerning him is not, what does he suffer? but how does he bear it? If we judge him to be composed and firm, resigned to providence, and supported by conscious integrity, his character rises, and his miseries lessen in our view.'—BLAIR.

and ms miseries lessen in our view.—Blair.

To bear is a single act of the resolution, and relates only to common ills; we bear disappointments and crosses: to endure is a continued and powerful act of the mind; we endure severe and lasting pains both of body and mind; we endure hunger and cold; we endure provocations and aggravations; it is a making of ourselves, by our own act, insensible to external evils; 'How miserable his state who is condemmed to endure at once the pangs of guilt and the vexations of calamity.'—Blair. The first object of education should be to accustom children to bear contradictions and crosses, that they may afterward be enabled to endure every

trial and misery.

To bear and endure signify to receive becomingly the weight of what befalls ourselves: to support signifies to bear either our own or another's evils; for we may either support ourselves, or be supported by others: but in this latter case we bear from the capacity which is within ourselves: but we support our-selves by foreign aid, that is, by the consolations of religion, the participation and condolence of friends, and the like. As the body may be early and gradually trained to bear cold, hunger, and pain, until it is enabled to endure even excruciating agonies: so may the mind be brought, from bearing the roughnesses of others' tempers with equanimity, or the unpleasantnesses which daily occur with patience, to endure the utmost scorn and provocation which human malice can invent: bus and provocation which numan mance can invent, our whatever a person may bear or endure of personal inconvenience, there are sufferings arising from the wounded affections of the heart which by no efforts of our own we shall be enabled to support; in such moments we feel the unspeakable value of religion, which puts us in possession of the means of supporting every sublunary pain;

With inward consolations recompens'd And oft supported.—MILTON.

The words suffer and endure are said only of persons and personal matters; to bear and support are said also of things, signifying to receive a weight: in this case they differ principally in the degree of weight received. To bear is said of any weight, large or small, and either of the whole or any part of the weight; support is said of a great weight and the whole weight. The beams or the foundation bear the weight of a house; but the pillars upon which it is raised, or against which it leans, support the weight.

OBEDIENT, SUBMISSIVE, OBSEQUIOUS.

Obedient signifies ready to obey, and submissive the disposition to submit; obsequious, in Latin obsequious, from obsequor, or the intensive ob and sequor to follow, signifies following diligently, or with intensity of mind.

One is obedient to the command, submissive to the power or the will, obsequious to the person. Obedience is always taken in a good sense: one ought always to be obedience is due: submission is relatively good; it may, however, be indifferent or bad,

one may be submissive from interested motives, or | meanness of spirit, which is a base kind of submission; but to be submissive for conscience sake is the bounden duty of a Christian: obsequiousness is never good; it is an excessive concern about the will of another,

which has always interest for its end.

Obedience is a course of conduct conformable either to some specifick rule, or the express will of another; submission is often a personal act, immediately directed to the individual. We show our obedience to the law by avoiding the breach of it; we show our obedience to by avoiding the breach of the wild by making that will the rule of our life; 'The obedience of men is to imitate the obedience of angels, and rational beings on earth are to live unto God as rational beings in heaven live unto him.'—Law. On the other hand we show submission to the person of the magistrate; we adopt a submissive deportment by a downcast look and bent body :

Her at his feet, submissive in distress, He thus with peaceful words uprais'd.—Milton.

Obedience is founded upon principle, and cannot be feigned:

> In vain thou bidst me to forbear, Obedience were rebellion here .- COWLEY.

Submission is a partial bending to another, which is easily affected in our outward behaviour;

In all submission and humility,

York doth present himself unto your highness. SHAKSPEARE.

The understanding and the heart produce the obedience; but force, or the necessity of circumstances, se to the submission.

Obedience and submission suppose a restraint on one's own will, in order to bring it into accordance with that of another; but obsequiousness is the consulting the will or pleasure of another: we are obedient from a sense of right:

What gen'rous Greek, obedient to thy word, Shall form an ambush, or shall lift the sword.

We are submissive from a sense of necessity; 'The natives (of Britain) disarmed, dispirited, and submissive, had lost all desire, and even idea, of their former liberty: "Hume. We are obsequious from a desire of gaining favour; 'Adore not so the rising son, that you forget the father, who raised you to this height; nor be you so obsequious to the father, that you give just cause to the son to suspect that you neglect him.'-Bacon. A love of God is followed by obedience to his will; they are coincident sentiments that reciprocally act on each other, so as to serve the cause of virtue: a submissive conduct is at the worst an involuntary sacrifice of our independence to our fears or necessities, the evil of which is confined principally to the individual who makes the sacrifice; but obsequiousness is a voluntary sacrifice of all that is noble in man to base gain, the evil of which extends far and wide: the submissive man, however mean he may be in himself, does not contribute to the vices of others: but the obsequious man has no scope for his paltry talent, but among the weak and wicked, whose weakness he profits by, and whose wickedness he encourages.

DUTIFUL, OBEDIENT, RESPECTFUL.

Dutiful signifies full of a sense of duty, or full of what belongs to duty; obedient, ready to obey; respectful, full of respect

The obedient and respectful are but modes of the dutiful: we may be dutiful without being either obedient or respectful; but we are so far duti, ul as we are either obedient or respectful. Duty denotes what is due from one being to another; it is independent of all circumstances: obedience and respect are relative duties depending upon the character and station of individuals: as we owe to no one on earth so much as to our parents, we are said to be dutiful to no earthly being besides; and in order to deserve the name of dutiful, a child during the period of his childhood, ought to make a parent's will to be his law, and at no future period ought that will ever to be an object of indifference; For one cruel parent we meet with a thousand undutiful children. —Appison. We may be obedient and ught that will ever to be an object of indifference;

respectful to others besides our parents, although to them obedience and respect are in the highest degree and in the first case due; yet servants are enjoined to be obedient to their masters, wives to their husbands, and subjects to their king; 'The obedience of children to their parents is the basis of all government, and set forth as the measure of that obedience which we owe to those whom Providence has placed over us.'—Addison.

Respectful is a term of still greater latitude than either, for as the characters of men as much as their stations demand respect, there is a respectful deportment due towards every superiour; 'Let your behaviour towards your superiours indignity, age, learning, or any distinguished excellence, be full of respect and defe-

rence.'-CHATHAM.

DUTY, OBLIGATION.

Duty, as we see in the preceding section, consists altogether of what is right or due from one being to another; obligation, from the Latin obligo to bind, signities the bond or necessity which lies in the thing

All duty depends upon moral obligation which sub-sists between man and man, or between man and his Maker; in this abstract sense, therefore, there can be no duty without a previous obligation, and where there is an obligation it involves a duty; but in the vulgar acceptation, duty is applicable to the conduct of men in their various relations; obligation only to particular circumstances or modes of action: we have duties to perform as parents and children, as husbands and wives, as rulers and subjects, as neighbours and citi-

The ways of Heav'n, judg'd by a private breast, Is often what's our private interest,

And therefore those who would that will obey Without their interest must their duty weigh

DRVDEN.

The debtor is under an obligation to discharge debt; and he who has promised is under an obligation to fulfil his promise: a conscientious man, therefore, never loses sight of the obligations which he has at different times to discharge; 'No man can be under an ferent times to discharge; 'No man can be under an obligation to believe any thing, who hath not sufficient means whereby he may be assured that such a thing is true.'-TILLOTSON.

The duty is not so peremptory as the obligation; the obligation is not so lasting as the duty, our affections impel us to the discharge of duty; interest or necessity impels us to the discharge of an obligation: it may therefore osmetimes happen that the man whom a sense of duty cannot actuate to do that which is right, will not be able to withstand the obligation under which he has laid himself.

TO COMPLY, CONFORM, YIELD, SUBMIT.

The original meaning of comply and yield will be explained under the head of Accede; conform, compounded of con and form, signifies to put into the same form; submit, in Latin submitto, compounded of sub and mitto, signifies to put under, that is to say, to put one's self under another person.

Compliance and conformity are voluntary; yielding and submission are involuntary.

Compliance is an act of the inclination; conformity an act of the judgement: compliance is altogether op-tional; we comply with a thing or not at pleasure: conformity is binding on the conscience; it relates to matters in which there is a right and a wrong. Compliance with the fashions and customs of those we live with is a natural propensity of the human mind that may be mostly indulged without impropriety; 'I would not be thought in any part of this relation to reflect upon Signor Nicolini, who in acting this part only complies with the wretched taste of his audience.'-ADDISON. Conformity in religious matters, though not to be enforced by human authority, is not on that account less binding on the consciences of every member in the community; the neglect of this duty on trivial grounds involves in it the violation of more than one branch of the moral law; 'Being of a lay profession, I humbly conform to the constitutions of the church and my spiritual superiours, and I hold this obethence to be an acceptable sacrifice to God.'—Howel. Compliances eptable sacrifice to God.'-Howel. Compliances exteriour, is always a duty; 'The actions to which the world solicits our compliance are sins which forfeit

eternal expectations.

Compliance and conformity are produced by no ex-ternal action on the mind; they flow spontaneously from the will and understanding; yielding is altogether the result of foreign agency. We comply with a wish as soon as it is known; it accords with our feelings so to do, we yield to the entreaties of others; it is the ect of persuasion, a constraint upon the inclination. We conform to the regulations of a community, it is a matter of discretion; we yield to the superiour judgement or power of another, we have no choice or alternative. We comply cheerfully; we conform willingly; we yield reluctantly.

To yield is to give way to another, either with one's will, one's judgement, or one's outward conduct: sub-mission is the giving up of one's self altogether; it is the substitution of another's will for one's own. is partial; we may yield in one case or in one action, though not in another: submission is general; it in-

cludes a system of conduct.

We yield when we do not resist; this may sometimes be the act of a superiour: we submit only by adopting the measures and conduct proposed to us; this is always the measures and conduct proposed to us; has a streage the act of an inferiour. Yielding may be produced by means more or less gentle, by enticing or insinuating arts, or by the force of argument; submission is made only to power or positive force: one yields after a struggle; one submits without resistance: we yield to ourselves or others; we submit to others only: weakness to yield either to the suggestions of others or our own inclinations to do that which our judgements condenm; it is a folly to *submit* to the caprice of any one where there is not a moral obligation: it is obstinacy not to yield when one's adversary has the advantage; it is sinful not to submit to constituted authorities; There has been a long dispute for precedency between the tragick and the heroick poets. Aristotle would have the latter yield the past to the former, but Mr. Dryden and many others would never submit to this decision. -Applson

A cheerful compliance with the request of a friend is the sincerest proof of friendship;

Let the king meet compliance in your looks, A free and ready yielding to his wishes .- Rowe

The wisest and most learned of men have ever been the readiest to conform to the general sense of the com-munity in which they live;

Among mankind so few there are

Who will conform to philosophick fare. - DRYDEN.

The harmony of social life is frequently disturbed by the reluctance which men have to yield to each other; 'That yieldingness, whatever foundations it might lay to the disadvantage of posterity, was a specifick to preserve us in peace for his own time."—LORD HALFAX. The order of civil society is frequently destroyed by the want of proper submission to superiours; 'Christian people submit themselves to conformable observances of the lawful and religious constitutions of their spiritual rulers.'-WHITE.

COMPLAINT, YIELDING, SUBMISSIVE.

As epithets from the preceding verbs, serve to designate a propensity to the respective actions mostly in an excessive or improper degree

A compliant temper complies with every wish of another good or bad,

Be silent and complying; you'll soon find Sir John without a medicine will be kind.

A yielding temper leans to every opinion right or wrong; 'A peaceable temper supposes yielding and condescending manners.'—BLAIR. A submissive temper submits to every demand, just or unjust; 'When force and violence and hard necessity have brought the yoke of servitude upon a people's neck, religion will supply them with a patient and submissive spirit.'— FLEETWOOD.

A compliant person wants command of feeling; a yielding person wants fixedness of principle; a submissive person wants resolution: a compliant disposition will be imposed upon by the selfish and unreaconable; a yielding disposition is most unfit for commanding; a submissive disposition exposes a person to the exactions of tyranny.

TO ACCEDE. CONSENT, COMPLY, ACQUIESCE, AGREE.

Accede, in Latin accedo, compounded of ac or ad and cedo togo or come, signifies to come or fall into a thing; consent, in French consentir, Latin consentio, compounded of con together and sentio to feel, signifies compounded of con together and sense to feel, signifies to feel in unison with another; comply comes probably from the French complaine, Latin complacee, signifying to be pleased in unison with another; acquiesce, in French acquiescer, Latin acquiesce, compounded of ac or ad and quiesco, signifies to be easy about or contented with a thing; agree, in French agreer, is most probably derived from the Latin grue, in the word converse, signifying to accord or said. word congruo, signifying to accord or suit

We accede to what others propose to us by falling in with their ideas: we consent* to what others wish by authorizing it: we compty with who; is asked of us by allowing it, or not hindering the we acquiesce in what is insisted by accepting it, and conforming to it: we agree to what is proposed by admitting and em

bracing it.

We object to those things to which we do not accede: we refuse those things to which we do not consent, or with which we will not comply: we oppose those things in which we will not acquiesce: we dispute that

to which we will not agree.

To accede is the unconstrained action of an equal; it is a matter of discretion: consent and comply suppose a degree of superiority, at least the power of preventing; they are acts of good nature or civility; acquiesce implies a degree of submission, it is a matter of prudence or necessity: agree indicates an aversion to disputes; it respects the harmony of social intercourse.

disputes; it respects the narmony of social intercourse. Members of any community ought to be willing to accede to what is the general will of their associates, 'At last persuasion, menaces, and the impending pressure of necessity, conquered her virtue, and she acceded to the fraud.'—Cumberland. Parents should never be induced to consent to any thing which may recognitions to this children. prove injurious to their children;

My poverty, but not my will consents .- SHAKSPEARE People ought not to comply indiscriminately with what is requested of them; 'Inclination will at length come over to reason, though we can never force reason to comply with inclination.'—Addiscriments. In all matters of difference it is a happy circumstance when the parties will acquiesce in the judgement of an umpire: 'This we ought to acquiesce in the Bovereign Being, the great Author of Nature, has in him all possible perfection.'—Addison-Differences will soon be terminated when there is a willingness to agree; 'We agreed to adopt the infant as the orphan son of a distant relation of our own name.'-CUMBERLAND.

TO AGREE, COINCIDE, CONCUR.

In the former section agree is compared with terms that are employed only for things; in the present case it is compared with words as they are applied to persons only.

Agree implies a general sameness; coincide, from co together and the Latin incide to fall, implies a meeting in a certain point; concur, from con together, and curro to run, implies a running in the same course, an acting together on the same principles.

Agree denotes a state of rest; coincide and concur a state of motion, either towards or with another.

Agreement is either the voluntary or involuntary act Agreement is either the voluntary or involuntary act of persons in general; coincidence is the voluntary but casual act of individuals, the act of one falling into the opinion of another; concurrence is the intentional positive act of individuals, it is the act of one authorizing the opinions and measures of another.

Men of like education and temperament agree upon most subjects;

Since all agree, who both with judgement read, "T is the same sun, and does himself succeed.

TATE.

People cannot expect others to coincide with them,

* Vide Abbe Girard: "Consentir, acquiescer, adherer, tomber d'acord

not perhaps any couple whose dispositions and relish of life are so perfectly similar as that their wills constantly coincide. HANKESWORTH. The wiser part of mankind are backward in concurring in any schemes which are not warranted by experience; 'The plan being thus concerted, and my cousin's concurrence obtained, it was immediately put in execution. -- HAWKESWORTH.

When coincide and concur are considered in their application to things, the former implies simply meeting at a point, the latter running towards a point; the former seems to exclude the idea of design, the latter that of chance two sides of different triangles coincide when they are applied to each other so as to fall on the same points; two powers concur when they both act so as to produce the same result.

A coincidence of circumstances is sometimes so striking and singular that it can bardly be attributed to pure accident; 'A coincidence of sentiment may easily happen without any communication, since there are many occasions in which all reasonable men will nearly think alike.'—Jounson. A concurrence of circumstances, which seemed all to be formed to combine, is sometimes notwithstanding purely casual; 'Eminence of station, greatness of effect, and all the favours of fortune, must concur to place excellence in publick view.'-Johnson.

AGREEMENT, CONTRACT, COVENANT, COMPACT, BARGAIN.

Agreement signifies what is agreed to (v. To agree); Agreement signifies what is agreed to (v. To agree); contract, in French contract, from the Latin contractus, participle of contraho to bring close together or bind, signifies the thing thus contracted or bound; conemant, in French covenante, Latin conventus, participle of convenio to meet together at a point, signifies the point at which several meet, that is, the thing agreed upon by many; compact, in Latin compactus, participle of compingo to bind close, signifies the thing to which several themselves close bargain from to which people bind themselves close; bargain, from the Welsh bargan to contract or deal for, signifies the

act of dealing, or the thing dealt for.

An agreement is general, and applies to transactions An agreement is general, and applies to transactions of every description, but particularly such as are made between single individuals; in cases where the other terms are not so applicable; a contract is a binding agreement between individuals; a simple agreement be verbal, but a contract must be written and legally executed: covenant and compact are agreements among communities; the covenant is commonly a national and publick transaction; the compact respects individuals as members of a community, or communities with each other: the bargain, in its proper sense, is an agreement solely in matters of trade; but applies figuratively in the same sense to

The simple consent of parties constitutes an agreement; a seal and signature are requisite for a con-tract; a solemn engagement on the one hand, and faith in that engagement on the other hand, enter into the nature of a covenant; a tacit sense of mutual obligation in all the parties gives virtue to a compact; an assent to stipulated terms of sale may form a

bargain.

Friends make an agreement to meet at a certain time; 'Frog had given his word that he would meet the above-mentioned company at the Salutation, to talk of this agreement.'—ARBUTHNOT (History of John Bull). Two tradesmen enter into a contract to John Bull). carry on a joint trade; 'It is impossible to see the long scrolls in which every contract is included, with all their appendages of seals and attestations, without wondering at the depravity of those beings, who must be restrained from violation of promise, by such formal and publick evidences. —JOHNSON. The people of England made a covenant with King Charles I. entitled the solemn covenant :

These flashes of blue lightning gave the sign Of covenants broke; three peals of thunder join. DRYDEN.

In the society of Freemasons, every individual is bound to secrecy by a solemn compact; 'In the begin bound to secreey by a solemn compact; 'In the begin-nings and first establishment of speech, there was an implicit compact among men, founded upon common

when they advance extravagant positions; 'There is | use and consent, that such and such words or voices, use and consent, that such and such words or voices, actions or gestures, should be means or signs whereby they would express or convey their thoughts one to another.'—South. The trading part of the community are continually striking bargains; 'We see men frequently dexterous and sharp enough in making a bargain, who, if you reason with them about matters of religion, appear perfectly stupid.'-LOCKE.

AGREEABLE, PLEASANT, PLEASING.

The first two of these epithets approach so near in sense and application, that they can with propriety be used indifferently, the one for the other; yet there is an occasional difference which may be clearly defined; the agreeable is that which agrees with or suits the character, temper, and feelings of a person: the pleasant that which pleases; the pleasing that which is adapted to please.

adapted to please.

Agreeable expresses a feeling less vivid than pleasant: people of the soberest and gravest character may talk of passing agreeable hours, or enjoying agreeable society, if those hours were passed agreeably to their turn of mind, or that society which suited Shakspeare, where I chanced to cast my eye upon a part in the tragedy of Richard the Third, which filled iny mind with an agreeable horrour.'-STEELE. The young and the gay will prefer pleasant society, where vivacity and mirth prevail, suitable to the tone of their

Pleasant the sun

When first on this delightful land he spreads His orient beams .- MILTON.

A man is agreeable who by a soft and easy address contributes to the amusement of others; a man is pleasant who to this softness adds affability and communicativeness.

Pleasing marks a sentiment less vivid and distinctive

Nor this alone t' indulge a vain delight, And make a pleasing prospect for the sight.

A pleasing voice has something in it which we like an agreeable voice strikes with positive pleasure upon the ear. A pleasing countenance denotes tranquillity and contentment; it satisfies us when we view it. a pleasant countenance bespeaks happiness; it gratifies the beholder, and invites him to behold.

TO AGREE, ACCORD, SUIT.

Agree (v. To agree) is here used in application to things in which it is allied; to accord, in French accorder, from the Latin chorda the string of a harp, signifies the same as to attune or join in tune; and suit, from the Latin secutus, participle of sequent to follow, signifies to be in a line, in the order as it ought to be.

An agreement between two things requires an entire sameness; an accordance supposes a considerable resemblance; a suitableness implies an aptitude to

coalesce

Opinions agree, feelings accord, and tempers suit.

Two statements agree which are in all respects alike: that accords with our feelings, which produces pleasurable sensations; that suits our taste, which we wish to adopt, or in adopting gives us pleasure.

Where there is no agreement in the essentials of any two accounts, their authenticity may be greatly questioned: if a representation of any thing accords with what has been stated from other quarters, it serves to corroborate: it is advisable that the ages and stations as well as tempers of the parties should be suitable, who look forward for happiness in a matrimonial connexion.

Where there is no agreement of opinion, there can be no assimilation of habit; where there is no accordance of sound, there can be no harmony; where there is no suitability of temper, there can be no co-operations.

ration.

When opinions do not agree, men must agree to differ: the precepts of our Saviour accord with the tenderest as well as the noblest feelings of our nature: when the humours and dispositions of people do not each other

The laurel and the myrtle sweets agree .- DRYDEN.

"Metre aids and is adapted to the memory; it accords to musick, and is the vehicle of enthusiasm."—CUMBERck, and is the vehicle of enthusiasm.'-Cumber-'Rollo followed, in the partition of his states, the customs of the feudal law, which was then universally established in the southern countries of Europe, and which suited the peculiar circumstances of the age.'-HUME.

CONSONANT, ACCORDANT, CONSISTENT.

Consonant, from the Latin consonans, participle of con and sono to sound together, signifies to sound, or be, in unison or harmony; accordant, from accord (v. To Agree, signifies the quality of according; con-sistent, from the Latin consistens, participle of con-sisto, or con and sisto to place together, signifies the quality of being able to stand in unison together.

Consonant is employed in matters of representation; accordant in matters of opinion or sentiment; consistent in matters of conduct. A particular passage is consonant with the whole tenour of the Scriptures; a particular account is accordant with all one hears and sees on a subject; a person's conduct is not always

consistent with his station.

The consonance of the whole Scriptures, in the Old and New Testaments, with regard to the character, dignity, and mission of our Blessed Saviour, has justly given birth to that form which constitutes the established religion of England; 'Our faith in the discoveries of the Gospe will receive confirmation from discerning their consonance with the natural sentiments of the human heart."—BLAIR. The accordance of the prophecies, respecting our Saviour with the event of his birth, life, and sufferings, are incontestable evidences of his being the true Messiah; 'The difference of good and evil in actions is not founded on arbitrary opinions or institutions, but in the nature of things, and the nature of man; it accords with the universal sense of the human mind.—BLAIR. The consistency of a man's practice with his profession is the only criterion of his sincerity;

Keep one consistent plan from end to end .- Addison-

Consonant is opposed to dissonant; accordant to discordant; consistent to inconsistent. Consonance is not so positive a thing as either accordance or con-sistency, which respect real events, circumstances, and actions. Consonance mostly serves to prove the truth of any thing, but dissonance does not prove its falsehood until it amounts to direct discordance or in-There is a dissonance in the accounts consistency. There is a dissonance in the accounts given by the four Evangelists of our Saviour, which serves to prove the absence of all collusion and imposture, since there is neither discordance nor inconsistency in what they have related or omitted.

TO CONCILIATE, RECONCILE.

Conciliate, in Latin conciliatus, participle of concilio; and reconcile, in Latin reconcilio, both come from concilium a council, denoting unity and harmony. Conciliate and reconcile are both employed in the sense of uniting men's affections, but under different circumstance

The conciliator gets the good will and affections for himself; the reconciler unites the affections of two persons to each other. The conciliator may either gain new affections, or regain those which are lost; the reconciler always renews affections which have been once lost. The best means of conciliating esteem

is by reconciling all that are at variance.

Conciliate is mostly employed for men in publick stations; 'The preacher may enforce his doctrines in the style of authority, for it is his profession to summon mankind to their dury; but an uncommissioned in-structer will study to conciliate while he attempts to correct'-Cumberland. Reconcde is indifferently employed for those in publick or private stations; 'He Hammond) not only attained his purpose of uniting distant parties to each other, but, contrary to the usual fate of reconcilers, gained them to himself.'—Fell. Men in power have sometimes the happy opportunity of conciliating the good will of those who are most

suit, they do wisely not to have any intercourse with | averse to their authority, and thus reconciling them to measures which would otherwise be odious.

Kindness and condescension serve to conciliate; a

friendly influence, or a well-timed exercise of authority, is often successfully exerted in reconciling. Conciliate is employed only for persons, or that which is personal; but reconciling is also employed in the sense of bringing a person's thoughts or feelings in unison with the things that he has not liked before, or might be expected not to like: 'It must be confessed a happy attachment, which can reconcile the Laplander to his freezing snows, and the African to his scorching sun.' CUMBERLAND.

COMPATIBLE, CONSISTENT.

Compatible, compounded of com or cum with, and patior to suffer, signifies a fitness to be suffered together; consistent, in Latin consistens, participle of consisto, compounded of con and sisto, to place, signifies the

fitness to be placed together.

Compatibility has a principal reference to plans and measures; consistency to character, conduct, and sta-tion. Every thing is compatible with a plan which does not interrupt its prosecution; every thing is consistent with a person's station by which it is neither degraded nor elevated. It is not compatible with the good discipline of a school to allow of foreign interference; 'Whatever is incompatible with the highest dignity of our nature should indeed be excluded from our conversation.'-HAWKESWORTH. It is not consistent with the elevated and dignified character of a clergyman to engage in the ordinary pursuits of other men; 'Truth is always consistent with itself, and needs nothing to help it out.'—Tillotson.

INCONSISTENT, INCONGRUOUS, INCOHERENT.

Inconsistent, from sisto to place, marks the unfitness of being placed together; incongruous, from congruo to suit, marks the unsuitableness of one thing to another; incoherent, from hareo to stick, marks the inca-pacity of two things to coalesce or be united to each other.

Inconsistency attaches either to the actions or senti ments of men; incongruity attaches to the modes and qualities of things; incoherency to words or thoughts: things are made inconsistent by an act of the will; a man acts or thinks inconsistently, according to his own pleasure; 'Every individual is so unequal to himself that man seems to be the most wavering and inconsistent being in the universe.'—Hughes. Incongruity depends upon the nature of the things; there is some thing very incongruous in blending the solemn and dependent upon the property of decent service of the church with the extravagant of Methodism; 'The solemn introduction of the Phœnix, in the last scene of Sampson Agonistes, is incongruous to the personage to whom it is ascribed.'— JOHNSON. Incoherence marks the want of ceherence in that which ought to follow in a train; extemporary effusions from the pulpit are often distinguished most by their incoherence; 'Be but a person in credit with by their incoherence; 'Be but a person in credit with the multitude, he shall be able to make rambling incoherent stuff pass for high rhetorick.'-South.

CONFORMABLE, AGREEABLE, SUITABLE.

Conformable signifies able to conform (v. To comply), that is, having a sameness of form; agreeable, the quality of being able to agree (v. To agree); suit-

able, able to suit (v. To agree

able, able to suit (v. To agree).
Conformable is employed for matters of obligation:
agreeable for matters of choice; suitable for matters of propriety and discretion: what is conformable accords with some prescribed form or given rule of others; 'A man is glad to gain numbers on his side, as they serve to strengthen him in his opinions. makes him believe that his principles carry conviction with them, and are the more likely to be true, when he finds they are conformable to the reason of others as well as to his own.'—Appron. What is agreeable accords with the feelings, tempers, or judgements of ourselves or others; 'As you have formerly offer d some arguments for the soul's immortality, agree the both to reason and the Christian doctrine, I believe your readers will not be displeased to see how the same

great truth shines in the pomp of Roman eloquence.'- | HUGHES. What is suitable accords with outward circumstances; 'I think banging a cushion gives a man too warlike or perhaps too theatrical a figure to be suitable to a Christian congregation.'-Swift. It is the business of those who act for others to act conformably to their directions; it is the part of a friend to act agreeably to the wishes of a friend; it is the part of every man to act suitably to his station.

The decisions of a judge must be strictly conformable to the letter of the law; he is seldom at liberty to consult his views of equity: the decision of a partisan is always agreeable to the temper of his party: the style

of a writer should be suitable to his subject

Conformable is most commonly employed for matters of temporary moment; agreeable and suitable are mostly said of things which are of constant value: we make things conformable by an act of discretion; they are agreeable or suitable by their own nature: a treaty of peace is made conformable to the preliminaries; a legislator must take care to frame laws agreeably to the Divine law; it is of no small importance for eve man to act suitably to the character he has assumed

TO FIT, SUIT, ADAPT, ACCOMMODATE, ADJUST.

Fit signifies to make or be fit; suit to make or be witable; adapt, from aptus fit, to make fit for a spe cifick purpose; accommodate, to make commodious; adjust, to make a thing such as it is desired to be.

To fit and suit are used in the literal sense of applying things to each other as they are intended: but fit is employed mostly in regard to material and familiar objects. A tailor fits on a coat, or a coat fits when it is made right to the body;

Then meditates the mark; and couching low,

Fits the sharp arrow to the well-strung bow .-Suit is employed for intellectual or moral objects; 'Suit the action to the word, the word to the action, with this special observance, that you o'erstep not the modesty of nature.'-SHAKSPEARE. So also intransitively:

Ill suits it now the joys of love to know, Too deep my anguish, and too wild my wo .- Pork.

In an extended application of the terms to fit is intransitively used for what is morally fit in the nature of things;

Nor fits it to prolong the feast Timeless, indecent, but retire to rest.—Pope.

Whence we speak of the fitness of things; suit is ap plied either transitively or intransitively in the sense of agree, as a thing suits a person's taste, or one thing suits with another; 'The matter and manner of their tales, and of their telling, are so suited to their different educations and humours, that each would be improper in any other.'-DRYDEN.

Her purple habit sits with such a grace On her smooth shoulders, and so suits her face. DRYDEN.

The one intense, the other still remiss, Cannot well suit with either, but soon prove Tedious alike .- MILTON.

To adapt is a species of fitting; to accommodate is a species of suiting; both applied to the intellectual and moral actions of conscious beings. Adaptation is an act of the judgement; accommodation is an act of the will: we adapt by an exercise of discretion; we ac-commodate by a management of the humours: the adaptation does not interfere with our interests; but the accommodation always supposes a sacrifice: we adapt our language to the understandings of our hearers; 'It is not enough that nothing offends the ear. but a good poet will adapt the very sounds as well as words to the things he treats of.'—Pope. We accommodate ourselves to the humours of others; 'He had altered many things, not that they were not natural altered many finings, not that they were not natural before, but that he might accommodate himself to the age in which he lived '—DRYDEN. The mind of an infin' 'ely wise Creator is clearly evinced in the world, by the finiversal adaptation of means to their ends; 'It is in his power so to adapt one thing to another, as 'It is in his power so to adapt one thing to another, as to fulfil his promise of making all things work together for good to those who love him.'—BLAIR. A spirit of accommodation is not merely a characteristick of polite

ness; it is of sufficient importance to be ranked among ness; it is of similarent importance to be rained antong the Christian duties; 'It is an old observation which has been made of politicians, who would rather ingratiate themselves with their sovereigns, than promote his real service, that they accommodate their counsels to his inclinations,'—Addition. The term adapt is sometimes applied to things of a less familiar nature; it is that the vector involved. 'It may not be a useless inquiry, in what respects the love of novelty is peculiarly adapted to the present state.'—Grove. 'Adhesion may be in part ascribed, either to some elastical motion in the pressed glass, or to the exquisite adaptation of the almost innumerable, though very small asperities of the one, and the nu merous little cavities of the other, whereby the surfaces do lock in with one another, or are as it were clasped together.'-BOYLE.

Accommodate and adjust are both applied to the affairs of men which require to be kept or put in right order; but the former implies the keeping as well as other; but the nother implies the acting as was as putting in order; the latter simply the putting in order. Men accommodate each other, that is, make things commodious for each other; but they adjust things either for themselves or for others. Thus they accommodiate the commodities of the commodi modate each other in pecuniary matters; or they adjust the ceremonial of a visit. On this ground we may say that a difference is either accommodated or adjusted : for it is accommodated, inasmuch as the parties yield to each other; it is adjusted, inasmuch as that which was wrong is set right; 'When things were thus far adjusted, towards a peace, all other differences were soon accommodated.'—Addison.

TO FIT, EQUIP, PREPARE, QUALIFY.

To fit signifies to adopt means in order to make fit. and conveys the general sense of all the other terms, which differ principally in the means and circumstances which differ principally in the means and circumstances of fitting: it o equip, probably from the old barbarous Latin eschipare to furnish or adorn ships, is to fit out by furnishing the necessary materials: to prepare, from the Latin preparo, compounded of pre and paro to get before hand, is to take steps for the purpose of fitting in future: to qualify, from the Latin qualifico, or facio and qualis to make a thing as it should be, is to fit of rurnish with the moral requisites.

To fit is employed for ordinary cases; to equip only for expeditions: they may be hoth employed in annihilations.

for expeditions; they may be both employed in application to the same objects with this distinction, a vessel is equipped when it is furnished with every thing re quisite for a voyage; it is fitted by simply putting those things to it which have been temporarily removed;

With long resounding cries they urge the train, To fit the ships and launch into the main .- POPE.

The word equip is also applied figuratively in the same sense; 'The religious man is equipped for the storm as well as the calm in this dubious navigation of life.'— BLAIR. To fit is for an immediate purpose; to prepare is for a remote purpose. A person fits himself for taking orders when he is at the university: he prepares taking orders when he is at the university: he prepares himself at school before he goes to the university. To fit is to adopt positive and decisive measures; to prepare is to use those which are only precarious; a scholar fits himself for reading Horace by reading Virgil with attention; he prepares for an examination by going over what he has already learned.

To fit is said of every thing, both in a natural and a moral sense: to qualify is used only in a moral sense. Fit is employed mostly for acquirements which are gained by labour: qualify for those which are gained by intellectual exertion; a youth fits himself for a mechanical business by working at it; a youth qualifies himself for a profession by following a particular course of studies.

course of studies.

COMPETENT, FITTED, QUALIFIED.

Competent, in Latin competens, participle of com-peto to agree or suit, signifies suitable; fitted signifies made fit; qualified, participle of qualify, from the Latin qualis and facio, signifies made as it ought to be, Competency mostly respects the mental endowments

and attainments; fitness the disposition and character; qualification the artificial acquirements. A person is competent to undertake an office; fitted or qualified to

fill a situation.
Familiarity with any subject aided by strong mental endowments gives competency: suitable habits and

temper constitute the fitness; acquaintance with the business to be done, and expertness in the mode of performing it, constitutes the qualification; none should pretend to give their opinions on serious subjects who are not competent judges; none but lawyers are competent to decide in cases of law; none but medical petent to decide in cases of law; none but medical men are competent to prescribe undicines; none but divines of sound learning, as well as piety, to determine on doctrinal questions: 'Main is not competent to decide upon the good or evil of many events which befall him in this fife.'—Cumberland. Men of sedentary and studious habits, with a serious temper, are most fitted to be clergymen: 'What is more obvious and ordinary than a mole? and yet what more palpable argument of Providence than it? The members of her body are so exactly fitted to her nature and manner of life."—Addrson. Those who have the most learning and acquaintance with the Holy Scriptures are the best qualifted for the important and sacred office of instructing the people; 'Such benefits only can be bestowed as others are capable to receive, and such pleasures imparted as others are qualified to enjoy.'—Johnson.

Many are qualified for managing the concerns of

others, who would not be competent to manage a concern for themselves. Many who are fitted from their turn of mind for any particular charge, may be unfor-tunately incompetent for want of the requisite qualifi-

cations.

FIT. APT, MEET.

Fit, from the Latin βt it is made, signifying made for the purpose, is either an acquired or a natural property; apt_1 in Latin aptus, from the Greek $\check{a}\pi\tau\omega$ to connect, is a natural property; meet, from to meet or measure, signifying measured, is a moral quality. A house is fit for the accommodation of the family according to the plan of the builder;

He lends him vain Goliah's sacred word, The fittest help just fortune could afford.—COWLEY

The young mind is apt to receive either good or bad impressions; 'If you hear a wise sentence or an apt phrase commit it to your memory.'—SIR HENRY SID-Meet is a term of rare use, except in spiritual matters or in poetry; it is meet to offer our prayers to the Supreme Disposer of all things;

My image not imparted to the brute Whose fellowship therefore not unmeet for thee, Good reason was thou freely shouldst dislike.

CONCORD, HARMONY.

The idea of union is common to both these terms, but under different circumstances. Concord, in French concorde, Latin concordia, from con and cor, having the same heart and mind, is generally employed for the union of wills and affections; harmony, in French harmonie, Latin harmonia, Greek appovia, from apo to fit or suit, signifying the state of fitting or suiting, respects the aptitude of minds to coalesce.

There may be concord without harmony, and harmony without concord. Persons may live in concord

who are at a distance from each other;

Kind concord, heavenly born! whose blissful reign Holds this vast globe in one surrounding chain Soul of the world.—Ticket.

Harmony is mostly employed for those who are in close connexion, and obliged to co-operate;

In us both one soul Harmony to behold in wedded pair! More grateful than harmonious sounds to the ear.

Concord should never be broken by relations under any circumstances; harmony is indispensable in all members of a family that dwell together. Interest will sometimes stand in the way of brotherly concord; a love of rule, and a dogmatical temper, will sometimes disturb the harmony of a family. Concord is as essential to domestick happiness, as harmony is to the peace of society and the uninterrupted prosecution of business. What concord can there be between kindred who despise each other? what harmony between the rash and the discreet? These terms are both applied to

musick; but concord solely respects the agreement of twor or more sounds:

The man that hath no musick in himself. Nor is not mov'd with concord of sweet sounds, Is fit for treasons, villanies, and spoils.

But harmony respects the effect of an aggregate number of sounds; 'Harmony is a compound idea made up of different sounds united.'—WATTS. Harmony has also a farther application to objects in general to denote their adaptation to each other;

The harmony of things As well as that of sounds, from discord springs.

'If we consider the world in its subserviency to man, one would think it was made for our use; but if we consider it in its natural beauty and harmony, one would be apt to conclude it was made for our pleasure '-Applison.

MELODY, HARMONY, ACCORDANCE.

Melody, in Latin melodia, from melos, in Greek μέλος a verse, and the Hebrew מלה a word or a verse; harmony, in Latin harmonia, Greek ἀρμονία concord, from ἄρω apto to fit or suit, signifies the agreement of sounds; accordance denotes the act or state of according (v. To

Melody signifies any measured or modulated sounds measured after the manner of verse into distinct members or parts; harmony signifies the suiting or adapting different modulated sounds to each other; melody is therefore to harmony as a part to the whole: we must first produce melody by the rules of art; the harmony which follows must be regulated by the ear: there may be melody without harmony, but there cannot be harmony without melody: we speak of simple melody where the modes of musick are not very much diversified; but we cannot speak of harmony unless there be a variety of notes to fall in with each other.

A voice is melodious inasmuch as it is capable of pro ducing a regularly modulated note; it is harmonious inasmuch as it strikes agreeably on the ear, and produces no discordant sounds. The song of a bird is melodious or has melody in it, inasmuch as there is a concatenation of sounds in it which are admitted to be regular, and consequently agreeable to the musical

ear;

Lend me your song, ye nightingales! Oh pour The mazy-running soul of melody Into my varied verse.-Thomson.

There is harmony in a concert of voices and instruments:

Now the distemper'd mind Has lost that concord of harmonious powers, Which forms the soul of happiness.—Thomson.

Accordance is strictly speaking the property on which both melody and harmony is founded; for the whole of musick depends on an accordance of sounds;

The musick Of man's fair composition best accords When 't is in concert.—SHAKSPEARE.

The same distinction marks accordance and harmony in the moral application. There may be occasional accordance of opinion or feeling; but harmony is an entire accordance in every point.

CORRESPONDENT, ANSWERABLE, SUITABLE.

Correspondent, in French correspondant, from the Latin cum and respondeo to answer, signifies to answer in unison or in uniformity; answerable and suitable from answer and suit, mark the quality or capacity of answering or suiting. Correspondent supposes a greater agreement than answerable, and answerable requires a greater agreement than suitable. Things that correspond must be alike in size, shape, colour and every minute particular; those that answer must be fitted for the same purpose; those that suit must have nothing disproportionate or discordant. In the artifi cial disposition of furniture, or all matters of art and

ornament, it is of considerable importance to have some things made to correspond, so that they may be placed in suitable directions to answer to each other

In the moral application, actions are said to correson the moral application, actions are said to torrespond with professions; the success of an undertaking to answer the expectation; particular measures to suit the purpose of individuals. It ill corresponds with a profession of friendship to refuse assistance to a friend in the time of need; 'As the attractive power in bodies is the most universal principle which produceth mes is the most universal principle which produced innumerable effects, so the corresponding social appetite in human souls is the great spring and source of moral actions."—Berkelley. Wild schemes undertaken without thought, will never answer the expectations of the projectors; 'All the features of the face and tones of the voice answer like strings upon musical interest to the interesting and on the properties. instruments to the impressions made on them by the mind.—Hughes. It never swits the purpose of the selfish and greedy to contribute to the relief of the necessitous; When we consider the infinite power and wisdom of the Maker, we have reason to think that it is suitable to the magnificent harmony of the universe, that the species of creatures should also by gentle degrees ascend upward from us.'-Addison.

ASSENT, CONSENT, APPROBATION, CONCURRENCE.

Assent, in Latin assentio, is compounded of as or ad and sentio to think, signifying to bring one's mind or judgement to a thing; approbation in Latin approbatio, is compounded of ad and probo to prove, signifying to make a thing out good: consent and concurrence are taken in the same sense as in the preceding articles.

Assent respects the judgement; consent respects the will. We assent to what we think true; we consent to the wish of another by agreeing to it and allowing it. Some men give their hasty assent to propositions which they do not fully understand; 'Precept gains only the cold approbation of reason, and compels an assent which judgement frequently yields with reluctance, even when delay is impossible. —HAWKES-WORTH. Some men give their collections. Some men give their hasty consent to mea-WORTH. sures which are very injudicious.

What in sleep thou didst abhor to dream, Waking thou never wilt consent to do.—Milton.

It is the part of the true believer not merely to assent to the Christian doctrines, but to make them the rule of his life: those who consent to a bad action are par-

takers in the guilt of it.

Approbation is a species of assent; concurrence of consent. To approve is not merely to assent to a thing that is right, but to feel it positively; to have the will and judgement in accordance; concurrence is the con-sent of many. Approbation respects the practical con-duct of men in their intercourse with each other; assent is given to speculative truths, abstract propositions, or direct assertions. It is a happy thing when our actions meet with the approbation of others; but it is of little importance if we have not at the same time an approving conscience;

That not past me, but By learned approbation of my judges. SHAKSPEARE.

We may often assent to the premises of a question or proposition, without admitting the deductions drawn from them; 'Faith is the assent to any proposition not thus made out by the deduction of reason, but upon the

credit of the proposer.'-Locke.

Concurrence respects matters of general concern, as consent respects those of individual interest. No bill in the house of parliament can pass for a second reading without the concurrence of a majority; 'Tarquin the Proud was expelled by a universal concurrence of nobles and people. -Swift. No parent should be or nones and people. Switt. No parent should be induced by persuasion to give his consent to what his judgement disapproves; I am far from excusing or denying that compliance; for plenary consent it was not. -KING CHARLES

Assent is opposed to contradiction or denial; consent Assent is opposed to contradiction of defind; consent to refusal; approbation to dislike or blame; concurrence to opposition; but we may sometimes seem to give our assent to what we do not expressly contradict, or seem to approve what we do not blame; and we are supposed to consent to a request when we do

not positively refuse it. We may approve or disap prove of a thing without giving an intimation either of our approbation or the contrary: but concurrence cannot be altogether a negative action; it must be signified by some sign, although that need not necessarily be a

The assent of some people to the most important truths is so tame, that it might with no great difficulty be converted into a contradiction; 'The evidence of God's own testimony added unto the natural assent of reason, concerning the certainty of them, doth not a little comfort and confirm the same.'-Hooker. He who is anxious to obtain universal approbation, or even to escape censure, will find his fate depictured in the story of the old man and his ass; 'There is as much difference between the approbation of the judgement and the actual volitions of the will with relation to the same object, as there is between a man's viewing a de-sirable thing with his eye and his reaching after it with his hand '-South. According to the old proverb, 'Si lence gives consent:' 'Whatever be the reason, it appears by the common consent of mankind that the want pears by the common consent of marking that the want of virtue does not incur equal contempt with the want parts."—HAWKENWORTH. It is not uncommon for ministerial men to give their concurrence in parliament to the measures of administration by a silent vote, while those of the opposite party spout forth their opposition to catch the applause of the multitude; 'Sir Matthew Hale mentions one case wherein the Lords may alter a money bill (that is, from a greater to a less time)-here he says the bill need not be sent back to the Commons for their concurrence.'-Blackstone.

TO CONSENT, PERMIT, ALLOW.

Consent has the same meaning as given under the Consent has the same meaning as given under the head of Accede; permit, in French permettre, Latin permitto, compounded of per and mitto, signifies to send or let go past; allow, in French allouer, compounded of ad and louer, in German loben, low German loven, &c. from the Latin laudare to praise, signifies to give now's assett to a thing.

fies to give one's assent to a thing.

The idea of determining the conduct of others by some authorized act of one's own is common to these terms, but under various circumstances. They express

either the act of an equal or a superiour.

As the act of an equal we consent to that in which we have an interest; we permit or allow what is for the accommodation of others: we allow by abstaining to oppose; we permit by a direct expression of our will; contracts are formed by the consent of the parties who are interested:

When thou canst truly call these virtues thine, Be wise and free, by heaven's consent and mine

The proprietor of an estate permits his friends to sport on his ground: 'You have given me your permission for this address, and encouraged me by your perusal and approbation.—DRYDEN. A person allows of passage through his premises; 'I was by the freedom allowable among friends tempted to vent my thoughts with negligence.—BoyLe. It is sometimes prudent to consent; complaisant to permit; good natured or weak to allow

When applied to superiours, consent is an act of pri vate authority; permit and allow are acts of private or publick authority: in the first case, consent respects matters of serious importance; permit and allow regard those of an indifferent nature: a parent consents to the establishment of his children; he permits them to read certain books: he allows them to converse with him familiarly.

We must pause before we give our consent; it is an express sanction to the conduct of others; it involves our own judgement, and the future interests of those who are under our control;

Though what thou tell'st some doubt within me move, But more desire to hear, if thou consent
The full relation.—MILTON.

This is not always so necessary in permitting and allowing; they are partial actions, which require no more than the bare exercise of authority, and involve no other consequences than the temporary pleasure of the parties concerned. Publick measures are permitted and allowed, but never consented to. The law permits or allows; or the person who is authorized permits or allows. Permit in this case retains its positive sense; allow its negative sense; as before. Government permits individuals to fit out privateers in time of war; 'After men have acquired as much as the law permits them, they have nothing to do but to take care of the publick.'—Swift. When magistrates are not vigilant, many things will be done which are not allowed; 'They referred all laws, that were to be passed in Ireland, to be considered, corrected, and allowed by the state of England.'—Sekner. A judge is not permitted to pass any sentence, but what is strictly conformable to law: every man who is accused is allowed to plead his own cause, or intrust it to another, as he thinks fit.

All these terms may be used in a general sense with the same distinction;

O no! our reason was not vainly lent! Nor is a slave, but by its own consent.—DRYDEN.

Shame, and his conscience, Will not permit him to deny it.—RANDOLPH.

'I think the strictest moralists allow forms of address to be used, without much regard to their literal acceptation.'—JOHNSON.

TO ADMIT, ALLOW, PERMIT, SUFFER, TOLERATE.

Admit, in French admettre, Latin admitto, compounded of ad and mitto, signifies to send or to suffer to pass into; to allow, in French allower, compounded of the intensive syllable at or ad and lower, in German loben, old German lawban, low German lawen, Swedish lofwa, Danish lover, &c. Latin laws praise, lawdare to praise, signifies to give praise or approbation to a thing; permit, in French permettre, Latin permitto, is compounded of per through or away, and mitto to send or let go, signifying to let it go its way; suffer, in French souffrir, Latin suffero, is compounded of sub and fero, signifying to bear with; tolerate, in Latin toleratus, participle of tolero, from the Greek $r\lambda d\omega$ to sustain, signifies also to bear or bear with.

The actions denoted by the first three terms are more or less voluntary; those of the last two are involuntary; admit is less voluntary than allow; and that than permit. We admit what we profess not to know, or seek not to prevent; we allow what we know, and tacilly consent to; we permit what we authorize by a formal consent; we suffer and tolerate what we object to, but do not think proper to prevent. We admit of things from inadvertence, or the want of inclination to prevent them; we allow of things from easiness of temper, or the want of resolution to oppose them; we permit things from a desire to oblige or a dislike to refuse; we suffer things from want of ability to remove them; we tolerate things from motives of discretion.

What is admitted, allowed, suffered, or tolerated, has already been done; what is permitted is desired to be done. To admit, suffer, and tolerate, are said of what ought to be avoided; allow and permit of things good, bad, or indifferent. Suffer is employed mostly with regard to private individuals; tolerate with respect to the civil power. It is dangerous to admit of familiarities from persons in a subordinate station, as they are apt to degenerate into impertinent freedoms, which though not allowable cannot be so conveniently resented: in this case we are often led to permit what we might otherwise prohibit: it is a great mark of weakness and blindriess in parents to suffer that in their children which they condemn in others: opinions, however absurd, in matters of religion, must be tolerated by the civil authority when they have acquired such an ascendancy that they cannot be prevented without great violence.

A well-regulated society will be careful not to admit of any deviation from good order, which may afterward become injurious as a practice; 'Both Houses declared that they could admit of no treaty with the king, till he took down his standard and recalled his proclamations, in which the parliament supposed themselves to be declared traitors.'—Hume. It frequently happens that what has been allowed from indiscretion is afterward claimed as a right; 'Plutarch says very finely, that a man should not allow himself to hate even his enemies.'—Additional that the same of the same of

power can permit that which is prohibited by the Divine law;

Permit our ships a shelter on your shores, Refitted from your woods with planks and oars, That if our prince be safe, we may renew Our destin'd course, and Italy pursue.—DRYDEN.

When abuses are suffered to creep in, and to take deep root in any established institution, it is difficult to bring about a reform without endangering the existence of the whole; 'No man can be said to enjoy health, who is only not sick, without he feel within himself a light-some and invigorating principle, which will not suffer him to remain idle.—Spectator. When abuses are not very grievous, it is wiser to tolerate them than run the risk of producing a greater evil; 'No man ought to be tolerated in an habitual humour, whim, or particularity of behaviour, by any who do not wait upon him for bread."—Steele.

TO ADMIT, ALLOW, GRANT.

Admit and allow are here taken mostly in application to things that the mind assents to, and in this sense they are closely allied to the word grant, which, like the words guarantee, warrant, and guard, come from the German währen to see or look to, &c. signifying here to take consideration of.

We admit the truth of a position; allow the propriety of a remark; grant what is desired. Some men will not readily admit the possibility of overcoming bad habits; 'Though the fallibility of man's reason, and the narrowness of his knowledge, are very liberally confessed, yet the conduct of those who so willingly admit the weakness of human nature, seems to discover that this acknowledgment is not sincere.'—
JOHNSON. It is ungenerous not to allow that some credit is due to those who effect any reformation in themselves; 'The zealots in atheism are perpetually teasing their friends to come over to them, although they allow that neither of them shall get any thing by the bargain.'—Addison. The scenario of the something should be taken for granted on both sides; 'I take it at the same time for granted that the immortality of the soul is sufficiently established by other arguments.'—Steele.

TO ASK, BEG, REQUEST.

Ask (v. To ask, inquire) is here taken to denote an expression of our wishes generally for what we want from another; beg is contracted from the word beggar, and the German begehren to desire vehemently; request in Latin requisitus, participle of require, is compounded of re and quaro to seek or look after with indications of desire to possess.

The expression of a wish to some one to have something is the common idea comprehended in these terms. As this is the simple signification of ask, it is the generick term; the other two are specifick: we ask in becaming and requesting but not vice search.

begging and requesting, but not vice versal.

Asking is peculiar to no rank or station; in consequence of our mutual dependence on each other, it is requisite for every man to ask something of another: the master asks of the servant, the servant asks of the master; the parent asks of the child, the child asks of the parent. Begging marks a degree of dependence which is peculiar to inferiours in station: we ask for matters of indifference: we beg that which we think is of importance: a child asks a favour of his parent; a poor man begs the assistance of one who is able to afford it: that is asked for which is easily granted; that is begged which is with difficulty obtained. To ask therefore requires no effort; but to beg is to ask with importunity; those who by merely asking find themselves unable to obtain what they wish will have recourse to begging.

As ask sometimes implies a demand, and beg a vehemence of desire, or strong degree of necessity,

As ask sometimes implies a demand, and beg a vehemence of desire, or strong degree of necessity, politeness has adopted another phrase, which conveys neither the imperiousness of the one, nor the urgency of the other; this is the word request. Asking carrier with it an air of superiority; begging that of submission; requesting has the air of independence and equality. Asking borders too nearly on an infringement of personal liberty; begging imposes a constraint

ty making an appeal to the feelings; requests leave the liberty of granting or refusing unencumbered. It is the character of impertinent people to ask without considering the circumstances and situation of the person asked; they seem ready to take without permission that which is asked if it be not granted;

Let him pursue the promis'd Latian shore, A short delay is all I ask him now,

A pause of grief, an interval from wo .- DRYDEN. Selfish and greedy people beg with importunity, and in a tone that admits of no refusal;

But we must beg our bread in climes unknown, Beneath the scorching or the frozen zone.-DRYDEN.

Men of good breeding tender their requests with moderation and discretion; they request nothing but what they are certain can be conveniently complied

But do not you my last request deny, With you perfidious man your int'rest try

DRYDEN.

Ask is altogether exploded from polite life, although beg is not. We may beg a person's acceptance of any thing; we may beg him to favour or honour us with his company; but we can never talk of asking a person's acceptance, or asking him to do us an honour.

Beg in such cases indicates a condescension which is sometimes not unbecoming, but on ordinary occasion request is with more propriety substituted in its place.

TO BEG, DESIRE.

Beg in its original sense as before given (v. To ask, beg) signifies to desire; desire, in French desir, Latin desidero, comes from desido to fix the mind on an object. To beg, marks the wish; to desire, the will and de-

ermination. Beg is the act of an inferiour, or one in subordinate tondition; desire is the act of a superiour: we beg a thing as a favour; we desire it as a right; children beg heir parents to grant them an indulgence;

She 'll hang upon his lips, and beg him tell The story of my passion o'er again .- Southern.

Parents desire their children to attend to their business; 'Once, when he was without lodging, meat, or alothes, one of his friends left a message, that he desired to see him about nine in the morning. knew that it was his intention to assist him; but was very much disgusted that he should presume to prescribe the hour of his attendance, and I believe refused to see him.'-Johnson.

BEG, BESEECH, SOLICIT, ENTREAT, SUPPLICATE, IMPLORE, CRAVE. TO BEG.

Beg is here taken as before (v. To ask, beg); beseech, compounded of be and seech, or seek, is an intensive verb, signifying to seek strongly; solicit, in French soliciter, Latin solicito, is probably compounded of solum or totum, and cito to cite, summon, appeal to, signifying to rouse altogether; entreat, compounded of en or in and treat, in French traiter, Latin tracto to manage, s, "lifes to act upon; supplicate, in Latin supplicatus, participle of supplica, compounded of sup or sub and plico to fold, signifies to bend the body down in token of submission or distress in order to awaken notice; implore, in French implorer, Latin implore, compounded of im or in and plore to weep or lament, signifies to act upon by weeping; crave, in Saxon cravian, signifies to long for earnestly.

All these terms denote a species of asking, varied as to the person, the object, and the manner; the first four do not mark such a state of dependence in the agent as do not mark such a state of dependence in the agent as the last three: to beg denotes a state of want; to besech, entreat, and solicit, a state of urgent necessity; supplicate and implore, a state of abject distress; crave, the lowest state of physical want; one begs with importantly; beseches with earnestness; entreats by the force of reasoning and strong representation; one solition to the property of the pro cits by virtue of one's interest; supplicates by an humble address; implores by every mark of dejection and

persuade, but beseeching is more urgent; entreating more argumentative: solicitations are employed to ob tain favours, which have more respect to the circumstances than the rank of the solicitor: supplicating and imploring are resorted to by sufferers for the relief of their misery, and are addressed to those who have the power of averting or increasing the calamity: craving s the consequence of longing; it marks an earnestness of supplication: an abject state of suffering dependence.

Those who have any object to obtain commonly have

recourse to begging;

What more advance can mortals make in sin, So near perfection, who with blood begin? Deaf to the calf that lies beneath the knife Looks up, and from the butcher begs her life. DRYDEN.

A kind parent will sometimes rather beseech an undu tiful child to lay aside his wicked courses, than plunge him deeper into guilt by an ill-timed exercise of au-thority; 'Modesty never rages, never murmurs, never pouts when it is ill-treated; it pines, it beseeches, it languishes.'-STEELE. When we are entreated to do an act of civility, it is a mark of unkindness to be heedless to the wishes of our friends;

I have a wife, whom I protest I love; I would she were in heav'n, so she could Entreat some pow'r to change this currish Jew. SHARSPEARE.

Gentlemen in office are perpetually exposed to the soli citations of their friends, to procure for themselves of their connexions places of trust and emolument; 'As money collected by subscription is necessarily received in small sums, Sayage was never able to send his poems to the press, but for many years continued his solicita-tion, and squandered whatever he obtained.'—Johnson. A slave supplicates his master for pardon, whom he has offended; 'Savage wrote to Lord Tyrconnel, not in a style of supplication and respect; but of reproach, menace, and contempt.'—Johnson. An offender implores mercy for the mitigation, if not the requirement of his purchaseatt. remission, of his punishment;

Is 't then so hard, Monimia, to forgive

A fault, where humble love, like mine, implores thee ? OTWAY.

A poor wretch, suffering with hunger, craves a morsel of bread;

For my past crimes, my forfeit life receive. No pity for my sufferings here I crave, And only hope forgiveness in the grave.

Rowe's Jane Shore.

SOLICITATION, IMPORTUNITY.

Solicitation (v. To beg) is general; importunity, from the Latin importunus, of in and portus, signifies a running into harbour after the manner of distressed mariners, is a vehement and troublesome form of solicita-Solicitation is itself indeed that which gives trouble to a certain extent, but it is not always unreasonable: there may be cases in which we may yield to the solicitations of friends, to do that which we have no objection to be obliged to do: but importunity is that solicitation which never ceases to apply for that which it is not agreeable to give. We may sometimes be urgent in our solicitations of a friend to accept some proffered honour; the solicitation however, in this case, although it may even be troublesome, yet it is sweetened by the motive of the action: the importunity of beggars is often a politick means of extorting money of begars is often a something the devil cannot compel a man to sin, yet he can follow a man with continual solicitations.'—South. The torment of expectation is not easily to be borne, when the heart has no rival engagements to withdraw it from the importunities of desire.'-Johnson.

PRESSING, URGENT, IMPORTUNATE.

Pressing and urgent, from to press and urge, are apble address; implores by every mark of dejection and humiliation.

Regging is the act of the poor when they need assistance: beseeching and entreating are resorted to by friends and equals, when they want to influence or it is said either of one's demands, one's requests, or one sexhortations; wgent is said of one's solicitations or entreaties; importunate is said of one's begging or applying for. The pressing has more of violence in it; it is supported by force and authority; it is employed in matters of right, and appeals to the understanding; 'Mr. Gay, whose zeal in your concern is worthly a friend, writes to me in the most pressing terms about it.'—Pore. The urgent makes an appeal to one's feedings; it is more persuasive, and is employed in matters of favour; 'Neither would he have done it at all but at my urgency.'—Switt. The importunate has some of the force, but none of the authority or obligation of the pressing; it is employed in matters of personal gratification: 'Sleep may be put off from time to time, yet the demand is of so unportunate a nature as not to remain long unsatisfied.'—Johnson, When applied to things, pressing is as much more forcible than urgent, as in the former case; we speak of a pressing for his money when he fears to lose it; one friend is urgent with another to intercede in his behalf; beggars are commonly importunate with the hope of teasing persons out of their money.

TO DESIRE, WISH, LONG FOR, HANKER AFTER, COVET.

Desire, in Latin desidero, comes from desido to rest or fix upon with the mind; wish, in German winschen, comes from wonne pleasure, signifying to take pleasure in a thing; long, from the German langen to reach after, signifies to seek after with the mind; hanker, hanger, or hang, signifies to hang on an object with one's mind; covet is changed from the Latin cupio to desire

The desire is imperious, it demands gratification; When men have discovered a passionate desire of fame in the ambitious man (as no temper of mind is more apt to show itself,) they become sparing and reserved in their commendations."—Addison. The wish is less vehement, it consists of a strong inclination; 'It is as absurd in an old man to wish for the strength of youth, as it would be in a young man to wish for the strength of a bull or a horse. —Steele. Longing is an impatient and continued species of desire;

Extended on the fun'ral couch he lies, And soon as morning paints the eastern skies, The sight is granted to thy longing eyes.—Pore.

Hankering is a desire for that which is set out of one's reach; 'The wife is an old coquete that is always hankering after the diversions of the town.'—Approxon. Coveting is a desire for that which belongs to another, or what it is in his power to grant; 'You know Chaucer has a tale, where a knight saves his head by discovering it was the thing which all women most coveted.'—Gax. We desire of long for that which is near at hand, or within view; we wish for and covet that which is more remote, or less distinctly seen; we hanker after that which has been once enjoyed: a discontented person wishes for more than he has; he who is in a strange land longs to see his native country; vicious men hanker after the pleasures which are denied them; ambitious men covet honours, avaricious men covet riches.

Desires ought to be moderated; wishes to be limited; longings, hankerings, and covetings to be suppressed uncontrolled desires become the greatest torments; unbountled wishes are the bane of all happiness; ardent longings are mostly irrational, and not entitled to indulgence; coveting is expressly prohibited by the Divine law.

Desire, as it regards others, is not less imperative than when it respects ourselves; it lays an obligation on the person to whom it is expressed: a wish is gentle and unassuming; it appeals to the good nature of another: we act by the desire of a superiour, and according to the wishes of an equal: the desire of a parent will amount to a command in the mind of a duriful child: his wishes will be anticipated by the warmth of affection.

TO WILL, WISH.

The will is that faculty of the soul which is the most prompt and decisive; it immediately impels to action: the wish is but a gentle motion of the soul towards a

thing. We can will nothing but what we can effect; we may wish for many things which lie above our reach. The will must be under the entire control of reason, or it will lead a person into every miscnier; 'A good inclination is but the first rude draught of virtue; but the finishing strokes are from the will.'—Sourth. Wishes ought to be under the direction of reason; or otherwise they may greatly disturb our happiness; 'The wishing of a thing is not properly the willing of it; it imports no more than an idle, unoperative, complacency in, and desire of, the object.'—Sourth.

WILLINGLY, VOLUNTARILY, SPONTA-NEOUSLY.

To do a thing willingly is to do it with a good-will; to do a thing voluntarily is to do it of one's own accord: the former respects one's willingness to comply with the wishes of another; we do what is asked of us, it is a mark of good nature: the latter respects our freedom from foreign influence; we do that which we like to do; it is a mark of our sincerity. It is pleasant to see a child do his task willingly;

Food not of angels, yet accepted so, As that more willingly thou couldst not seem, At heav'n's high feasts t' have fed.—Milton.

It is pleasant to see a man roluntarily engage in any service of publick good; 'Thoughts are only criminal when they are first chosen, and then voluntarily continued.'—Johnson. Spontaneously is but a mode of the voluntary, applied, however, more commonly to inanimate objects than to the will of persons: the ground produces spontaneously, when it produces without culture; and words flow spontaneously, which require no effort on the part of the speaker to produce them:

Of these none uncontroll'd and lawless rove, But to some destin'd end spontaneous move.

If, however, applied to the will, it bespeaks in a stronger degree the totally unbiassed state of the agent's mind: the epontaneous effusions of the heart are more than the rolantaryservices of benevolence. The willing is opposed to the unwilling, the voluntary to the mechanical or involuntary, the spontaneous to the reluctant or the artificial.

TO LEAN, INCLINE, BEND.

Lean and incline both come from the Latin clino, and Greek $\kappa\lambda i \nu \omega$ to bow or bend; bend is connected with the German wender to turn, and the English wind, &c.

In the proper seuse lean and incline are both said of the position of bodies; bend is said of the shape of bodies; that which leans rests on one side, or in a sideward direction; that which inclines, leans or turns only in a slight degree; that which bends forms a curvature; it does not all lean the same way; a tree may grow so as incline to the right or the left, or a road may incline this or that way; a tree or a road bends when it turns out of the straight course.

In the improper sense the judgement leans, the will inclines, the will or conduct bends, in consequence of some outward action. A person leans to this or that side of a question which he favours; he inclines or is inclined to this or that mode of conduct; he bends to the will of another. It is the duty of a judge to lean to the side of mercy as far as is consistent with justice;

Like you a courtier born and bred, Kings lean'd their ear to what I said.-GAY.

Whoever inclines too readily to listen to the tales of distress which are continually told to excite compassion, will find himself in general deceived;

Say what you want: the Latins you shall find, Not fore'd to goodness, but by will inclin'd.—DRYDEN. An unbending temper is the bane of domestick felicity;

And as on corn when western gusts descend, Before the blast the lofty harvest bend.—Pope.

BENT, BIAS, INCLINATION, PREPOSSESSION.

Bias, in French Biais, signifies a weight fixed on one side of a bowl in or ler to turn its course that way

towards which the bias leans, from the Greek Bla force; inclination, in Preuch inclination, Latin inclinatio, fiom inclina, Greek kklya, signifies a leaning towards; prepassession, compounded of pre and possession, signifies the taking possession of the mind previously, or beforehand.

All these terms denote a preponderating influence on the mind. Bent is applied to the will, affection, and power in general; bias solely to the judgement; inclination and prepossession to the state of the feelings. The bent includes the general state of the mind, and

the object on which it fixes a regard;

Servile inclinations, and gross love, The guilty bent of vicious appetite.- HAVARD.

Bias, the particular influential power which sways the judging faculty; 'The choice of man's will is indeed uncertain, because in many things free; but yet there are certain habits and principles in the soul that have some kind of sway upon it, apt to bias it more one way than another.'-South. The one is absolutely considered with regard to itself; the other relatively to its results and the object it acts upon.

Bent is sometimes with regard to bias, as cause is to effect; we may frequently trace in the particular bent of a person's likes and dislikes the principal bias which determines his opinions. Inclination is a faint kind of bent; prepossession is a weak species of bias: an the feelings: prepossession is a state of something, namely, a state of the feelings: prepossession is an actual something, namely, the thing that prepossesses.

We may discover the bent of a person's mind in his gay or serious moments; in his occupations, and in his pleasures; in some persons it is so strong, that scarcely an action passes which is not more or less influenced by it, and even the exteriour of a man will be under its control: in all disputed matters the support of a party will operate more or less to bias the minds of men for or against particular men, or particular measures when we are attached to the party that espouses the cause of religion and good order, this bias is in some measure commendable and salutary: a mind without inclination would be a blank, and where inclination is, there is the groundwork for prepossession. Strong minds will be strongly bent, and labour under a strong bias; but there is no mind so weak and powerless as not to have its inclinations, and none so perfect as to be without its prepossessions: the mind that has virtuous inclinations will be prepossessed in favour of every thing that leans to virtue's side; it were well for mankind that this were the only prepossession; but in the present mixture of truth and errour, it is necessary to guard against prepossessions as dangerous anticipa tions of the judgement; if their object be not perfectly pure, or their force be not qualified by the restrictive powers of the judgement, much evil springs from their abuse :

'T is not indulging private inclination, The selfish passions, that sustains the world, And lends its Ruler grace.—Thomson.

I take it for a rule, that in marriage the chief business is to acquire a prepossession in favour of each other.'-STEELE.

INCLINATION, TENDENCY, PROPENSITY, PRONENESS.

All these terms are employed to designate the state of the will towards an object: inclination (v. Bent) denotes its first movement towards an object; tendency, from to tend, is a continued inclination: propensity, from the Latin propensus and propendee to hang forward, denotes a still stronger leaning of the will; and prone, from the Latin pronus downward, characterizes an habitual and fixed state of the will towards an object. The inclination expresses the leaning but not the direction of that leaning; it may be to the right or to the left, upwards or downwards; consequently we may have an inclination to that which is good or bad high or low; tendency does not specify any particular direction; but from the idea of pressing, which it conveys, it is appropriately applied to those things which degenerate or lead to what is bad; excessive strictness in the treatment of children has a tendency to damp the spirit: propensity and proneness both designate a downward direction, and consequently refer only to that which is bad and low; a person has a propensity to drinking, and a proneness to lying

Inclination is always at the command of the under retreated it is our duty therefore to suppress the first risings of any inclination to extravagance, intemperance, or any irregularity; 'Partiality is properly the understanding's judging according to the inclination of the will.'-South. As tendency refers to the thing rather than the person, it is our business to avoid that which has a tendency to evil; 'Every immoral act, in which has a tendency of it, is certainly a step downwards.'—South. The propensity will soon get the mastery of the best principles, and the firmest resolution; it is our duty therefore to seek all the aids which religion affords to subdue every propensity; 'Such is the propensity of our nature to vice, that stronger restraints than those of mere reason are necessary to be imposed on man.—Blare. Proneness to evil is inherent in our nature which we derive from our first parents; it is the grace of God which alone can lift us up above this grovelling part of ourselves; Every commission of sin imprints upon the soul a further disposition and proneness to sin.'-South.

BIAS, PREPOSSESSION, PREJUDICE.

Bias (v. Bent, Bias) marks the state of the mind : prepossession applies either to the general or particular prepossessin applies etne to the general or particular state of the feelings; prejudice is employed only for opinions. Prejudice, in French prejudice, Latin prejudicium, compounded of pre before, and judicium judgement, signifies a judgement before hand, that is, before examination. Children may receive an early bias that influences their future character and destiny: preposessions spring from casualties; they do not exist in young minds: prejudices are the fruits of a contracted education. Physical infirmities often give a strong bias to serious pursuits; 'It should be the principal labour of moral writers to remove the bias which inclines the mind rather to prefer natural than moral endowments."-HAWKESWORTH. Prepossessions created by outward appearances are not always fallacious: 'A man in power, who can, without the ordinary prepossessions which stop the way to the true knowledge and service of mankind, overlook the little distinctions of fortune, raise obscure merit, and discountenance successful indesert, has, in the minds of knowing men, the figure of an angel rather than a man.'-STEELE. It is at present the fashion to brand every thing with the name of prejudice, which does not coincide with the lax notions of the age 'It is the work of a philosopher to be every day subduing his passions, and laying aside his prejudices. I endeavour at least to look upon men and their actions only as an impartial spectator.'—Spectator. A bias may be overpowered, a prepossession overcome, and a pre judice corrected or removed.

We may be biassed for or against, we are always prepossessed in favour, and mostly prejudiced against.

COVETOUSNESS, CUPIDITY, AVARICE

Covetousness, from covet, and cupido to desire, signifies having a desire; cupidity is a more immediate derivative from the Latin cupiditas, and signifies the same thing; avarice, from avec to long for, signifies

by distinction a longing for money.

All these terms are employed to express an illicit desire after objects of gratification; but covetousness is applied to property in general; cupidity and avarice only to money or possessions. A child may display its covetousness in regard to the playthings which fall in its way; a man shows his cupidity in regard to the gains that fall in his way; we should therefore be careful to check a covetous disposition in early life, lest it show itself in the more hateful character of cupidity in advanced years. Covetousness is the natural disposition for having or getting; cupidity is the acquired disposition. As the love of appropriation is an innate characteristick in man, that of accumulating or wanting to accumulate, which constitutes covetousness, will show itself, in some persons, among the first indications of character: Nothing lies on our hands with such uneasiness as ime. Wretched and thoughtless creatures! In the only place where coverbusness were a virtue, we turn prodigals.—Addison. Where the prospect of amassing great wealth is set before a man, as in the case of a governour of a distant province, it will evince great virtue in him, if his cupidity be not excited; 'If pre scription be once shaken, no species of property is

secure, when it once becomes an object large enough to tempt the cupidity of indigent power.—Burke.
The covitous man seeks to add to what he has; the

avaricious man only strives to retain what he has; the covetous man sacrifices others to indulge himself the avaricious man will sometimes sacrifice himself to induige others: for generosity, which is piposed to covetousness, is sometimes associated with avarice; At last Swift's avarice grew too powerful for his kindness; he would refuse (his friends) a bottle of wine.'-Johnson.

AVARICIOUS, MISERLY, PARSIMONIOUS, NIGGARDLY.

Avaricious, from the Latin aveo to desire, signifies in general longing for, but by distinction longing for money; miscrly signifies like a miscr of miscrable man, for none are so miscrable as the lovers of money; parsimonious, from the Latin parco to spare or save, signifies literally saving; niggardly is a frequentative of nigh or close, signifies very nigh.

The avaricious man and the miser are one and the same character, with this exception, that the miser carries his passion for money to a still greater excess. An avaricious man shows his love of money in his ordinary dealings; but the miser lives upon it, and suffers every privation rather than part with it. An avaricious man may sometimes be indulgent to himself, and generous to others; 'Though the apprehensions of the aged may justify a cautious frugality, they can by no means excuse a sordid avarice.'—BLAIR. The miser is dead to every thing but the treasure which he has amassed:

As some lone miser visiting his store, Bends at his treasure, counts, recounts it o'er; Hoards after hoards his rising raptures fill,... Yet still he sighs, for hoards are wanting still; Thus to my breast alternate passions ris Pleas'd with each bliss that Heav'n to man supplies. Yet oft a sigh prevails and sorrows fall, To see the hoard of human bliss so small.

GOLDSMITH.

Parsimonious and niggardly are the subordinate characteristicks of avaries. The avaries man indulges his passion for money by parsimony, that is, by saving out of himself, or by niggardly ways in his dealings with others. He who spends a farthing on himself, where others with the same means spend a shilling, does it from parsimony; 'Armstrong died in September, 1779, and to the surprise of his friends left a considerable sum of money, saved by great parsi-mony out of a very moderate income."—Johnson. He who looks to every farthing in the bargains he makes. gets the name of a niggard; 'I have heard Dodsley, by whom Akenside's "Pleasures of the Imagination" was published, relate, that when the copy was offered him, he carried the work to Pope, who, having looked into it, advised him not to make a niggardly offer, for this was no every day writer.—Johnson. Avarice sometimes cloaks itself under the name of prudence: it is, as Goldsmith says, often the only virtue which is left a man at the age of seventy-two. The miser is his own greatest enemy, and no man's friend; his ill-got-ten wealth is generally a curse to him by whom it is inherited. A man is sometimes rendered parsimonious by circumstances; he who first saves from necessity but too often ends with saving from inclination. The niggard is an object of contempt, and sometimes hatred; every one fears to lose by a man who strives to gain from all.

ŒCONOMICAL, SAVING, SPARING, THRIFTY, PENURIOUS, NIGGARDLY.

The idea of not spending is common to all these The lites of not spending is common to all these terms; but accommical signifies not spending unnecessarily or unwisely; saving is keeping and laying by with care; sparing is keeping out of that which ought to be spent; thrifty or thriving is accumulating by means of saving; penurious is suffering as from penury by means of saving; niggardly, after the manner of a niggard, nigh or close person, is not spending or letting go, but in the smallest possible quantities.

To be economical is a virtue in those who have but narrow means; 'I cannot fancy that a shopkeeper's

wife in Cheapside has a greater tenderness for the fortune of her husband than a citizen's wife in Paris; or that Miss in a boarding-school is more an accommist in dress than Mademoiselle in a nunnery.—Goldstith. All the other epithets however are employed in a sense more or less unfavourable; he who is saving when young, will be covetous when old; he who is sparing will generally be sparing out of the comforts of others he who is thrifty commonly adds the desire of getting with that of saving; he who is penurious wants no thing to make him a complete miser; he who is nig-gardly in his dealings will be mostly avaricious in his character; 'I may say of fame as Falstaff did of honour, "if it comes it comes unlook'd for, and there is an end on't." I am content with a bare saving game.'-POPE.

Youth is not rich, in time it may be poor, Part with it, as with money, sparing.—Young.

'Nothing is penuriously imparted, of which a more liberal distribution would increase real felicity.'-JOHNSON.

Who by resolves and vows engag'd does stand, For days that yet belong to fate, Does like an unthrift mortgage his estate Before it falls into his hands .- COWLEY.

No niggard nature; men are prodigals.-Young.

CECONOMY, FRUGALITY, PARSIMONY

Economy, from the Greek δικονομία, implies management; frugality, from the Latin fruges fruts, implies temperance; parsimony (v. Avaricious) implies simply forbearing to spend, which is in fact the common idea included in these terms; but the economical man spares expense according to circumstances; he adapts his expenditure to his means, and renders it by contrivance as effectual to his purpose as possible; War and economy are things not easily reconciled, and the attempt of leaning towards parsimony in such a state may be the worst aconomy in the world.'-BURKE. The frugal man spares expense on himself or on his indulgences; he may however be liberal to others while he is frugal towards himself; 'I accept of your invitation to supper, but I must make this agreement beforehand, that you dismiss me soon, and treat me frugally.'—Melmoth (Letters of Pliny).
The parsimonious man saves from himself as well as others; he has no other object than saving. By economy, a man may make a limited income turn to the best account for himself and his family; by frugality he may with a limited income be enabled to do much good to others; by parsimony he may be enabled to accumulate great suins out of a narrow income: hence it is that we recommend a plan for being economical; we recommend a diet for being frugal; we condemn a habit or a character for being parsimonious.

ŒCONOMY, MANAGEMENT.

Œconomy (v. Œconomy) has a more comprehensive meaning than management; for it includes the system of science and of legislation as well as that of domestick arrangements; as the aconomy of agriculture; the internal *economy* of a government; political, civil, or religious *economy*; or the *economy* of one's household; 'Your aconomy I suppose begins now to be settled; your expenses are adjusted to your revenue." JOHNSON. Management, on the contrary, is an action that is very seldom abstracted from its agent, and is always taken in a partial sense, namely, as a part of aconomy. The internal aconomy of a family depends principally on the prudent management of the female: the economy of every well-regulated community requires that all the members should keep their station, and preserve a strict subordination

Oh spare this waste of being half divine And vindicate th' aconomy of heav'n .- Young.

The management of particular branches of civil aconomy should belong to particular individuals; 'What incident can show more management and address in the poet (Milton), than this of Sampson's refusing the summons of the idolaters, and obeying the visitation of God's spirit.'—CUMBERLAND.

AVIDITY, GREEDINESS, EAGERNESS,

Are epithets expressive of a strong desire; avidity, in Latin aviditis, from aveo to desire, expresses very strong desire; greediness, from the German georig, and begehren to desire, signifies the same; cagerness, from cager, and the Latin acer sharp, signifies acuteness of feeling.

Acadity is in mental desires what greediness is in animal appetities: eagerness is not so vehement, but more impatient than avoidity or greediness. Avoidity and greediness respect simply the desire of possessing; eagerness the general desire of attaining an object. An opportunity is seized with avoidity; or a person gratties his avoidity; 'I have heard that Addison's avoidity did not satisfy itself with the air of renown, but that with great eagerness he laid hold on his proportion of the profits.—Johnson. The miser grasps at money with greediness, or the glutton devours with greediness. A person runs with eagerness in order to get to the place of destination: a soldier fights with eager impatience for a letter from the object of his affection:

Bid the sca listen, when the greedy merchant, To gorge its ravenous jaws, hurls all his wealth, And stands himself upon the splitting deck For the last plunge.—Lee.

Avidity is employed in an adverbial form to qualify an action: we seize with avidity. Greediness marks the abstract quality or habit of the mind; it is the characteristick of low and brutal minds: eagerness denotes the transitory state of a feeling; a person discovers his eagerness in his looks.

TO GIVE, GRANT, BESTOW, ALLOW.

Give, in Saxon gifan, German geben, &c. is derived by Adelung from the old word gaff the hollow of the hand, because the hand was commonly used in pledging or giving, whence this word is allied to the Greek εγγυάω to pledge or promise, and γυῶν a limb; grant is probably contracted from guarantee, and the French garantir, signifying to assure any thing to a person by one's word or deed; bestow is compounded of be and stow, which in English and the northern languages signifies to place, whence to bestow signifies to dispose according to one's wishes and convenience; allow is here taken in the same general sense as in the article To admit. Allow.

The idea of communicating to another what is our own, or in our power, is common to these terms; this is the whole signification of give; but grant, bestow, and allow include accessory ideas in their meaning. To grant is to give at one's pleasure; to bestow is to give with a certain degree of necessity. Giving is confined to no object; whatever property we transfer into the hands of another, that we give; we give money, clothes, food, or whatever is transferable: granting is confined to such objects as afford pleasure or convenience; they may consist of transferable property or not; bestowing is applied to such objects only as are necessary to supply wants, which always consist of that which is transferable. We give what is liked or not liked, asked for or unasked for; we grant that only which is wished for and requested. One may give poison or medicine; one may give to a beggar, or to a friend; one grants a sum of money by way of loan: we give what is wanted or not wanted; we bestow that only which is expressly wanted: we give with an idea of a return or otherwise; we grant voluntarily, without any prospect of a return; we give with an idea of a return or otherwise; we grant voluntarily, without any prospect of a return; we give to in perticular cases which require immediate notice. Many give things to the rich only to increase the number of their superfluities, and they give to the poor to relieve their necessities; they bestow their alms on an indigent sufferer.

To give has no respect to the circumstances of the action or the agent; it is applicable to persons of all conditions: to grant bespeaks not only the will but the power and influence of the grantor; to bestow bespeaks the necessitous condition of the receiver. Children may give to their parents and parents to their children, kings to their subjects or subjects to their slope.

parents to their children; and superiours in general bestow upon their dependants that which they cannot provide for themselves.

In an extended application of the terms to moral objects or circumstances, they strictly adhere to the same line of distinction. We give our consent; we give our promise; we give our word; we give credit; we give in all cases that which may be simply transferred from one to another;

Happy when both to the same centre move, When kings give liberty, and subjects love.

Liberties, rights, privileges, favours, indulgences, permissions, and all things are granted, which are in the hands only of a few, but are acceptable to many;

The gods will grant
What their unerring wisdom sees they want
DRYDEN.

Blessings, care, concern, and the like, are bestowed upon those who are dependent upon others for whatever they have.

Give and bestow are likewise said of things as well as of persons; grant is said only of persons. Give is here equally general and indefinite; bestow conveys the idea of giving under circumstances of necessity and urgency. One gives a preference to a particular situation; one gives a thought to a subject that is proposed; one gives time and labour to any matter that engages one's attention; 'Milton afterward give us a description of the morning, which is wonderfully suitable to a divine' poem.'—Additions. But one bestows pains on that which demands particular attention; one bestows a moment's thought on one particular subject, out of the number which engage attention; 'A ther having thus treated at large of Paradise Lost, I could not think it sufficient to have celebrated this poem, in the whole, without descending to particulars: I have therefore bestowed a paper on each book,'—Addison.

That is granted which is desired, if not directly asked for; that is bestowed which is wanted as a matter of necessity; that is allowed which may be expected, if not directly required.

What is granted is perfectly gratuitous on the part of the giver, it is a pure favour, and lays the receiver under an obligation; what is bestowed is occasional, altogether depending on the circumstances and disposition of both giver and receiver; what is allowed is a gift stipulated as to time and quantity, which as to continuance depends upon the will of the giver.

It is as improper to grant a person more than he asks, as it is to ask a person for more than he can grant. Alms are very ill bestowed which only serve to encourage beggary and idleness; many of the poor are allowed a small sum weekly from the parish.

A grant comprehends in it something more important than an allowance, and passes between persons in a higher station; what is bestowed is of less value than either. A father allows his son a yearly sum for his casual expenses, or a master allows his servant a maintenance; 'Martial's description of a species of lawyers is full of humour: "Men that hire out their words and anger, that are more or less passionate as they are paid for it, and allow their client a quantity of wrath proportionable to the fee which they receive from him."—Addisons. Kings grant pensions to their officers; governments grant_subsidies to one another;

If you in pity grant this one request,
My death shall glut the hatred of his breast.
DRYDEN.

Relief is bestowed on the indigent; 'Our Saviour doth plainly witness that there should not be as much as a cup of cold water bestowed for his sake without reward.'—HOOKER.

In a figurative acceptation that is granted which is given by way of favour or indulgence; that is bestowed which is done in justice, or by way of reward or necessity; that is allowed which is done by way of courtesy or compliance.

courtesy or compliance.

In former times the kings of England granted cer tain privileges to some towns, which they retain to this day; 'All the land is the queen's, unless there be some grant of any part thereof to be showed from her majesty.—Syenser. Those who are hasty in ap-

planding frequently bestow their commendations on | ing; and, on the other hand, we may present or offer very undeserving objects :

So much the more thy diligence bestow, In depth of winter to defend the snow .- DRYDEN.

A candid man allows merit even in his rivals; 'I shall be ready to allow the pope as little power here as you please,'-Swift.

TO GIVE, AFFORD, SPARE.

Give is here the generick term, as in the preceding article; afford, probably changed from afferred, from the Latin affero, or ad and fero, signifies literally to bring to a person; spare, in German sparen, Latin parco, and Hebrew ברק to preserve, signifies here to lay up for a particular purpose. These words are allied to each other in the sense of sending forth: but the former denotes an unqualitied and unconditional action; the latter bears a relation to the circumstances of the agent. A person is said to give money without any regard to the state of his finances; he is said to any regard to the state of his handers, he is said to afford what he gives, when one wishes to define his pecuniary condition; 'Nothing can give that to another which it hath not itself.'—Branhall. 'The same errours run through all families, where there is wealth enough to afford that their sons may be good for nothing.' thing.'-Swift. The same idea runs through the application of these terms to all other cases, in which inanimate things are made the agents;

Are these our great pursuits? Is this to live, These all the hopes this much-lov'd world can give?

Our paper manufacture takes into use several mean materials, which could be put to no other use, and affords work for several hands in the collection of them, which are incapable of any other employment. -Applison. When we say a thing gives satisfaction, we simply designate the action; when we say it affords pleasure, we refer to the nature and properties of the thing thus specified; the former is employed only to declare the fact, the latter to characterize the object, Hence, in certain cases, we should say, this or that posture of the body gives ease to a sick person; but, as a moral sentiment, we should say, nothing affords such ease to the mind as a clear conscience; 'This is the consolation of all good men, unto whom the ubiquity affordeth continual comfort and security.—
Brows. (Vulg. Err.) Upon the same grounds the use of these terms is justified in the following cases; to give rise; or give birth; to give occasion: to afford an opportunity; to afford a plea or a pretext: to afford to afford a plea or a pretext; to afford ground, and the like.

To afford and spare both imply the deducting from one's property with convenience, but afford respects solely expenses which are no more than commensurate with our income; spare is said of things in general, which we may part with without any sensible diminution of our comfort. There are few so destitute that they cannot afford something for the relief of

others, who are more destitute;

Accept whate'er Æneas can afford Untouch'd thy arms, untaken by thy sword. DRYDEN.

He who has two things of a kind may easily spare one; 'How many men, in the common concerns of life, lend sums of money which they are not able to spare.'-Addison.

TO GIVE, PRESENT, OFFER, EXHIBIT.

These terms have a common signification, inasmuch as they designate the manual act of transferring some-thing from one's self to another. The first is here as thing from one's self to another. The first is here as elsewhere (v. To give, grant) the most indefinite and extensive in its meaning; it denotes the complete act.** the latter two refer rather to the preliminaries of giv mg, than to the act itself. What is given is actually transferred: what is presented, that is made a present to any one; what is offered is brought in the way of a person, or put in the way of being transferred: we present in giving, and offer in order to give; but it may be that we may give without presenting or offer-

* Vide Girard : " Donner, presenter, offrir."

without giving.

To give is the familiar term which designates the ordinary transfer of property: to present is a term of respect; it includes in it the formality and ceremony of setting before another that which we wish to give: of setting neture another that which we wish to give; to offer is an act of humility or solemnity: it bespeaks the movement of the heart, which impels to the naking a transfer or gift. We give to our domesticks; we present to princes; we offer to God we give to a person what we wish to be received; we present to a person what we him agreeable with the present to a person what we him agreeable with the present to a person what we him agreeable with the present to a person what we him agreeable with the present to a person what we him agreeable when the present to a person what we him agreeable when the present to a person what we him agreeable when the present to a person what we have a present to a person when the present to be present to a person when the present to be present to a person when the present to be present to be present to a person when the present to be present t person what we wish to be received; we present to a person what we think agreeable; we offer what we think acceptable: what is given is supposed to be

Of seven smooth joints a mellow pipe I have, Which with his dying breath Damætas gave

What we offer is supposed to be at our command;

Alexis will thy homely gifts disdain; Nor, shouldst thou offer all thy little store, Will rich Iolas yield, but offer more.—DRYDEN.

What we present need not be either our own or at our command; 'It fell out at the same time, that a very fine colt, which promised great strength and speed, was presented to Octavius: Virgil assured them that was presented to Octavius: Virgil assured them that he would prove a fade: upon trial, it was found as he had said.'—Walsh. We give a person not only our external property, but our esteem, our confidence, our company, and the like; an ambassador presents his credentials at court; a subject offers his services to his

They bear the same relation to each other when applied to words or actions, instead of property; we speak of giving a person an assurance, or a contradiction: of presenting an address, and offering an apology: of giving a reception, presenting a figure, or offering an insult. They may likewise be extended in their application, not only to personal and individual actions, but also to such as respect the publick at large. we give a description in writing, as well as by word of mouth; one presents the publick with the fruit of one's labours; we offer remarks on such things as attract notice, and call for animadversion.

These terms may also be employed to designate the actions of unconscious agents, by which they are characterized: in this sense they come very near to the word exhibit, which, from exhibeo, signifies to hold or put forth. Here the word give is equally indefinite put form. Here the word gave is equany inactine and general, denoting simply to send from itself, and applies mostly to what proceeds from another thing, by a natural cause: thus, a thing is said to give pain, or to give pleasure;

The apprehension of the good Gives but the greater feeling to the worse. SHAKSPEARE.

Things are said to present or offer, that is, in the sense of setting them to view; others only by the figure of personification: thus, a town is said to present a fine view, or an idea presents itself to the mind;

Its pearl the rock presents, its gold the mine.

An opportunity offers, that is, offers itself to our notice:

True genuine dulness mov'd his pity, Unless it offer'd to be witty.-Swift

To exhibit is properly applied in this sense of setting To exhibit is properly applied in this sense of setting forth to view; but expresses likewise the idea of attracting notice also; that which is exhibited is more striking than what is presented or offered; thus a poem is said to exhibit marks of genius; 'The recollection of the past becomes dreadful to a guilty man. It exhibits to him a life thrown away on vanities and follies." BLAIR.

TO INTRODUCE, PRESENT.

To introduce, from the Latin introduce, signifies literally to bring within or into any place; to present (v. To give) signifies to bring into the presence of. they respect persons, the former passes between equals, the latter only among persons of rank and power: one literary man is introduced to another by means of a common friend: he is presented at court by a nobleman. As these terms respect things, we say that subjects

are introduced in the course of conversation; 'The endeavours of freethinkers tend only to introduce slavery and errour among men."—Berkeley Men's particular views upon certain subjects are presented to the notice of others through the medium of publication, or objects are presented to the view :

Now every leaf, and every moving breath, Presents a foe, and every foe a death

DENHAM.

ALLOWANCE, STIPEND, SALARY, WAGES, HIRE, PAY.

All these terms denote a stated sum paid according to certain stipulations. Allowance, from allow (v. To admit, allow), signifies the thing allowed; stipend, in Latin stipendium, from stipes a piece of noney, signifies money paid: salary, in French salaire, Latin salarium, comes from sal salt, which was originally the principal pay for soldiers; wages, in French gage, La the value, from the Herrew y 1, labour, signifies that which is paid for labour; hire expresses the sum for which one is hired, and pay the sum that is to be paid. An allowance is gratuitous; it ceases at the pleasure of the donor; 'Sir Richard Steele was officiously in-

of the donor; 'Sir Richard Steele was officiously in-formed, that Mr. Savage had ridiculed him: by which he was so much exasperated that he withdrew the allowance which he had paid him.'-Johnson. All the rest are the requital for some supposed service; they cease with the engagement made between the parties A stipend is more fixed and permanent than a salary; and that than wages, hire, or pag: a stipend depends upon the fulfilling of an engagement, rather than on the will of an individual; a salary is a matter of con-tract between the giver and receiver, and may be increased or diminished at will.

An allowance may be given in any form, or at any stated times; a stipend and salary are paid yearly, or at even portions of a year; songes, hire, and pay, are estimated by days, weeks, or months, as well as years.

An allowance may be made by, with, and to persons of all ranks, a stipend and salary are assignable only to persons of respectability

> Is not the care of souls a load sufficient? Are not your holy stipends paid for this ?

'Several persons, out of a salary of five hundred pounds, have always lived at the rate of two thousand.'—Swift. Wages are given to labourers; 'The peasant and the mechanick, when they have received the wages of the day, and procured their strong beer and supper, have scarce a wish unsatisfied.'—HAWKES-WORTH. Hire is given to servants;

I have five hundred crowns, The thrifty hire I sav'd under your father. SHAKSPEARE.

Pay is given to soldiers or such as are employed under government;

Come on, brave soldiers, doubt not of the day; . And that once gotten, doubt not of large pay SHAKSPEARE.

GIFT, PRESENT, DONATION, BENEFAC-TION.

Gift is derived from to give, in the sense of what is communicated to another gratuitously of one's property; present is derived from to present, signifying the thing presented to another; donation, from the French donation, and the Latin dono to present or give, is a species of gift.

The gift is an act of generosity or condescension; it

contributes to the benefit of the receiver: the present is an act of kindness, courtesy, or respect; it contributes to the pleasure of the receiver. The gift passes from the rich to the poor, from the high to the low, and creates an obligation: the *present* passes either between equals, or from the inferiour to the superiour. Whatever we receive from God, through the bounty of his Providence, we entitle a gift;

The gifts of heav'n my following song pursues, Aerial honey and ambrosial dews .- DRYDEN.

Whatever we receive from our friends, or whatever

princes receive from their subjects, are entitled pre

Have what you ask, your presents I receive; Land, where and when you please, with ample 'eave. DRYDEN.

We are told by all travellers that it is a custom in the east, never to approach a great man without a present; the value of a gift is often heightened by being given opportunely. The value of a present often depends upon the value we have for the giver; the smallest present from an esteemed friend is of more worth in our

reseal from a resternment of the cost in t what is given to relieve the necessities of any poor person, is a gift; what is given to support an institu-tion is a donation. The clergy are indebted to their patrons for the livings which are in their gift;

And she shall have them, if again she sues, Since you the giver and the gift refuse.—DRYDEN.

It has been the custom of the pious and charitable, in all ages, to make donations for the support of aims-houses, hospitals, infirmaries, and such institutions as serve to diminish the sum of human misery; 'The ecclesiasticks were not content with the donations made them by the Saxon princes and nobles.'—Hume.

Benefaction and donation both denote an act of cha-rity, but the former comprehends more than the latter; a benefaction comprehends acts of personal service in general towards the indigent: donation respects simply the act of giving and the thing given. Benefactions are for private use; donations are for publick service. benefactor to the poor does not confine himself to the distribution of money; he enters into all their necessities, consults their individual cases, and suits his benefactions to their exigencies; his influence, his counsel, his purse, and his property, are employed for their good; his donations form the smallest part of the good which he does; 'The light and influence that the heavens bestow upon this lower world, though the lower world crilege to steal them as it is to pull down a church.'-SOUTH.

TO DEVISE, BEQUEATH.

Devise, compounded of de and vise or visus, participle of video to see or show, signifies to point out specifically; bequeath, compounded of be and queath, in Saxon cuesan, from the Latin queso to say, signific give over to a person by saying or by word of mouth.

To devise is a formal, to bequeath is an informal assignment of our property to another on our death. We devise only by a legal testament; 'The right of inheritance or descent to his children and relations seems to have been allowed much earlier than the right of devising by testament."—Blackstone. We may bequeath simply by word of mouth, or by any expression of our will: we can devise only that which is property in the eye of the law; we may bequeath in the moral sense any thing which we cause to pass over to another: a man devises his lands; he bequeaths his name or his glory to his children;

With this, the Medes to lab'ring age bequeath New lungs .- DRYDEN.

WILL, TESTAMENT.

A will is any written document which contains the last will of a man in regard to the disposal of his property; this may be either a formal or an informal in-strument in the eye of the law; 'Do men make their last wills by word of mouth only?"—STEPHENS. A testament, on the other hand, is a formal instrument regularly drawn up, and duly attested, according to the forms of law; 'He bringeth arguments from the love which the testator always bore'him, imagining that these, or the like proofs, will convict a testament to nave that in it which other men can nowhere by reading find.'-Hooker.

BENEFICENT, BOUNTIFUL OR BOUNTEOUS, MUNIFICENT, GENEROUS, LIBERAL.

Beneficent, from benefacio, signifies doing well or good, that is, by distinction for others: bountiful signifies full of bounty or goodness, from the French bants, Latin bontas; manufecus, in Latin manufecus, from manus and facto, signifies the quality of making presents; generous, in French generous, Latin generous of high blood, noble extraction, and consequently of a noble character; liberal, in French liberal, Latin liberals, from liber free, signifies the quality of being like a free man in distinction from a bondman, and by a natural association being of a free disposition, ready to communicate.

Beneficent respects every thing done for the good of others: bounty, manifernee, and generosity, are species of beneficence: therefally is a quantication of all. The first two denote modes of action: the latter three either modes of action or modes of sentiment. The sincere well wisher to his fellow-creatures is beneficent according to his means; he is bountiful in providing for the counfort and happiness of others; he is munificant in dispensing favours; he is generous in imparting his property; he is liberal in all he does.

Beneficence and bounty are characteristicks of the Deity as well as of his creatures: munificence, generosity, and liberality, are mere human qualities. Beneficence and bounty are the peculiar characteristicks of the Deity: with him the will and the act of doing good are commensurate only with the power: he was beneficent to us as our Creator, and continues his beneficence to us by his daily preservation and protection; to some, however, he has been more bountiful than to others, by providing them with an unequal share of the good things of this life.

The beneficence of a man is regulated by the bounty of Providence: to whom much is given, from him much will be required. Instructed by his word, and illumined by that spark of benevolence which was infused into their souls with the breath of life, good men are ready to believe that they are but stewards of all God's gitts, holden for the use of such as are less bountifully provided for; 'The most beneficent of all beings is He who hath an absolute fulness of perfection in himself, who gave existence to the universe, and so cannot be supposed to want that which he communicated.'—Grove. Good men will desire, as far as their powers extend, to imitate this feature of the Deity by bettering with their beneficent counsel and assistance the condition of all who require it, and by gladdening the hearts of many with their bountiful provisions:

Hail! Universal Lord, be bounteous still To give us only good.—MILTON.

Princes are munificent, friends are generous, patrons liberal. Munificence is measured by the quality and quantity of the thing bestowed: generosity by the extent of the sacrifice made; liberality by the warmth of the spirit discovered. A monarch displays his munificence in the presents which he sends by his ambassadors to another monarch. A generous man will waive his claims, however powerful they may be, when the accommodation or relief of another is in question. A liberal spirit does not stop to inquire the reason for giving, but gives when the occasion offers.

Munificence may spring either from ostentation or a becoming sense of dignity; 'I esteem a habit of benignity greatly preferable to munificence.'—Steele after Cicero. Generosity may spring either from a generous temper, or an easy unconcern about property; 'We may with great confidence and equal truth affirm, that since there was such a thing as mankind in the world, there never was any heart truly great and generous, that was not also tender and compassionate.'—South. Liberality of conduct is dictated, by nothing but a warm heart and an expanded mind: 'The citizen, above all other men, has opportunities of arriving at the highest fruit of wealth, to be liberal without the least expense of a man's own fortune.'—Steele. Munificence is confined simply to giving, but we may be generous in assisting, and liberal in rewarding.

BENEVOLENCE, BENEFICENCE.

Benevolence is literally well-willing; beneficence is literally well doing. The former consists of intention, the latter of action: the former is the cause, the latter the result. Benevolence may exist without beneficence; but beneficence always supposes benevolence: a man is not said to be beneficent who does good from sinister views. The benevolent man enjoys but half his happiness. The benevolent man enjoys but half his happiness if he cannot be beneficent; yet there will still remain to him an ample store of enjoyment in the contemplation of others' happiness: the man who is gratified only with that happiness which he himself is the instrument of producing, is not entitled to the name of benevolent; 'The pity which arises on sight of persons in distress, and the satisfaction of mind which is the consequence of having removed them into a happier state, are instead of a thousand arguments to prove such a thing as a disinterested benevolence.'—GROUE.

As benevolence is an affair of the heart, and beneficence of the outward conduct, the former is confined to no station, no rank, no degree of education or power: the poor may be benevolent as well as the rich, the unlearned as well as the learned, the weak as well as the strong: the latter on the contrary is controlled by outward circumstances, and is therefore principally confined to the rich, the powerful, the wise, and the learned; 'He that banishes gratitude from among men, by so doing stops up the stream of beneficence: for though, in conferring kindness, a truly generous man doth not aim at a return, yet he looks to the qualities of the person obliged.'—Grove.

BENEVOLENCE, BENIGNITY, HUMANITY, KINDNESS, TENDERNESS.

Benevolence is well-willing; benignity, in Latin benignitas, from bene and gigno, signifies the quality or disposition for producing good; humanity, in French humanite, Latin humanitas, from humanus and homo, signifies the quality of belonging to man, or having what is common to man, kindness, the disposition to be kind, or the act which marks that disposition; tenderness, a tender feeling.

Benevolence and benignity lie in the will; humanity lies in the heart; kindness and tenderness in the affections; benevolence indicates a general good will to all mankind; benignity a particular good will, flowing out of certain relations; humanity is a general tone of feeling; kindness and tenderness are particular modes of feeling.

Benevolence consists in the wish or intention to do good: it is confined to no station or object: the benevolence man may be rich or poor, and his benevolence will be exerted wherever there is an opportunity of doing good: benignity is always associated wish power, and accompanied with condescension.

Benevolence in its fullest sense is the sum of moral excellence, and comprehends every other virtue; when taken in this acceptation, benignity, humanity, kindness, and tenderness, are but modes of benevolence.

Benevolence and benignity tend to the communi cating of happiness; humanity is concerned in the removal of evil. Benevolence is common to the Creator and his creatures; it differs only in degree; the former has the knowledge and power as well as the will to do good; man often has the will to do good without having the power to carry it into effect; 'I have heard say, that Pope Clement XI. never passes through the people, who always kneel in crowds and ask his benediction, but the tears are seen to flow from his eyes. This must proceed from an imagination that he is the father of all these people, and that he is touched with so extensive a benevolence, that it breaks out into a passion of tears.'—Steele. Benignity is ascribed to the stars, to heaven, or to princes; ignorant and superstitious people are apt to ascribe their good fortune to the benign influence of the stars rather than to the gracious dispensations of Providence; 'A constant benignity in commerce with the rest of the world, which ought to run through all a man's actions, has effects more useful to those whom you oblige, and is less ostentatious in yourself."—STELLE. Humanity belongs to man only; it is his peculiar characteristick, and ought at all times to be his boast; when he throws off this, his distinguishing badge, he loses every thing valuable in him; it is a virtue that is indispensable in

his present suffering condition: humanity is as universal in its application as benevolence; wherever there is distress, humanity thes to its relief; humanity is, however, not merely an attribute of man; it is also the peculiar feeling for one's fellow-creatures which exists in some men in a greater degree than in others; 'The greatest wits I have conversed with are men emment for their humanity.'-Addison. Kindness and tenderness are partial modes of affection, confined to those who know or are related to each other: we are kind to friends and acquaintances, tender towards those who are near and dear: kindness is a mode of affection most fitted for social beings; it is what every one can show, and every one is pleased to receive; 'Bene can show, and everyone is present ordered. Some feeting say, is all founded in weakness; and whatever be pretended, the kindness that passeth between men and men is by every man directed to himself. This it must be conevery man directed to himself. This it must be confessed is of a piece with that hopeful philosophy which, having patched man up out of the four elements, attributes his being to chance. Grove. Tenderness is a state of feeling that is sometimes praiseworthy; the young and the weak demand tenderness from those who stand in the closest connexion with them, but this feeling may be carried to an excess so as to injure the object on which it is fixed; 'Dependence is a perpetual call upon humanity, and a greater incitement to tenderness and pity than any other motive whatsoever.'—Addison.

There are no circumstances or situation in life which

preclude the exercise of benevolence: next to the pleasure of making others happy, the benevolent man rejoices in seeing them so: the benign influence of a benevolent monarch extends to the remotest corner of his dominions: benignity is a becoming attribute for a prince, when it does not lead him to sanction vice by its impunity; it is highly to be applauded in him as far as it renders him forgiving of minor offences, gracious to all who are deserving of his favours, and ready to afford a gratification to all whom it is in his power to serve: the multiplied misfortunes to which all men are exposed afford ample scope for the exercise of humanity, which, in consequence of the unequal distribation of wealth, power, and talent, is peculiar to no situation of life; even the profession of arms does not exclude humanity from the breasts of its followers; and when we observe men's habits of thinking in various situations, we may remark that the soldier, with arms by his side, is commonly more humane than the partisan with arms in his hands. Kindness is always an amiable feeling, and in a grateful mind always begets kindness: but it is sometimes ill bestowed upon selfish people, who requite it by making fresh exactions tenderness is frequently little better than an amiable weakness, when directed to a wrong end, and fixed on an improper object; the false tenderness of parents has often been the ruin of children.

BENEFIT, FAVOUR, KINDNESS, CIVILITY.

Benefit signifies here that which benefits; favour, in French faveur, Latin favor and faveo to bear good will, signifies the act flowing from good will; kindness signifies an action that is kind; civility, that which is civil (v. Civil).

The idea of an action gratuitously performed for the advantage of another is common to these terms.

Benefits and favours are granted by superiours kindnesses and civilities pass between equals.

Benefits serve to relieve actual wants: the power of conferring and the necessity of receiving them, constitute the relative difference in station between the giver and the receiver: favours tend to promote the interest or convenience: the power of giving and the advantage of receiving are dependent on local circumstances, more than on difference of station. Kindnesses and civilities serve to afford mutual accommodation by a reciprocity of kind offices on the many and various occasions which offer in human life: they are not so important as either benefits or favours, but they carry a charm with them which is not possessed by the former. Kindnesses are more endearing than civilities, and pass mostly between those who are known to each other: civilities may pass between strangers.

Dependence affords an opportunity for conferring benefits; partiality gives rise to fanours: kindnesses are the result of personal regard: civilities, of general

benevelence. A master confers his benefits on such of his domesticks as are entitled to encouragement for their fidelity. Men in power distribute their favour's so as to increase their influence. Friends, in their intercourse with each other, are perpetually called upon to perform kindnesses for each other. There is no man so mean that he may not have n in his power to show civilities to those who are above him.

Benefits tend to draw those closer to each other who by station in life are set at the greatest distance from each other: affection is engendered in him who benefits; and devoted attachment in him who is benefited; I think I have a right to conclude that there is such a thing as generosity in the world. Though if I were under a mistake in this, I should say as Cicero in relation to the immortality of the soul, I willingly err; for the contrary notion naturally teaches people to be ungrateful by possessing them with a persuasion concerning their benefactors, that they have no regard to them in the benefits they bestow?—Grove. Favours increase obligation beyond its due limits; if they are not asked and granted with discretion, they may produce servility on the one hand, and haughtiness on the other; 'A favour well bestowed is almost as great an honour to him who confers it, as to him who receives What, indeed, makes for the superiour reputation of the patron in this case is, that he is always sur-rounded with specious pretences of unworthy candidates."-STEELE. Kindnesses are the offspring and parent of affection; they convert our multiplied wants into so many enjoyments; 'Ingratitude is too base to return a kindness, and too proud to regard it.'-South. Civilities are the sweets which we gather in the way as we pass along the journey of life: 'A common civility to an impertment fellow often draws upon one a great many unforeseen troubles.'-STKELE.

BENEFIT, SERVICE, GOOD OFFICE.

These terms, like the former (v. Benefit, favour), agree in denoting some action performed for the good of another, but they differ in the principle on which the action is performed.

A benefit (v. Benefit, favour) is perfectly gratuitous, it produces an obligation: a service (v. Advantage) is not altogether gratuitous; it is that at least which may be expected, though it cannot be demanded: a good office is between the two; it is in part gratuitous, and in part such as one may reasonably expect.

Benefits flow from superiours, and services from inferiours or equals; but good offices are performed by equals only. Princes confer benefits on their subjects; subjects perform services for their princes; neighbours do good offices for each other. Benefits are sometimes the reward of services; good offices produce a return from the receiver.

Benefits consist of such things as serve to relieve the difficulties, or advance the interests, of the receiver: services consist in those acts which tend to lessen the trouble, or increase the case and conveni ence of the person served: good offices consist in the employ of one's credit, influence, and mediation for the advantage of another: it is a species of voluntary service.

Humanity leads to benefits; the zeal of devotion or friendship renders services; general good-will dictates good offices.

It is a great benefit to assist an embarrassed trades man out of his difficulty; 'I have often pleased my self with considering the two kinds of benefit which accrue to the publick from these my speculations, and which, were It is speak after the manner of logicians, I should distinguish into the material and formal.'—Additional to the material and formal.'—Additional to see his langer; 'Cicero, whose learning and services to his country are so well known, was inflamed by a passion for glory to an extravagant degree.'—Hughes. It is a good office for any one to in terpose his mediation to settle disputes, and heal divisions; 'There are soweral persons who have many pleasures and entertainments in their possession which they do not enjoy It is therefore a kind and good office to acquaint them with their own happiness.'—Stelle.

It is possible to be loaded with benefits so as to affect one's independence of character. Services are some-

times a source of dissatisfaction and disappointment when they do not meet with the renumeration or re-turn which they are supposed to deserve. Good offices tend to nothing but the increase of good will. Those who perform them are too independent to expect a return, and those who receive them are too senable of their value not to seek an opportunity of making a return.

TO OFFER, BID, TENDER, PROPOSE.

Offer signifies the same as before (v. To Offer, exhibit); had, in Saxon besdan, bulden to offer, old German buden, low German bedan, high German buten, &c. comes in all probability from the Latin vito and invito, from in and viam, signifying to call into the way or measure of another; tender, like the word tend, from tendo to stretch, signifies to stretch forth by way of effering: propose, in Latin proposar, perfect of pro-pono to place or set before, likewise characterizes a mode of offering.

Offer is employed for that which is literally transferable, or for that which is indirectly communicable bid and tender belong to offer in the first sense; propose belongs to offer in the lattersense. To offer is a voluntary and discretionary act; the offer may be accepted or rejected at pleasure; to bid and tender are specifick modes of offering which depend on circum stances: one bids with the hope of its being accepted; one tenders from a prudential motive, and in order to serve specifick purposes. We after money to a poor person, it is an act of charity or good nature; or we efter a reward by way of inducing another to do a thing, which is an act of discretion;

Nor should thou offer all thy little store, Will rich Iolas yield but offer more.—DRYDEN. Should all these offers for my friendship call, 'T is he that offers, and I scorn them all .- POPE.

We bid a price for the purchase of a house, it is a commercial dealing subject to the rules of commercial 'To give interest a share in friendship, is to sell it by inch of candle; he that bids most shall have it; and when it is mercenary, there is no depending upon it. —COLLIER. We tender a sum of money by way of payment, it is a matter of prudence in order to fulfil an obligation; 'Aulus Gellius tells a story of one Lucius Neratius who made it his diversion to give a blow to whomsoever he pleased, and then tender them the legal forfeiture."—BLACKSTONE. By the same rule one offers a person the use of one's horse; one bids a sum at an auction; one tenders one's services to the

government.

To offer and propose are both employed in matters of practice or speculation; but the former is a less definite and decisive act than the latter; we offer an opinion by way of promoting a discussion; we propose a plan for the deliberation of others. Sentiments which differ widely from those of the major part of the pre sent company ought to be offered with modesty and caution; 'Our author offers no reason.'-Locke. eaution; Our author offers no reason.—Locke. We should not propose to another what we should be un-willing to do ourselves; We propose measures for securing to the young the possession of pleasure (by connecting with it religion).—Blair. We commonly fire by way of obliging; we commonly propose by way of arranging or accommodating. It is an act of nuerility to offer to do more than one is enabled to perorm; it does not evince a sincere disposition for peace o propose such terms as we know cannot be accepted; Upon the proposal of an agreeable object, a man's choice will rather incline him to accept than refuse it.' -SOUTH.

TO INVEST, ENDUE OR ENDOW.

To invest, from vestio, signifies to clothe with any thing; endue or endow, from the Latin induo, signifies to put on any thing. One is invested with that which is external: one is endued with that which is internal. We invest a person with an office or a dignity: one evulues a person with good qualities. The investment is a real external action; but endue may be merely fictious or mental. The king is invested with supreme lover endues his mistress with every earthly perfection; 'As in the natural body, the eye does not speak, nor the tongue see; so neither in the spiritual, is every one endued also with the gift and spirit of government. -South. Endow is but a variation of endue, and yet it seems to have acquired a distinct office; we may say that a person is endued or endowed with a good un derstanding; but as an act of the imagination endow is not to be substituted for endue; for we do not say that it endows but endues things with properties.

TO CONFER, BESTOW.

Confer, in French conferer, Latin confere, com-pounded of con and fero, signifies to bring something towards a person, or place it upon him, in which sense it is allied to bestow (v. To give, grant).

Conferring is an act of authority; bestowing that

of charity or generosity. Princes and men in power confer; people in a private station bestow. Honours, dignities, privileges, and rank, are the things conferred; 'The conferring this honour upon him, would increase the credit he had.'—Clarrodor. Favours, kindnesses, and pecuniary relief, are the things bestowed; 'You always exceed expectations as if yours was not your own, but to bestow on wanting merit.' DRYDEN

Merit, favour, interest, caprice, and intrigue, give rise to conferring; necessity, solicitation, and private affection, lead to bestowing. England affords more than one instance in which the highest honours of the state have been conferred on persons of distinguished merit, though not of elevated birth; it is the characteristick of Christianity, that it inspires its followers with a desire of bestowing their goods on the poor and necessitous

It is not easy to confer a favour on the unthankful the value of a kindness is greatly enhanced by the manner in which it is bestowed;

On him confer the poet's sacred name, Whose lofty voice declares the heavenly flame. ADDISON.

' It sometimes happens, that even enemies and envious persons bestow the sincerest marks of esteem when they least design it.'-STEELE.

TO MINISTER, ADMINISTER, CONTRIBUTE.

To minister, from the noun minister, in the sense of a servant, signifies to act in subservience to another, either in a good, bad, or indifferent sense: we minister to the caprices or indulgences of another when we encourage them unnecessarily; or, we minister to one who is entitled to our services; administer is taken in the good sense of serving another to his advantage: thus the good Samaritan administered to the comfort of the man who had fallen among thieves; contribute, from the Latin contribuo, or con and tribuo to bestow, signifying to bestow for the same end, or for some particular purpose, is taken in either a good or bad sense; we may contribute to the relief of the indigent, or we may contribute to the follies and vices of others.

It is the part of the Christian minister to minister to the spiritual wants of the flock intrusted to his charge; Those good men who take such pleasure in relieving the miserable for Christ's sake, would not have been less forward to minister unto Christ himself.'—Atter-It is the part of every Christian to administer, as far as lies in his power, comfort to those who are in want, consolation to the afflicted, advice to those who ask for it, and require it; help to those who are feeble, and support to those who cannot uphold themselves. On the same ground we speak of grace or spiritual gifts being administered; 'By the universal administration of grace, begun by our blessed Saviour, enlarged by his Apostles, carried on by their immediate successors, and to be completed by the rest to the world's end; all types that darkened this faith are enlichtered? lightened.'—SPRATT. It is the part of all who are in high stations to contribute to the dissemination of religion and morality among their dependants; but there titious or mental. The king is invested with supreme authority; 'A strict and efficacious constitution, indeed, which invests the church with no power at all, but where men will be so civil as to obey it.'—South. A themselves; 'Parents owe their children not on'y

material subsistence for their body, but much more spiritual contributions for their mind. —Dioby. As expressing the act of unconscious agents, they bear a similar distinction:

He flings the pregnant ashes through the air, And speaks a mighty prayer, Both which the minist ring winds around all Egypt

Thus do our eyes, as do all common mirrors, Successively reflect succeeding images, Not what they would, but must! a star or toad, Not what they would, but mast, Just as the hand of chance administers.

Congreve.

May from my bones a new Achilles rise That shall infest the Trojan colonies
With fire, and sword, and famine, when, at length,
Time to our great attempts contributes strength.

TO CONDUCE, CONTRIBUTE.

To conduce, from the Latin conduce, or con and duco. signifying to bring together for the same end, is applied to that which serves the full purpose; to contribute, as in the preceding article, is applied to that only which serves as a subordinate instrument: the former is always taken in a good sense, the latter in a bad or good sense. Exercise conduces to the health; it contributes

to give vigour to the frame.

bear .- Cowley.

Nothing conduces more to the well-being of any rommunity than a spirit of subordination among all ranks and classes: It is to be allowed that doing all honour to the superiority of heroes above the rest of mankind, must needs conduce to the glory and advan-tage of a nation.'-Steele. A want of firmness and vigilance in the government or magistrates contributes greatly to the spread of disaffection and rebellion; The true choice of our diet, and our companions at it, seems to consist in that which contributes most to cheerfulness and refreshment.'-FULLER.

Schemes of ambition never conduce to tranquillity of mind. A single failure may contribute sometimes

to involve a person in perpetual trouble.

TAX, CUSTOM, DUTY, TOLL, IMPOST, TRIBUTE, CONTRIBUTION.

Tax, in French taxe, Latin taxo, from the Greek $\tau d\sigma\sigma\omega$, $\tau d\zeta\omega$, to dispose or put in order, signifies what is disposed in order for each to pay; custom signifies that which is given under certain circumstances, according to custom; duty, that which is given as a due or debt; toll, in Saxon toll, &c. Latin telonium, from the Greek τέλος a custom, signifies a particular kind of

custom or due.

Tax is the most general of these terms, and applies to or implies whatever is paid by the people to the government, according to a certain estimate: the customs are a species of tax which are less specifick than other taxes, being regulated by custom rather than any definite law; the customs apply particularly to what was customarily given by merchants for the goods which they imported from abroad: the duty is a species of tax more positive and binding than the custom being a specifick estimate of what is due upon goods. according to their value; hence it is not only applied to goods that are imported, but also to many other articles of inland produce; toll is that species of tax which serves for the repair of roads and havens.

The preceding terms refer to that which is levied by authority on the people; but they do not directly express the idea of levying or paying; impost, on the contrary, signifies literally that which is imposed; and tribute that which is paid or yielded: the former, therefore exclude that idea of coercion which is included in the latter. The tax is levied by the consent of many; the *impost* is imposed by the will of one; and the *tribute* is paid at the demand of one or a few; the tax serves for the support of the nation; the impost and the tribute serve to enrich a government. querors lay heavy imposts upon the conquered countries; distant provinces pay a tribute to the princes to whom they owe allegiance. Contribution signifies the tribute of many in unison, or for the same end; in this general sense it includes all the other terms; for taxes and imposts are alike paid by many for the same

purpose; but as the predominant idea in contribution is that of common consent, it supposes a degree of freedom in the agent which is incompatible with the exercise of authority expressed by the other terms. hence the term is with more propriety applied to those cases in which men voluntarily unite in giving towards any particular object; as charitable contributions, or contributions in support of a war; but it may be taken in the general sense of a forced payment, as in speaking of military contribution.

TAX, RATE, ASSESSMENT.

Tax, agreeably to the above explanation (v. Tax), and rate, from the Latin ratus and reor to think or estimate, both derive their principal meaning from the valuation or proportion according to which any sum is demanded from the people; but the tax is imposed directly by the government for publick purposes, as the land tax, the window tax, and the like; and the rate is imposed indirectly for the local purposes of each parish, as the church rates, the poor rates, and the like. The tax or rate is a general rule or ratio, by which a certain sum is raised upon a given number of persons; the assessment is the application of that rule to the individual.

The house-duty is a tax upon houses, according to their real or supposed value; the poor's rate is a rate laid on the individual likewise, according to the value of his house, or the supposed rent which he pays; the assessment in both these, is the valuation of the house, which determines the sum to be paid by each individual: it is the business of the minister to make the tax; of the parish officers to make the rate; of the commissioners or assessors to make the assessment; the former has the publick to consider; the latter the individual. An equitable $t\alpha x$ must not bear harder upon one class of the community than another: an equitable assessment must not bear harder upon one inhabitant than another.

TO ALLOT, ASSIGN, APPORTION, DISTRIBUTE.

Allot is compounded of the Latin al or ad and the word lot, which owes its origin to the Saxon and other northern languages. It signifies literally to set apart as a particular lot; assign, in French assigner, Latin assigno, is compounded of as or ad and signo to sign, or mark to, or for, signifying to mark out for any one, apportion is compounded of ap or ad and portion, signifying to portion out for a certain purpose; distribute, in Latin distributus, participle of dis and tribuo, signifies to bestow or portion out to several.

To allot is to dispose on the ground of utility for the sake of good order; to assign is to communicate according to the merit of the object; to apportion is to regulate according to the due proportion; to distribute

is to give in several distinct portions.

is to give in several distinct portions.

A portion of one's property is allotted to charitable purposes, or a portion of one's time to religious meditation; 'Every one that has been long dead, has a due proportion of praise allotted him, in which, while he lived, his friends were too profuse, and his enemies too sparing.'—Addison. A prize is assigned to the most meritorious, or an honourable post to those whose abilities entitle them to distinction; I find by several bilter in accient authors that when the Roman were hints in ancient authors, that when the Romans were in the height of power and luxury they assigned out of their vast dominions an island called Anticyra, as a habitation for madmen.'-STEELE. A person's business is apportioned to the time and abilities he has for performing it; 'Of the happiness and misery of present condition, part is distributed by nature, and part is in a great measure apportioned by ourselves.'

—Johnson. A person's alms ought to be distributed among those who are most indigent;

From thence the cup of mortal man he fills, Blessings to these, to those distributes ills .- POPE

When any complicated undertaking is to be performed by a number of individuals, it is necessary to allot to each his distinct task. It is the part of a wise prince to assign the highest offices to the most worthy, and to apportion to every one of his ministers an em-ployment suited to his peculiar character and qualifi

eations; the business of the state thus distributed will proceed with regularity and exactitude.

TO ALLOT, APPOINT, DESTINE.

To allot is taken in a similar sense as in the preceding article; appoint, in French appointer, Latin appono, that is, ep or ad and pono to place, signifies to put in a particular place, or in a particular manner; destine, in Latin destine, compounded of de and stino, sto or sisto, signifies to place apart.

Allot is used only for things, appoint and destine for persons or things. A space of ground is allotted for cultivation; a person is appointed as steward or governour; a person is appointed as sieward of governour; a youth is destined for a particular profession. Allotments are mostly made in the time past or present; they are made for a special purpose, and according to a given design, whence we may speak of the allotments of Providence; 'It is unworthy a reasonable being to spend any of the little time allotted us without some tendency, direct or oblique, to the as without some tendency, direct or conduct, to the end of our existence."—Johnson. Appointments respect either the present or the future; they mostly regard matters of human prudence; 'Having notified to my good friend, Sir Roger, that I should set out for London the next day, his horses were ready at the appointed hour."—Strelle. Destinations always respect some distant purposes, and include preparatory measures; they may be either the work of God or man; 'Look round and survey the various beauties of the globe, which Heaven has destined for man, and the glove, which fleaven has described to have a consider whether a world thus exquisitely framed could be meant for the abode of misery and pain."—
JOHNSON. A conscientious man allots a portion of his annual income to the relief of the poor; when publick meetings are held it is necessary to appoint a particular day for the purpose: our plans in life are defeated by a thousand contingencies: the man who builds a house is not certain he will live to use it for the purpose for which it was destined.

DESTINY, FATE, LOT, DOOM.

Destiny, from destine (v. To appoint) signifies either the power that destines, or the thing destined; fate, in Latin fatum, participle of for to speak or decree, signifies that which is decreed, or the power that decrees lot, in German loos, signifies a ticket, die, or any other thing by which the casual distribution of things is determined; and in an extended sense, it expresses the portion thus assigned by chance; doom, in Saxon dome, Danish döm, most probably like the word deem, comes from the Hebrew 77 to judge, signifying the thing

judged, spoken, or decreed.

All these terms are employed with regard to human events which are not under one's control; among the heathens d stiny and fate were considered as deties, who each in his way could direct human affairs, and were both superiour even to Jupiter himself; the Destinies, or Parcæ as they were termed, presided only over life and death; but fate was employed in ruling the general affairs of men. Since revelation has instructed mankind in the nature and attributes of the true God, these blind powers are now not acknowledged to exist in the overruling providence of an all-wise and an all-good Being; the terms destiny and fate therefore have now only a relative sense, as to what happens without the will or control of the individual who is the subject of it.

Destiny is used in regard to one's station and walk in life; fate in regard to what one suffers; lot in regard to what one gets or possesses; and doom is that portion of one's d stiny or fate which depends upon the will

of another: destroy is marked out; fate is fixed; a lot is assigned; a doom is passed.

It was the destroy of Julius Casar to act a great part in the world, and to establish a new form of government at Rome; it was his fate at last to die by the hands of assa-sins, the chief of whom had been his avowed friends; had he been contented with an humbler lot than that of an empire, he might have enjoyed honours, riches, and a long life; his doom was sealed by the last step which be took in making himself emby the last step which he dook in making times in the peror; it is not permitted for us to inquire into our lattice destray; it is our duy to submit to our fate, to be contented with our lot, and prepared for our lattices.

doom; a parent may have great influence over the destiny of his child, by the education he gives to him, or the principles he instils into his mind;

If death be your design—at least, said she, Take us along to share your destiny.—DRYDEN. There are many who owe their unhappy fate entirely to the want of early habits of piety ;

The gods these armies and this force employ, The hostile gods conspire the fate of Troy .- POPE

Riches and poverty may be assigned to us as our lot, but the former will not ensure us happiness, nor the latter prevent us from being happy if we have a con tented temper;

To labour is the lot of man below, And when Jove gave us life, he gave us wo.

Criminals must await the doom of an earthly judge; but all men, as sinners, must meet the doom which is prepared for them at the awful day of judgement;

Oh! grant me, gods! ere Hector meets his doom, All I can ask of Heav'n, an early tomb.—Pope.

It is the destiny of some men to be always changing their plan of life; it is but too frequently the fate of authors to labour for the benefit of mankind, and to reap nothing for themselves but poverty and neglect; it is the lot but of very few, to enjoy what they themselves consider a competency.

DESTINY, DESTINATION.

Both destiny and destination are used for the thing destined: but the former is said in relation to a man's important concerns, the latter only of particular circumstances; in which sense it may likewise be employed for the act of destining.

Destiny is the point or line marked out in the walk of life; destination is the place fixed upon in particular: as every man has his peculiar destiny, so every tra-veller has his particular destination. Destiny is alto-gether set above human control; no man can deter-mine, though he may influence the destiny of another; destination is, however, the specifick act of an indivi-dual, either for himself or another: we leave the destiny of a man to develope itself; but we may inquire about his own destination, or that of his children: it is a consoling reflection that the destinies of short-sighted mortals, like ourselves, are in the hands of One who both can and will overrule them to our advantage if we place full reliance in Him:

> At the pit of Acheron Meet one i' th' morning; thither he Will come to know his destiny.—SHAKSPEARE.

In the destination of children for their several professions or callings, it is of importance to consult their par-ticular turn of mind, as well as inclination; 'Moore's original destination appears to have been for trade JOHNSON.

TO SENTENCE, DOOM, CONDEMN.

To sentence, or pass sentence, is to give a final opinion or decision which is to influence the fate of an object; condemn, from damnum a loss, is to pass such a sentence as shall be to the hurt of an object: doom, which is a variation from damnum, has the same mean-

Sentence is the generick, the two others specifick terms. Sentence and condemn are used in the juridical as well as the moral sense; doom is employed in the moral sense only. In the juridical sense, sentence is indefinite; condemn is definite; a criminal may be sentenced to a nild or severe punishment; he is always con-demned to that which is severe; he is sentenced to Im-prisonment, or transportation, or death: he is con-demned to the galleys, to transportation for life, or to death.

In the moral application they are in like manner distinguished. To sentence is a sofier term than to continguished. To sentence is a softer term than to con-demn, and this is less than to doom. Sentence applies to inanimate objects; condemn and doom only to per sons or that which is personal. An author is sentenced by the decision of the publick to suffer neglect; a thing is sentencea to be thrown away which is esseemed as worthless; we may be condemned to hear the prating of a loquacious person; we may be doomed to spend our lives in penury and wietchedness. Sentence, particularly when employed as a noun, may even be favour.

Since fote divides then, since I must less these able to the interests of a person; condemn is always prejudicial, either to his interest, his comfort, or his reputation; doom is always destructive of his happiness it is that which always runs most counter to the wishes of an individual. It is of importance for an author, that a critick should pronounce a favourable sentence on his works; 'Let him set out some of Luther's works that by them we may pass sentence upon his doctrines. That by them we may pass solvent apparatus continuous —ATTERBURY. But, in the signification of a sentence passed by a judge, it is, when absolutely taken, always in a bad sense; 'At the end of the tenth book the poet jons this beautiful circumstance, that they offered up their penitential prayers on the very place where their judge appeared to them when he pronounced their sen-tence:—Addison. Immoral writers are justly con-demaned to oblivion or perpetual infamy; 'Liberty (Thomson's Liberty) called in vain upon her votaries to read her praises, her praises were condemned to har-bour spiders and gather dust.'-Johnson. Some of the best writers have been doomed to experience neglect in their life time; 'Even the abridger, compiler, and translator, though their labours cannot be ranked with those of the diurnal biographer, yet must not be

rashly doomed to annihilation.—Johnson.

A sentence and condemnation is always the act of some person or conscious agent: doom is sometimes the fruit of circumstances. Tauquin the Proud was sen-tenced by the Roman people to be banished from Rome: Regulus was condemned to the most cruel death by the Carthaginians; many writers have been doomed to pass their lives in obscurity and want, whose works have acquired for them lasting honours after their

death.

CHANCE, FORTUNE, FATE.

Chance, probably contracted from the Latin cadens falling, is here considered as the cause of what falls out; fortune, in French fortune, Latin fortuna, from fors chance, in Hebrew 771; fate signifies the same as in the preceding article. These terms have served at all times as cloaks for human ignorance, and before man-kind were favoured by the light of Divine Revelation, they had an imaginary importance which has now hapvanished.

Believers in Divine Providence no longer conceive the events of the world as left to themselves, or as under the control of any unintelligent or unconscious agent, but ascribe the whole to an overruling mind, which, though invisible to the bodily eye, is clearly to be traced by the intellectual eye, wherever we turn ourselves. In conformity however to the preconceived notions attached to these words, we now employ them in regard to the agency of secondary causes. But how far a Christian may use them without disparagement to the majesty of the Divine Being, it is not so much my business to inquire, as to define their ordinary accep-tation. Some there are when tation; 'Some there are who utterly proscribe the name of chance as a word of impious and profane signification: and indeed if it be taken by us in that sense in which it was used by the heathens, so as to make any thing casual in respect of God himself, their excep-tion ought to be admitted. But to say a thing is a chance or casualty as it relates to second causes, is not profaneness, but a great toth.'—South.

In this ordinary sense, chance is the generick, fortune and fate are specifick terms: chance applies to all things personal or otherwise: fortune and fate are mostly said

of that which is personal.

Chance neither forms orders nor designs: neither knowledge nor intention is attributed to it; its events are uncertain and variable;

Chance aids their daring with unhop'd success.

Fortune forms plans and designs, but without choice: we attribute to it an intention without discernment; it is said to be blind; 'We should learn that none but intellectual possessions are what we can properly call our All things from without are but borrowed. What fortune gives us is not ours, and whatever she gives she can take away.'—Steele. Fate forms plans and chains of causes; intention, knowledge, and power perfections of the mind, yet the declaration of them

Since fate divides then, since I must lose thee, For pity's sake, for love's, oh! suffer me, Thus languishing, thus dying, to approach thee;

And sigh my last adieu upon thy bosom .- TRAPP. A person goes as chance directs him when he has no express object to determine his choice one way or other; his fortune favours him, if without any expectation he gets the thing he wishes; his fate wills it, if he reaches the desired point contrary to what he intended.

Men's success in their undertakings depends oftener on chance than on their ability: we are ever ready to ascribe to ourselves what we owe to our good fortune; it is the fate of some men to fail in every thing they undertake.

When speaking of trivial matters, this language is unquestionably innocent, and any objection to their use must spring from an over scrupulous conscience

If I suffer my horse to direct me in the road I take to London, I may fairly attribute it to chance if I take the right instead of the left; if I meet with an agree-able companion by the way I shall not hesitate to call it my good fortune that led me to take one road in prefermy good fortune that learner to take one road in preference to another; if it is spite of any previous intention to the contrary, I should be led to take the same road repeatedly, and as often to meet with an agreeable companion, I shall immediately say that is my fate to neet with an agreeable companion whenever I go to London. London.

CHANCE, PROBABILITY.

Chance signifies the same as in the preceding article; probability, in French probabilité, Latin probabilitas, from probabilis and proba to prove, signifies the quality

of being able to be proved or made good.

These terms are both employed in forming an esti-mate of future events; but the chance is either for or against, the probability is always for a thing. Chance is but a degree of probability; there may in this latter case be a chance where there is no probability. A chance affords a possibility; many chances are requisite to constitute a probability.

What has been once may, under similar circum

stances, be again; for that there is a chance; what has fallen to one man may fall to another; so far he has a chance in his favour; but in all the chances of life there will be no probability of success, where a man does not unite industry with integrity;

Thus equal deaths are dealt with equal chance, By turns they quit their ground, by turns advance.

Chance cannot be calculated upon; it is apt to produce disappointment: probability justifies hope; it is sanctioned by experience; "There never appear," says Swift, "more than five or six men of genius in an age, but if they were united the world could not stand before them." It is happy therefore for mankind that of this union there is no probability."—Johnson.

CHANCE, HAZARD.

Chance signifies the same as in the preceding article. hazard comes from the oriental zar and tzar, signifying any thing bearing an impression, particularly the dice used in chance games, which is called by the Italians

zara, and by the Spaniards azar.

Both these terms are employed to mark the course of future events, which is not discernible by the human eye. With the Deity there is neither chance nor hazard; his plans are the result of omniscience; but the designs and actions of men are all dependent on chance of hazard. Chance may be favourable or unfavourable, more commonly the former; hazard is always unfavourable: it is properly a species of chance. There is a chance either of gaining or losing: there is a hazard of In most speculations the chance of succeeding scarcely outweighs the hazard of losing;

Against ill chances men are ever merry, But heaviness foreruns the good event.

Though wit and learning are certain and habitual

which alone brings the repute, is subject to a thousand countries put themselves in the way of undergoing hazards.'—South.

TO HAZARD, RISK, VENTURE.

Hazard signifies the same as in the preceding article; risk may be traced to the French risque, the Italian rischio, and the Spanish riesgo, and has been further traced by Meursius to the barbarous Greek word of nkoy fortune or chance, but its more remote derivation is uncertain; venture is the same as adventure

All these terms denote actions performed under an An these terms denote actions performed under an uncertainty of the event; but hazard bespeaks a want of design and choice on the part of the agent; to risk implies a choice of alternatives; to venture, a calculation and balance of probabilities; one hazards and risks under the fear of an evil; one ventures with the hope of a good. He who hazards an opinion or an as hope of a good. He who hazards an opinion or an assertion does it from presumptuous feelings and upon slight grounds; chances are rather against him than for him that it may prove erroneous;

They list with women each degenerate name Who dares not hazard life for future fame.

He who risks a battle does it often from necessity; he who chooses the least of two evils, although the event is dubious, yet he fears less from a failure than from inaction; If the adventurer risques honour, he risques more than the knight.'—HAWKESWORTH. He who ventures on a mercantile speculation does it from a love of gain; he flatters himself with a favourable event, and acquires beldness from the prospect; 'Socrates, in his discourse before his death, says, he did not know whether his body shall (would) remain after death, but he thought so, and had such hopes of it that he was very willing to venture his life upon these hopes.'-Til-

There are but very few circumstances to justify us in hazarding; there may be several occasions which render it necessary to risk, and very many cases in which it may be advantageous to venture.

DANGER, PERIL, HAZARD.

Danger, in French danger, comes from the Latin dannum a loss or damage, signifying the chance of a loss; peril, in French peril, comes from pereo, which signifies either to go over, or to perish, and periculum, which signifies literally that which is undergone; designating a critical situation, a rude trial, which may terminate in one's ruin; hazard signifies the same as in the preceding article

The idea of chance or uncertainty is common to all these terms; but the two former may sometimes be foreseen and calculated upon; the latter is purely contingent. Danger and peril are applied to a positive evil; hazard may simply respect the loss of a good; risks are voluntarily run from the hope of good: there may be many dangers included in a hazard; and there cannot be a hazard without some danger.

A general hazards a battle, in order to disengage himself from a difficulty; he may by this step involve himself in imminent danger of losing his honour or his life; but it is likewise possible that by his superiour skill he may set both out of all danger; we are hourly exposed to dangers which no human foresight can guard against, and are frequently induced to engage in enterprises at the hazard of our lives, and of all that we hold dear:

One was their care, and their delight was one; One common hazard in the war they shared.

DRYDEN.

Dungers are far and near, ordinary and extraordinary; they meet us if we do not go in search of them;

Proud of the favours mighty Jove has shown, On certain dangers we too rashly run .- Pope.

Perils are always distant and extraordinary; we must go out of our course to expose ourselves to them: in the go out of our course to expose ourseres to them: In the quiet walk of life as in the most busy and tumultuous, it is the lot of man to be surrounded by danger; he has nothing which he is not in danger of losing; and knows of nothing which he is not in danger of suffering: the mariner and the traveller who go in search of unknown

From that dire deluge through the watery waste, Such length of years, such various perils past, At last escaped, to Latium we repair.—DRYDEN.

The same distinction exists between the epithets that are derived from these terms.

It is dangerous for a youth to act without the advice of his friends; it is perilous for a traveller to explore the wilds of Africa: it is hazardous for a merchant to speculate in time of war: experiments in matters of policy or government are always dangerous;

Hear this and tremble! all who would be great, Yet know not what attends that dang'rous, wretched state.-Jenyns

A journey through deserts that are infested with beasts of prey is perilous;

The grisly boar is singled from his herd. A match for Hercules; round him they fly In circles wide, and each in passing sends His feather'd death into his brawny sides; But perilous th' attempt .- Somerville.

A military expedition conducted with inadequate means is hazardous; 'The previous steps being taken, and the time fixed for this hazardous attempt, Admiral Holmes moved with his squadron farther up the river, about three leagues above the place appointed for the disembarkation, that he might deceive the enemy'— SMOLLET.

TO HAPPEN, CHANCE.

To happen, that is, to fall out by a hap, is to chance (v. Chance, fortune) as the genus to the species; whatever chances happens, but not vice versa. Happen respects all events without including any collateral idea; chance comprehends, likewise, the idea of the cause and order of events: whatever comes to pass happens, whether regularly in the course of things, or particu larly, and out of the order; whatever chances happens altogether without concert, intention, and often without relation to any other thing. Accidents happen daily which no human foresight could prevent; the newspapers contain an account of all that happens in the course of the day or week;

With equal mind what happens let us bear, Nor joy, nor grieve too much for things beyond our care. DRYDEN.

Listeners and busy bodies are ready to catch every word that chances to fall in their hearing; 'An idiot chancing to live within the sound of a clock, always amused himself with counting the hour of the day whenever the clock struck; but the clock being spoiled by accident, the idiot continued to count the hour without the help of it.'—Addison.

ACCIDENT, CHANCE,

Accident, in French accident, Latin accidens, participle of accido to happen, compounded of ac or ad and cado to fall, signifies the thing falling out: chance (n. Chance, fortune.

Accident is said of things that have been; chance of things that are to be. That is an accident which is done without intention: that is a chance which cannot be brought about by the use of means. It is an accident when a house falls: it is a chance when and how it may fall; 'That little accident of Alexander's taking a fancy to bathe himself caused the interruption of his march; and that interruption gave occasion to that great victory that founded the third monarchy of the world.'-SOUTH. 'Surely there could not be a greater chance than that which brought to light the Powder-Treason.'-South.

Accidents cannot be prevented: chances cannot be calculated upon. Accidents may sometimes be remedied; chances can never be controlled: accidents give rise to sorrow, they mostly occasion mischief; chances give rise to hope; they often produce disappointmentitis wise to dwell upon neither.

ACCIDENT, CONTINGENCY, CASUALTY.

Accident signifies the same as in the preceding article; contingency, in French contingence, Latin contingens, participle of contingo, compounded of con and lango to touch one another, signifies the falling out or happening together; or the thing that happens in conjunction with another; casualty, in French casualté from the Latin casualts and cado to fall or happen, signifies what happens in the course of events.

These words imply whatever takes place independently of our intentions. Accidents express more than contingencies; the former comprehend events with their causes and consequences; the latter respect collateral actions, or circumstances appended to events; casualties have regard simply to circumstances. Accidents are frequently occasioned by carelessness, and contingencies by trivial mistakes; but casualties are altogether independent of ourselves.

The overturning a carriage is an accident; our situation in a carriage, at the time, is a contingency, which may occasion us to be more or less hurt; the passing of any one at the time is a casualty. We are all exposed to the most calamitous accidents; 'This natural impatience to look into futurity, and to know what accidents may happen to us hereafter, has given birth to many ridiculous arts and inventions.—Approxon. The happiness or misery of every man depends apon a thousand contingencies; 'Nothing less than infinite wisdom can have an absolute command over fortune; the highest degree of it which man can pos sess is by no means equal to fortuitous events, and to such contingencies as may rise in the prosecution of our affairs. Addison. The best concerted scheme may be thwarted by casualties, which no human fore-sight can prevent; 'Men are exposed to more casualties than women, as battles, sea voyages, with several dan-gerous trades and professions.—Appison.

ACCIDENTAL, INCIDENTAL, CASUAL, CON-TINGENT.

Accidental belonging to or after the manner of an accident (v. Accident): incidental, from incident, in Latin incidens and incide or in and cade to fall upon, signifies belonging to a thing by chance; casual after the manner of a chance or casualty; and contingent,

after the manner of a contingency.

Accidental is opposed to what is designed or planned, ncidental to what is premeditated, casual to what is constant and regular, contingent to what is definite and ixed. A meeting may be accidental, an expression incidental, a look, expression, &c. casual, an expense or circumstance contingent. We do not expect what is accidental; we do not suspect or guard against what is incidental; we do not heed what is casual; we are not prepared for what is contingent. Many of the most fortunate and important occurrences in our lives are accidental; many remarks, seemingly incidental, do in reality conceal a settled intent, 'This book fell accidentally into the hands of one who had never seen it before.'—Addison. 'The distempers of the mind may be figuratively classed under the several characters of those maladies which are incidental to the body.'-Cumberland. A casual remark in the course of conversation will sometimes make a stronger im-pression on the minds of children than the most elo-quent and impressive discourse or repeated counsel; Savage lodged as much by accident and passed the night sometimes in mean houses, which are set open at night to any casual wanderers. — Johnson. In the prosecution of any plan we ought to be prepared for the numerous contingencies which we may meet with to interfere with our arrangements; 'We see how a contingent event baffles man's knowledge and evades his power.'—South.

EVENT, INCIDENT, ADVENTURE, OCCURRENCE.

Event, in Latin eventus, participle of envenio to come out, signifies that which falls out or turns up; incident, in Latin incidens, from incide, signifies that which falls in or forms a collateral part of any thing (v. Accidental); adventure, from the Latin advenio to come to, signifies what comes to or befalls one; occur-rence, from the Latin occurre, signifies that which runs or comes in the way.

These terms are expressive of what passes in the world, which is the sole signification of the term event; while to that of the other terms are annexed some accessary ideas: an incident is a personal event: an accident an unpleasant event; an adventure an extraordinary event; an occurrence an ordinary or do mestick event; event in its ordinary and unlimited ac ceptation excludes the idea of chance; accident ex cludes that of design; incident, adventure, and occur-rence, are applicable in both cases.

Events affect nations and communities as well as individuals; incidents and adventures affect particular individuals; accidents and occurrences affect persons or things particularly or generally, individually or col-'the making of peace, the loss of a battle, or the death of a prince, are national events; a marriage or a death are domestick events; 'These events, the permission of which seems to accuse his goodness now, may, in the consummation of things, both mag-uify his goodness and exalt his wisdom.'—Appison. The forming a new acquaintance and the revival of an old one are *incidents* that have an interest for the parties concerned; 'I have laid before you only small incidents seemingly frivolous, but they are principally evils of this nature which make marriages unhappy. STEELE. An escape from shipwreck, an encounter with wild beasts or savages, are adventures which indi viduals are pleased to relate, and others to hear;

For I must love, and am resolv'd to try My fate, or failing in the adventure, die .- DRYDEN.

A fire, the fall of a house, the breaking of a limb are accidents or occurrences; a robbery or the death of individuals are properly occurrences which afford subjects for a newspaper, and excite an interest in the reader; 1 think there is somewhere in Montaigne mention made of a family book, wherein all the occurrences that happened from one generation of that house to an other were recorded.'-STEELE.

her were recorded.—STEELL.

Event, when used for individuals, is always of coster importance than an incident. The settlement greater importance than an incident. The settlement of a young person in life, the adoption of an employ ment, or the taking a wife, are events. but not incidents: while on the other hand the setting out on a journey of the return, the purchase of a house or the despatch of

a vesse', are characterized as incidents and not events. It is farther to be observed that incident, event, and occur ence are said only of that which is supposed really to happen: incidents and adventures are often fictitious; in this case the incident cannot be too important, nor the adventure too marvellous. History records the events of nations; plays require to be full of incident in order to render them interesting; 'No person, no incident in the play, but must be of use to carry on the main design.'—DRYDEN. Romances and novels derive most of their charms from the extravagance of the adventures which they describe; ' make an episode, "take any remaining adventure of your former collection," in which you could no way involve your hero, or any unfortunate accident that was too good to be thrown away.'-Pops. Periodical works supply the publick with information respecting daily occurrences.

CIRCUMSTANCE, INCIDENT, FACT.

Circumstance, in Latin circumstantia, from circum and sto, signifies what stands about a thing or belongs to it as its accident; incident signifies the same as before; fact, in Latin factum, participle of facto to do, signifies the thing done.

Circumstance is a general term; incident and fact are species of circumstances. Incident is what happens; fact is what is done; circumstance is not only what happens and is done, but whatever is or belongs to a thing. To every thing are annexed circumstances either of time, place, age, colour, or other collateral ap-pendages which change its nature. Every thing that moves and operates is exposed to incidents, effects are produced, results follow, and changes are brought about; these are incidents: whatever moves and operates does, and what it produces is done or is the fact : when the artificer performs any work of art, it depends not only on his skill, but on the excellence of his tools, the time he employs, the particular frame of his mind, the place where he works, with a variety of other cir-cumstances whether he will succeed in producing any thing masterly. Newspapers abound with the various incidents which occur in the animal or the vegetable world, some of which are surprising and singular; they likewise contain a number of jets which serve to present a melancholy picture of human depravity.

Circumstance is as often employed with regard to the operations of things, in which case it is most analogous to incedent and fact; it may then be employed for the whole affair, or any part of it whatever, that can be distinctly considered. Incidents and facts either are circumstances, or have circumstances belonging to them. A remarkably abundant crop in any particular part of a field is for the agriculturist a singular circumstance or incident; this may be rendered more surprising if associated with unusual sterility in other parts of the same field. A robbery may either be a fact or a circumstance; its atrocity may be aggravated by the murder of the injured parties; the savageness of the perpetrators, and a variety of circumstances.

Circumstance comprehends in its signification whatever may be said or thought of any thing: 'You very often hear people after a story has been told with some entertaining circumstances, tell it again with particulars that destroy the jest.'—Strelle. Incident carries with it the idea of whatever may befall or be said to befall any thing; 'It is to be considered that Providence in its economy regards the whole system of time and things together, so that we cannot discover the beautiful connexion between incidents which lie widely separate in time.'—Addison. Fact includes in it nothing but what really is or is done; 'In describing the achievements and institutions of the Spaniards in the New World, I have departed in many instances from the accounts of preceding historians, and have often related facts which seem to have been unknown to them.'—Robertson. A narrative therefore may contain many circumstances and incidents without any fact, when what is related is either fictitions or not positively known to have happened: it is necessary for a novel or play to contain much incident, but no facts, in order to render it interesting; history should contain nothing but facts, as authenticity is its chief merit.

CIRCUMSTANCE, SITUATION.

Circumstance signifies the same as in the preceding article; situation, in French situation, comes from the Latin situs, and the Hebrew niw to place, signifying

what is placed in a certain manner.

Circumstance is to situation as a part to a whole; many circumstances constitute a situation; a situation is an aggregate of circumstances. A person is said to be in circumstances of affluence who has an abundance of every thing essential for his comfort; he is in an easy situation when nothing exists to create uneasiness.

Sircumstance respects that which externally affects ustances and the inward feelings. The success of any undertaking depends greatly on the circumstances under which it is begun; 'As for the ass's behaviour in such nice circumstances, whether he would starve sooner than violate his neurrality to the two bundles of bay, I shall not presume to determine.'—Additionally and the struction of a person's mind will give a cast to his words or action; 'We are not at present in a proper situation to judge of the councils by which Providence acts.'—Additional struction is dangerous.

CIRCUMSTANTIAL, PARTICULAR, MINUTE.

Circumstantial, from circumstance, signifies consisting of circumstances; particular, in French particular, from the word particle, signifies consisting of particles; minute, in French minute, Latin minutes, participle of minute to diminish, signifies diminished or reduced to a very small point.

reduced to a very small point.

Circumstantial expresses less than particular, and that less than minute. A circumstantial account contains all leading events; a particular account includes every event and movement however trivial; a minute account omits nothing as to person, time, place, figure, form, and every other trivial circumstance connected with the events. A narrative may be circumstantial, particular, or minute; an inquiry, investigation, or description may be particular or minute, a detail may be minute. An event or occurrence may be particular, a circumstance or particular in the minute when the minute we may be minute. We may

be generally satisfied with a circumstantial account of ordinary events; but whatever interests the feelings cannot be detailed with too much particularity or minuteness; 'Thomson's wide expansion of general views and his enumeration of circumstantial varieties, would have been obstructed and embarrassed by the frequent intersections of the sense which are the necessary effects of the rhyme.'—Johnson. 'I am extremely troubled at the return of your deafness; you cannot be too particular in the accounts of your health to me.—Pops. When Pope's letters were published and avowed, as they had relation to recent facts, and per sons either then living or not yet forgotten, they may be supposed to have found readers, but as the facts were minute, and the characters little known, or little regarded, they awakened no popular kindness or resentment."—JOHNSON.

CONJUNCTURE, CRISIS.

Conjuncture, in Latin conjunctura, from conjungo to join together, signifies the joining together of circumstances; crisis, in Latin crisis, Greek kolar; a judgement, signifies in an extended sense whatever decides or turns the scale.

Both these terms are employed to express a period of time marked by the state of affairs. A conjuncture is a joining or combination of corresponding circumstances teading towards the same end; 'Every virtue requires time and place, a proper object, and a fit conjuncture of circumstances for the due exercise of it.'—Addison. A crisis is the high-wrought state of any affair which immediately precedes a change;

Thought be, this is the lucky hour, Wines work, when vines are in the flower; This crisis then I will set my rest on, And put her boldly to the question.—BUTLER.

A conjuncture may be favourable, a crisis alarming. An able statesman seizes the conjuncture which promises to suit his purpose, for the introduction of a favourite measure: the abilities, firmness, and perseverance of Alfred the Great, at one important crisis of his reign, saved England from destruction.

EXIGENCY, EMERGENCY.

Necessity is the idea which is common to the signification of these terms: the former, from the Latin exi_2e_0 to demand, expresses what the case demands; and the latter, from $emergo_1$ to arise out of, denotes what rises out of the case.

The exigency is more common, but less pressing; the emergency is imperious when it comes, but comes less frequently: a prudent traveller will never carry more money with him than what will supply the exigencies of his journey; and in case of an emergency will rather borrow of his friends than risk his property; 'Savage was again confined to Bristol, where he was every day hunted by bailiffs. In this exigence he once more found a friend who sheltered him in his house.'—Johnson. When it was formerly the fashion to husband a lie and to trump it up in some extraordinary emergency, it generally did execution; but at present every man is on his guard.'—Appison.

ENTERPRISING, ADVENTUROUS.

These terms mark a disposition to engage in that which is extraordinary and hazardous: but enterprising, from enterprise (v. Attempt), is connected with the understanding; and adventurous, from adventure eventure or trial, is a characteristick of the passions. The enterprising character conceives great projects, and pursues objects that are difficult to be obtained; the adventurous character is contented with seeking that which is new, and placing himself in dangerous and unusual situations. An enterprising spirit belongs to the commander of an army, or the ruler of a nation; an adventurous disposition is sometimes to be found in men of low degree, but was formerly attributed for the most part to knights; Robinson Crusoe was a man of an adventurous turn;

At land and sea, in many a doubtful fight
Was never known a more adventurous knight,
Who oftener drew his sword, and always for the right
DRYDEN.

Peter the Great possessed, in a peculiar manner, an enterprising genius; 'Sir Walter Ruleigh, who had annew forlieted the king's friendship, by an intrigue with a maid of honour, and who had been thrown into prison for this misdemeanour, no sooner recovered his liberty than he was pushed by his active and enterpresing genius to attempt some great action.'—Hume. Enterprising characterizes persons only: but adventurous is also applied to things, to signify containing adventures; as a journey, or a voyage, or a history, may be denominated adventurous: also in the sense of hazardous:

But 'tis enough
In this late age, advent'rous to have touch'd
Light on the numbers of the Samian sage;
High heaven forbids the bold presumptuous strain.
Thomson.

TO HOLD, CONTAIN.

These terms agree in sense, but differ in application. Po hold (v. To hold, keep) is the familiar term employed only for material objects; contain, in French contents, Latin contineo, compounded of con and teneo, signifying to keep together in one place, is a term of more noble use, being applied to moral or sprintal objects.

To hold is to occupy a space, whether enclosed or open: to contain is to fill an enclosed space; hence it is that these words may both be applied to the same objects. A cask is said to hold, or in more polished language it is said to contain a certain number of gallons. A coach holds or contains a given number of persons; a coom holds a given quantity of furniture; a house or city contains its inhabitants. Hold is applied figuratively and in poetry in a similar sense;

Death only this mysterious truth unfolds, The mighty soul how small a body halds.

DRYDEN.

Contain is applied in its proper sense to spiritual as material objects;

Of all perfection, which the workmanship Of heav'n hath modell'd, in himself contains Passions of several qualities.—Ford.

CAPACITY, CAPACIOUSNESS.

Capacity is the abstract of capax, receiving or apt to hold, and is therefore applied to the contents of hollow bodies: capacious, and is therefore applied to the plane surface comprehended within a given space. Hence we speak of the capacity of a vessel, and the capacious, associated in the capacity of a vessel, and the capaciousness of a room.

Capacity is an indefinite term simply designating fitness to hold or receive; but capaciousness denotes something specifically large. Measuring the capacity of vessels belongs to the science of mensuration: the capacionsness of rooms is to be observed by the eye. They are marked by the same distinction in their moral application: men are born with various capacities; some are remarkable for the capaciousness of their minds.

TO COMPRISE, COMPREHEND, EMBRACE, CONTAIN, INCLUDE.

Comprise, through the French compris, participle of comprendre, comes from the same source as comprehend (v. Comprehensive); embrace, in French embrasser, from em or in and bras the arm, signifies literally to enclose in the arms; contain has the same signification as in the preceding article; include, in Latin include, compounded of in and clude or claude, signifies to shut in or within a given space.

Persons or things comprise or include; things only comprehend, embrace, and contain: a person comprises a certain quantity of matter within a given space; he includes one thing within another: an author comprises his work within a certain number of volumes, and in-

cludes in it a variety of interesting particulars.

When things are spoken of, comprise, comprehend, and cmbrace, have regard to the aggregate value, quantity, or extent: include, to the individual things which form the whole: contain, either to the aggregate or to the individual, being in fact a term of more ordinary application than any of the others. Comprise and

contain are used either in the proper or the figurative sense; comprehend, embrace, and include, in the figurative sense only: a stock comprises a variety of articles; a library comprises a variety of books; the whole is comprised within a small compass:

What, Egypt, do thy pyramids comprise?
What greatness in the high-raised folly lies!
Sewell

Rules comprehend a number of particulars; laws comprehend a number of cases; countries comprehend a certain number of districts or divisions; terms comprehend a certain meaning; 'That particular scheme which comprehends he social virtues may give employment to the most industrious temper, and find a man in bedsiness more than the most active station of life.'—
Addiscourse embraces a variety of topicks; a plan, project, scheme, or system, embraces a variety of objects;

The virtues of the several soils I sing,
Mæcenas, now the needful succour bring;
Not that my song in such a scanty space
So large a subject fully can embrace.—DRYDEN.

A house contains one, two, or more persons; a city contains a number of houses; a book contains much useful matter; a society contains very many individuals; 'All a woman has to do in this world is contained within the duties of a daughter, a sister, a wrife, and a mother.'—Stelle. A society includes none but per sons of a certain class; or it includes some of every class; 'The universal axiom in which all complaie ance is included is, that no man should give any preference to himself.'—Johnson.

Their arms and fishing tackle comprise the personal effects of most savages; all the moral law of a Christian is comprised under the word charity: Sweden comprehends Finland and Lapland: London is said to contain above a million of inhabitants: bills of mortality are made out in most large parishes, but they include only such persons as die of diseases; a calculator of expenses will always fall short of his estimate who does not include the minor contingencies which usually attach to every undertaking.

attach to every undertaking.

It is here worthy of observation, that in the last two examples from Steele and Johnson the words comprehend and comprise would, according to established

usage, have been more appropriate than contain and include.

COMPREHENSIVE, EXTENSIVE.

Comprehensive respects quantity, extensive regards space; that is comprehensive that comprehensive much, that is extensive that extends into a wide field: a comprehensive view of a subject includes all branches of it; an extensive view of a subject enters into minute details: the comprehensive is associated with the concise; the extensive with the diffuse: it requires a capacious mind to take a comprehensive survey of any subject; it is possible for a superficial thinker to enter very extensively into some parts, while he passes over others.

Comprehensive is employed only with regard to intellectual objects; 'It is natural to hope that a comprehensive is likewise an elevated soul, and that whoever is wise is also honest.'—Johnson. Extensive is used both in the properandtheimproper sense: the signification of a word is comprehensive, or the powers of the mind are comprehensive; a plain is extensive, or a field of inquiry is extensive; 'The trade carried on by the Phænicians of Sidon and Tyre was more extensive and enterprising than that of any state in the ancient world.'—ROBERTSON.

TO ENCLOSE, INCLUDE.

From the Latin include and its participle inclusus are derived enclose and include; the former to express the proper, and the latter the improper signification: a yard is enclosed by a wall; particular goods are included in a reckoning; the kernel of a nut is enclosed in a shell, or a body of men are enclosed within walls;

With whom she marched straight against her foes, And them unawares besides the Severne did enclose

SPENSER

Morality as well as faith is included in Christian per- | fies that which is contained within a prescribed line; fection; 'The idea of being once present is included in the idea of its being past.'—GROVE.

TO CIRCUMSCRIBE, ENCLOSE

Circumscribe, from the Latin circum about, and scribo to write, marks supply the surrounding with a line; enclose, from the Laun inclusus, participle of includo, compounded of in and claudo to shut, marks a species of confinement.

The extent of any place is drawn out to the eye by a circumscripton: 'Who can imagine that the existence of a creature is to be circumscribed by time, whose thoughts are not? —Apotisos. The extent of a place is limited to a given point by an enclosure;

Remember on that happy coast to build And with a trench enclose the fruitful field.

A garden is circumscribed by any ditch, line, or posts, that serve as its boundaries; it is enclosed by a wall or fence. An enclosure may serve to circumscrib, but that which barely circumscribes will seldom serve to

TO SURROUND, ENCOMPASS, ENVIRON, ENCIRCLE.

Surround, in old French surronder, signifies, by means of the intensive syllable sur over, to go all round, encompass, compounded of en or in and com pass, signifies to bring within a certain compass formed by a circle; so likewise environ, from the Latin gyrus, and the Greek y voos a curve, and also encircle, signify to bring within a circle.

Surround is the most literal and general of all these terms, which signify to enclose any object either directly We may surround an object by standing at certain distances all round it; in this manner a town, a house, or a person, may be surrounded by other persons, or an object may be surrounded by enclosing it in every direction, and at every point; in this manner a garden is surrounded by a wall;

But not to me returns

Day, or the sweet approach of ev'n or morn, But cloud instead, and ever-during dark Surrounds me .- MILTON.

To encompass is to surround in the latter sense, and applies to objects of a great or indefinite extent: the earth is encompassed by the air, which we term the atmosphere: towns are encompassed by walls;

Where Orpheus on his lyre laments his love, With beasts encompass'd, and a dancing grove.

To surround is to go round an object of any form, whether square or circular, long or short; but to environ and to encircle carry with them the idea of forming a circle round an object; thus a town or a valley may be environed by huls, a basin of water may be encircled by trees, or the head may be encircled by a wreath of flowers;

> Of fighting elements, on all sides round Environ'd .- MILTON.

As in the hollow breast of Apennine, Beneath the shelter of encircling hills, A myrtle rises, far from human eye, So flourish'd, blooming, and unseen by all, The sweet Lavinia.—Thomson.

In an extended or moral sense we are said to be surrounded by objects which are in great numbers, and in different directions about us: thus a person living in a particular spot where he has many friends may say he is surrounded by his friends; so likewise a particular person may say that he is surrounded by dangers and difficulties: but in speaking of man in a general sense, we should rather say he is encompassed by dangers which expresses in a much stronger manner our pecu-· tiarly exposed condition.

CIRCLE, SPHERE, ORB, GLOBE.

Circle, in Latin circulus, Greek κικλος, in all probability comes from the Hebrew 1777 a circle; sphere, in Latin sphæra, Greek σφαίρα, from σπείρα a line, signi-

orb, in Latin orbis, from orbo to circumscribe with a circle, signifies the thing that is circumscribed; globe, in Latin globus, in all probability comes from the

Hebrew 73 a rolled heap.

Roundity of figure is the common idea expressed by these terms; but the circle is that figure which is represented on a plane superficies; the others are figures represented by solids. We draw a circle by means of compasses; the sphere is a round body, conceined to house the content of the representation of the second of the representation of the research of the representation of the research of the relation of the research of the relation of the research of the relation of the r ceived to be formed according to the rules of geometry by the circumvolution of a circle round about its diameter; hence the whole frame of the world is denominated a sphere. An orb is any body which describes a circle; hence the heavenly bothes are termed orbs:

Thousands of suns beyond each other blaze Orbs roll o'er orbs, and glow with mutual rays.

A globe is any solid body, the surface of which is in every part equivasiant from the centre; of this de-

scription is the terrestrial globe.

The term circle may be applied in the improper sense to any round figure, which is formed or supposed to be formed by circumscribing a space; simple rotundity constituting a circle: in this manner a circle may be formed by real objects, as persons, or by moral objects, as pleasures;

Might I from fortune's bounteous hand receive Each boon, each blessing in her power to give; E'en at this mighty price I'd not be bound To tread the same dull *circle* round and round. The soul requires enjoyments more sublime, By space unbounded, undestroy'd by time.

To the idea of circle is annexed that of extent around, in the signification of a sphere, as a sphere of activity whether applied in the philosophical sense to natural bodies, or in the moral sense to men;

Or if some stripes from Providence we feel, He strikes with pity, and but wounds to heal; Kindly, perhaps, sometimes afflicts us here, To guide our views to a sublimer sphere.—Jenyns

Hollowness, as well as rotundity, belongs to an orb; hence we speak of the *orb* of a wheel. Of a *globe* solidity is the peculiar characteristick; hence any ball, like the ball of the earth, may be represented as a

Thus roaming with advent'rous wing the globe, From scene to scene excursive, I behold In all her workings, beauteous, great, or new, Fair nature .- MALLET.

CIRCUIT, TOUR, ROUND.

Circuit, in French circuit, Latin circuitus, participle of circumeo, signifies either the act of going round, or the extent gone; tour is but a variation of turn, signifying a mere turn of the body in travelling; round marks the track round, or the space gone round.

A circuit is made for a specifick end of a serious kind; a tour is always made for pleasure; a round, like a circuit. is employed in matters of business; but of a more familiar and ordinary kind. A judge goes his circuit at particular periods of time: gentlemen, in times of peace, consider it as an essential part of their education to make what is termed the grand tour: tradesmen have certain rounds which they take on certain days;

T is night! the season when the happy take Repose, and only wretches are awake; Now discontented ghosts begin their rounds, Haunt ruin'd buildings and unwholesome grounds.

We speak of making the circuit of a place; of taking a tour in a given county; or going a particular round. A circuit is wide or narrow; a tour and a orund is great or little. A circuit is prescribed as to extent: a tour is optional; a round is prescribed or otherwise. Circuit is seldom used but in a specifick sense:

Th' unfledg'd commanders and the martial train, First make the circuit of the sandy plain .- DRYDEN

Tour is seldom employed but in regard to travelling; Tour is soldom employed out in regard to travening; Goldsmith's tour through Europe we are told was made for the most part on foot. — Jourssox. Round may be taken figuratively, as when we speak of going one's round of pleasure; 'Savage had projected a perpetual round of innocent pleasure in Wales, of which he suspected no interruption from pride, or ignorance, or brutality.'-Johnson.

TO BOUND, LIMIT, CONFINE, CIRCUMSCRIBE, RESTRICT.

Bound comes from the verb bind, signifying that which bends fast or close to an object; limit, from the Latin limes a landmark, signifies to draw a line which is to be the exteriour line or limit; confine signifies to bring within confines (n. Border); circumscribe has the same signification as given under the head of Circumscribe; restrict, in Latin restrictum, participle of restringo, compounded of re and stringo, signifies to keep fast back.

The first four of these terms are employed in the

proper sense of parting off certain spaces.

Bound applies to the natural or political divisions of the earth: countries are bounded by mountains and seas; kingdoms are often bounded by each other; Spain is bounded on one side by Portugal, on another side by the Mediterranean, and on the third by the Pyrenees. Limit applies to any artificial boundary: as landmarks in fields serve to show the limits of one man's ground from another; so may walls, palings, hedges, or any other visible sign, be converted into a limit, to distinguish one spot from another, and in this manner a field is said to be limited, because it has limits assigned to it. To confine is to bring the limits close together; to part off one space absolutely from another: in this manner we confine a garden by means of walls. To circumscribe is literally to surround: in this manner a circle may circumscribe a square: there is this difference however between confine and circumscribe, that the former denotes not only visible limits, but such as may also prevent egress and ingress; whereas the latter, which is only a line, is but a simple mark that Limits.

From the proper acceptation of these terms we may easily perceive the ground on which their improper acceptation rests: to bound is an action suited to the nature of things or to some given rule; in this manner our views are bounded by the objects which intercept our sight: we bound our desires according to principles of propriety. To limit, confine, and circumscribe, all convey the idea of control which is more or less exercised. To limit, whether it be said of persons limiting things, or persons being limited by things, is an atfair of discretion or necessity; we limit our expenses because we are limited by circumstances. Confine conveys the same idea to a still stronger degree: what is confined is not only brought within a limit but is kept to that limit which it cannot pass: in this man-ner a person confines himself to a diet which he finds absolutely necessary for his health, or he is confined in the size of his house, in the choice of his situation, or n other circumstances equally uncontrollable: hence the term confined expresses also the idea of the limits being made narrow as well as impassable or unchange-To circumscribe is figuratively to draw a line round; in this manner we are circumsoribed in our pecuniary circumstances when our sphere of action is brought within a line by the want of riches. In as much as all these terms convey the idea of being acted the circumstances when our sphere of action is brought within a line by the want of riches. In as much as all these terms convey the idea of being acted the circumstantly they become all idea to be the convey the control of the convey the control of the convey the control of t upon involuntarily, they become allied to the term restrict, which simply expresses the exercise of control on the will: we use restriction when we limit and confine, but we may restrict without limiting or confin-ing: to limit and confine are the acts of things upon persons, or persons upon persons; but restrict is only the act of persons upon persons: we are limited or sonfined only to a certain degree, but we may be restricted to an indefinite degree : the limiting and confining depend often on ourselves; the restriction denang depend often on ourserves; the restriction de-pends upon the will of others: a person limits himself to so many hours' work in a day; an author confines himself to a particular branch of a subject; a person is restricted by his physician to a certain portion of Good in the day: to be confined to a certain spot is irk-some to one who has always had his lib-ty; but to be restricted in all his actions would be intolerable.

Our greatest happiness consists in bounding our de sires to our condition;

My passion is too strong In reason's narrow bounds to be confin'd.

Wandesford.

It is prudent to limit our exertions, when we find them prejudicial to our health; 'The operations of the mind are not, like those of the hands, limited to one individual object, but at once extended to a whole species."—Bartet. It is necessary to confine our attention to one object at a time; 'Mechanical motions or operations are confined to a narrow circle of low and little things."—BARLLET. It is unfortunate to be circumscribed in our means of doing good;

Therefore must his choice be circumscrib'd Unto the voice and yielding of that body, Whereof he 's head .- SHAKSPEARE.

It is painful to be restricted in the enjoyment of innocent pleasure; 'It is not necessary to teach men to thirst after power; but it is very expedient that by moral instructions they should be taught, and by their civil institutions they should be compelled, to put many restrictions upon the immoderate exercise of it.'—

Bounded is opposed to unbounded, limited to extended, confined to expanded, circumscribed to ample, re-

stricted to unshackled.

BORDER, EDGE. RIM OR BRIM, BRINK, MARGIN, VERGE.

Border, in French bord or bordure, Teutonick bord, is probably connected with bret, and the English board, from brytan, in Greek molecut to split; edge, in Saxon egg, low German egge, ligh German ecke a point, Latin acies, Greek dan, sharpness, signifies a sharp point; rim, in Saxon rima, high German rahmen a frame, riemen a thong, Greek pipa a tract, from pipa lod raw, signifies a fine drawn round; brim, brink, are but variations of rim; margin, in French margin, Latin margo, probably comes from mare the sea, as it is mostly connected with water; verge, from the Latin virga, signifies a rod, but is here used in the improper sense for the extremity of an object. Border, in French bord or bordure, Teutonick bord, sense for the extremity of an object.

Of these terms border is the least definite point, edge the most so; rim and brink are species of edge; mar gin and verge are species of border. A border is a stripe, an edge is a line. The border lies at a certain distance from the edge, the edge is the exteriour termination of the surface of any substance; 'Methought the shilling that lay upon the table reared itself upon its edge, and turning i.s face towards me opened its mouth.'—Addison. Whatever is wide enough to admit of any space round its circumference may have a

So the pure limpid stream, when with foul stains Of rushing torrents and descending rains, Works itself clear, and as it runs refines, Till by degrees the crystal mirror shines, Reflects each flower that on its border grows.

Whatever comes to a narrow extended surface has an edge. Many things may have both a border and an edge; of this description are caps, gowns, carpets, and the like; others have a border but no edge, as lands; and others have an edge but no border, as a knife or a table

A rim is the edge of any vessel;

But Merion's spear o'ertook him as he flew, Deep in the belly's rim an entrance found Where sharp the pang, and mortal is the woand. POPE.

The brim is the exteriour edge of a cup; a brink is the edge of any precipice or deep place;

As I approach the precipice's brink, So steep, so terrible, appears the depth. LANSDOWNE.

A margin is the border of a book or a piece of water By the sea's margin on the watery strand Thy monument, Themistocles, shall stand. CUMBERLAND.

A verge is the extreme border of a place;

To the earth's utmost verge 1 will pursue him; No place, though e'er so holy, shall protect him.

BOUNDLESS, UNBOUNDED, UNLIMITED, INFINITE

Boundless, or without bounds, is applied to infinite objects which admit of no bounds to be made or conceived by us: unbounded, or not bounded, is applied to that which might be bounded; unlimited, or not limited, applies to that which might be limited; infinite, or not finite, applies to that which in its nature admits of no bounds

The ocean is a boundless object so long as no bounds to it have been discovered, or no bounds are set to it in

our imagination;

And see the country far diffus'd around

One boundless blush, one white empurpled shower Of min_ied blossoms.-Thomson.

Desires are often unbounded, which ought always to be bounded:

The soul requires enjoyments more sublime, By space unbounded, undestroy'd by time

Power is sometimes unlimited when it would be better limited; 'Gray's curiosity was unlimited, and his judgement cultivated.'—Johnson. Nothing is infinite but that Being from whom all finite beings proceed; 'In the wide fields of nature the sight wanders up and down without confinement, and is fed with an infinite variety of images.'-Addison.

BOUNDS, BOUNDARY.

Bounds and boundary, from the verb bound (v. To Bounds and boundary, from the vero bound (v. To bound), signify the line which sets a bound, or marks the extent to which any spot of ground reaches. The term bounds is employed to designate the whole space including the outer line that confines: boundary comprehends only this outer line. Bounds are made tor a local purpose; boundary for a political purpose; the master of a school prescribes the bounds beyond which the scholar is not to go;

So when the swelling Nile contemns her bounds, And with extended waste the valleys drowns, At length her ebbing streams resign the field, And to the pregnant soil a tenfold harvest yield.

CIBBER.

The parishes throughout England have their boundaries, which are distinguished by marks; fields have likewise their boundaries, which are commonly marked out by a hedge or a ditch; 'Alexander dld not in his progress towards the East advance beyond the banks of the rivers that fall into the Indus, which is now the Western boundary of the vast continent of India.'-ROBERTSON.

Bounds are temporary and changeable; boundaries permanent and fixed: whoever has the authority of prescribing bounds for others, may in like manner contract or extend them at pleasure; the boundaries of places are seldom altered, but in consequence of great

political changes.

In the figurative sense bound or bounds is even more frequently used than boundary: we speak of setting bounds or keeping within bounds; but of knowing a bounds or Reeping within oounas; but to knowing a boundary; it is necessary occasionally to set bounds to the inordinate appetites of the best disposed children; 'There are bounds within which our concern for worldly success must be confined.'—BLAIR. Children cannot be expected to know the exact boundary for indulgence; 'It is the proper ambition of heroes in lite-rature to enlarge the boundaries of knowledge by discovering and conquering new regions of the intellectual world. -- Johnson.

LIMIT, EXTENT.

Limit is a more specifick and definite term than extent; by the former we are directed to the point where any thing ends; by the latter we are led to no particular point, but to the whole space included; the *limits* are in their nature something finite; the *extent* is either finite or infinite: we therefore speak of that which exceeds the limits, or comes within the limits; and of

that which comprehends the extent, or is according to the extent: a plenipotentiary or minister must not exceed the limits of his instruction; when we think of the immense extent of this globe, and that it is among the smallest of an infinite number of worlds, the mind is lost in admiration and amazement: it does not fall within the *limits* of a periodical work to enter into historical details; 'Whatsoever a man accounts his treasure answers all his capacities of pleasure. It is treasure answers an instruction to pleasure. It is the utmost lemit of enjoyment.—South. A complete history of any country is a work of great extent, it is observable that, either by nature or habit, our faculties are fitted to images of a certain extent.—Johnson

TERM, LIMIT, BOUNDARY.

* Term, in Latin terminus, from the Greek répµa an end, is the point that ends, and that to which we direct our steps: limit, from the Latin limes a Jandmark, is the line which we must not pass: boundary, from to bound, is the obstacle which interrupts our progress, and

prevents us from passing.

We are either carried towards or away from the term; we either keep within limits, or we overstep them; we contract or extend a boundary.

The term and the limit belong to the thing; by them it is ended; they include it in the space which it occupies, or contain it within its sphere; the boundary is extraneous of it. The Straits of Gibraltar was the term of liercules' voyages: it was said with more eloquence than truth, that the limits of the Roman empire were those of the world: the sea, the Alps, and the Py-renees, are the natural boundaries of France. We mostly reach the term of our prosperity when we at-tempt to pass the limits which Providence has assigned to human efforts: human ambition often finds a boundary set to its gratification by circumstances which were the most unlooked for, and apparently the least adapted to bring about such important results.

We see the term of our evils only in the term of our

No term of time this union shall divide. - DRYDEN Our desires have no limits; their gratification only serves to extend our prospects indefinitely; 'The wall of Antoninus was fixed as the limit of the Roman empire.'—GIBBON. Those only are happy whose fortune is the boundary of their desires; 'Providence has fixed the limits of human enjoyment by immoveable boun daries.'-Johnson.

CONTRACTED, CONFINED, NARROW.

Contracted, from the verb contract, in Latin con tractus, participle of contraho to draw or come close together, signifies either the state or quality of being shrunk up, lessened in size, or brought within a smaller compass; confined marks the state of being confined; narrow is a variation of near, signifying the quality of being near, close, or not extended.

Contraction arises from the inherent state of the object; confined is produced by some external agent: a limb is contracted from disease; it is confined by a chain: we speak morally of the contracted span of a man's life, and the confined view which he takes of a

subject.

Contracted and confined respect the operation of things; narrow, their qualities or accidents: whatever is contracted or confined is more or less narrow; but many things are narrow which have never been con-tracted or confined; what is narrow is therefore more positively so than either contracted or confined; a con tracted mind has but few objects on which it dwells to the exclusion of others; 'Notwithstanding a narrow, contracted temper be that which obtains most in the world, we must not therefore conclude this to be the genuine characteristick of mankind '—Grove. A confined education is confined to few points of knowledge or information; 'In its present habitation, the soul is plainly confined in its operations.'—BLAIR. 'The presence of every created being is confined to a certain measure of space, and consequently his observation is stinted to a certain number of objects.'—Addison. A narrow soul is hemmed in by a single selfish passion 'Resentments are not easily dislodged from narrow minds.'—Cumber

* Vide Girard; "Termes, limites, bornes,"

TO ABRIDGE, CURTAIL, CONTRACT.

Abridge, in French abréger, Latin abbreviare, is compounded of the intensive syllable ub and breviare, from breves short, signifying to make short; custad, in French courte short, and tailler to cut, signifies to di mush in length by cutting; contract, in Latin contractus, participie of contraho, is compounded of con and traha, signifying to draw close together.

and treator, signifying to draw close together.

By devolving, in the figurative as well as the literal
sense, the quanty is diminished; by curtailing, the
magnitude or number is reduced; by contracting, a
thing is bought within smaller compass. Privileges
are intriduced, pleasures curtailed, and powers con-

When the liberty of a person is too much abridged, the enjoyments of life become cartailed, as the powers of acting and thinking, according to the genuine impulse of the mind, are thereby considerably contracted; 'This would very much abridge the level and This would very much abridge the lover's pains in this way of writing a letter, as it would enable him to express the most oseful and significant words with a single touch of the needle.'—Approxy. 'I remember several ladies who were once very near seven feet high, that at present want some inches of five; how they came to be thus curtailed I cannot learn.'—Addison. He that rises up early and goes to bed late only to re ceive addresses is really as much tied and abridged in his freedom as he that waits all that time to present one. God has given no man a body as strong as his appetites; but has corrected the boundlessness of his voluptuous desires, by stinting his strength and contracting his capacities. -South

CONFINEMENT, IMPRISONMENT, CAPTIVITY.

Confinement signifies the act of confining, or the state Confinement signines the act of containing, or the state of being confined; imprisonment, compounded of im and prison, French prison, from pris, participle of prendre, Latin prehendo to take, signifies the act or state of being taken or laid hold of; captivity, in French captivite, Latin captivitas from capie to take, signifies likewise the state of being, or being kept in supervision by norother. possession by another.

Confinement is the generick, the other two specifick terms. Confinement and imprisonment both imply the abridgement of one's personal freedom, but the former specifies no cause which the latter does. We may be confined in a room by ill health, or confined in any place by way of punishment; but we are never imprisoned but in some specifick place appointed for the confine-ment of offenders, and always on some supposed of-We are captives by the rights of war, when we

fall into the hands of the enemy.

Confinement does not specify the degree or manner as the other terms do; it may even extend to the restricting of the body of its free movements. Imprisonment simply confines the person within a certain extent of ground, or the walls of a prison; Confinement of any kind is dreadful: let your imagination acquaint you with what I have not words to express, and conceive, if possible, the horrours of imprisonment, attended with reproach and ignominy.'—Johnson. Captivity leaves a person at liberty to range within a whole country or district;

There in captivity he lets them dwell The space of seventy years; then brings them back, Rememb'ring mercy.—MILTON.

For life, being weary of these worldly bars, Never lacks power to dismiss itself; In that each bondman, in his own hand, bears

The power to cancel his captivity:

But I do think it cowardly and vile .- SHAKSPEARE. Confinement is so general a term, as to be applied to

animals and even to inanimate objects; imprisonment and captivity are applied in the proper sense to persons Poor only, but they admit of a figurative application. Poor stray anima's, who are found trespassing on unlawful ground, are doomed to a wretched confinement, ren-dered still more hard and intolerable by the want of food: the confinement of plants within too narrow a space will stop their growth for want of air;

But now my sorrows, long with pain supprest, Burst their confinement with impetuous sway. Young.

There is many a poor captive in a cage who, like Sterne's starling, would say, if it could, "I want to get

FINITE, LIMITED.

Finite, from finis an end, is the natural property of Finite, from pass an end, is the natural property of things; and limited, from limes a boundary, is the artificial property: the former is opposite only to the infinite; but the latter, which lies within the finite, is opposed to the unlimited or the infinite. This world is finite, and space infinite; 'Methinks this single consideration of the progress of a finite spirit to perfection. will be sufficient to extinguish all envy in inferiour natures, and all contempt in superiour.'—Addison. The power of a prince is sometimes limited; 'Those complaints which we are apt to make of our limited capacity and narrow view, are just as unreasonable as the childish complaints of our not being formed with a microscopick eye.'-BLAIR. It is not in our power to extend the bounds of the finite, but the limited is mostly under our control. We are finite beings, and our capacities are variously limited either by nature or circumstances.

TO RESERVE, RETAIN.

Reserve, from the Latin servo to keep, signifies to keep back; and retain, from teneo to hold, signifies to hold back; they in some measure, therefore, have the same distinction as hold and keep, mentioned in a former article.

To reserve is an act of more specifick design; we reserve that which is the particular object of our choice: to retain is a simple exertion of our power; we retain that which is once come into our possession. To re-serve is employed only for that which is allowable; we reserve a thing, that is, keep it back with care for some future purpose; 'Augustus caused most of the prophetick books to be burnt, as spurious, reserving only those which bore the name of some of the sybils for their authors.'-PRIDEAUX. To retain is often an unlawful act, as when a debtor retains in his hands the money which he has borrowed; sometimes it is simply an un reasonable act; 'They who have restored painting in Germany, not having seen any of those fair relicks of antiquity, have retained much of that barbarous me thod. - Dryden.

Reserve, whether in the proper or improper application, is employed only as the act of a conscious agent; retain is often the act of an unconscious agent: we re serve what we have to say on a subject until a more suitable opportunity offers; 'Conceal your esteem and love in your own breast, and reserve your kind looks and language for private hours.'—Swift. The mind retains the impressions of external objects, by its pecuretains the impressions of external objects, by its peculiar faculty, the memory; certain substances are said to retain the colour with which they have been dyed; 'Whatever ideas the mind can receive and contemplate without the help of the body, it is reasonable to conclude it can retain without the help of the body too '— LOCKE. 'The beauties of Homer are difficult to be lost, and those of Virgil to be retained.'—Johnson.

RESERVE, RESERVATION.

Reserve and reservation, from serve to keep, both signify a keeping back, but differ as to the object and the circumstance of the action. Reserve is applied in a good sense to any thing natural or moral which is kept back to be employed for a better purpose on a future occasion: reservation is an artful keeping back for selfish purposes: there is a prudent reserve which every man ought to maintain in his discourse with a stranger; equivocators deal altogether in mental re-servation; There is no maxim in politicks more indis-putable than that a nation should have many honours putable than that a nation should have many hollotters in reserve for those who do national services.—Addison. 'There be three degrees of this hiding and veiling of a man's self: first reservation and secrecy; second dissimulation in the negative; and the thirdsimulation.'-BACON.

TO KEEP, PRESERVE, SAVE.

To keep has the same original meaning here as ex plained under the article To hold, keep; to preserve, nifies to keep away from all mischief; save signifies to

keep safe.
The idea of having in one's possession is common to all these terms, which is, however, the simple meaning of keep: to preserve is to keep with care and free from all injury; to save is to keep laid up in a safe place, and free from destruction. Things are kept at all times, and under all circumstances; they are preserved in circumstances of peculiar difficulty and danger; they are saved in the moment in which they are threat ened with destruction; things are kept at pleasure; 'We are resolved to keep an established church, an established monarchy, an established aristocracy, and an established democracy, each in the degree it exists an established democracy, each in the degree it exists and no greater. "Burket. Things are preserved by an exertion of power; 'A war to preserve national independence, property, and liberty, from certain universal havock, is a war just and necessary "Burket. Timugs are saved by the use of extraordinary means; 'If any thing defensive can possibly save us from the disasters of a regicide peace, Mr. Pitt is the man to save us.'—Burke. The shepherd keeps his flock by simply watching over them; children are sometimes wonderfully preserved in the midst of the greatest dangers; things are frequently saved in the midst of fire, by the exertions of those present.

KEEPING, CUSTODY.

Keeping is as before the most general term; custody, in Latin custodia and custos, comes in all probability from cura care, because care is particularly required in keeping. The keeping amounts to little more than having purposely in one's possession; but custody is a particular kind of keeping, for the purpose of preventing an escape: inanimate objects may be in one's keeping; but prisoners or that which is in danger of getting away, is placed in custody: a person has in his keeping that which he values as the property of an absent friend; 'Life and all its enjoyments would be absent friend; "The and all its enjoyments would be scarce worth the keeping, if we were under a perpetual dread of losing them."—Spectator. The officers of justice get into their custody those who have offended against the laws, or such property as has been stolen; 'Prior was suffered to live in his own house under the *custody* of a messenger, until he was examined before a committee of the Privy Council.'—

TO SAVE, SPARE, PRESERVE, PROTECT.

To save signifies the same as in the preceding article; spare, in German sparen, comes from the Latin pareo, and the Hebrew ברק to free; to preserve signifies the same as in the preceding article; and protect, the same

as under the article To defend, protect

The idea of keeping free from evil is common to all these terms, and the peculiar signification of the term save; they differ either in the nature of the evil kept off, or the circumstances of the agent: we may be saved from every kind of evil; but we are spared only from those which it is in the power of another to inflict: we may be saved from falling, or saved from an illness; a crininal is spared from the punishment, or we may be spared by Divine Providence in the midst of some calamity; we may be saved and spared from any evils, large or small; we are preserved and protected mostly from evils of magnitude; we may be saved either from the inclemency of the weather, or the fatal vicissitudes of life, or from destruction here and hereafter:

A wondrous ark To save himself and household from amidst A world devote to universal wreck .- MILTON.

We may be spared the pain of a disagreeable meeting, or we may be spared our lives;

Let Cæsar spread his conquests far,

Less pleased to triumph than to spare .- Johnson.

We are preserved from ruin, or protected from op-pression; 'Cortes was extremely solicitous to preserv pression; 'Cortes was extremely sonchous to product the city of Mexico as much as possible from being de-

How poor a thing is man, whom death itself Cannot protect from injuries .- RANDOLPH.

compounded of pre and the Latin serve to keep, sig- | To save and spare apply to evils that are actual and temporary; preserve and protect to those which are possible or permanent: we may be saved from drowning, or we may save a thing instead of throwing it

Attilius sacrific'd himself to save That faith which to his barb'rous foes he gave. DENHAM.

A person may be spared from the sentence of the law, or spared a pain ;

Spare my sight the pain Of seeing what a world of tears it costs you.

We preserve with care that which is liable to injury,

or protect ourselves against the attacks of robbers.

To save may be the effect of accident or design: to spare is always the effect of some design or connexion; to preserve and protect are the effect of a special exertion of power; the latter in a still higher degree than the former: we may be preserved, by ordinary means, from the evils of human life; but we are protected by the government, or by Divine Providence, from the active assaults of those who aim at doing us mischief.

TO DEFEND, PROTECT, VINDICATE.

To defend, which signifies literally to keep off any evil (v. To guard), is closely allied to protect, which comes from the Latin protectum, participle of protego, compounded of pro and tego, signifies to put any thing before a person as a covering, and also to vindicate which comes from the Latin vindico and the Greek ένδικέω to avenge by bringing an offender to justice.

Defend is a general term; it defines nothing with regard to the degree and manner of the action: protect is a particular and positive term, expressing an action of some considerable importance. Persons may defend others without distinction of rank or station: none but others without distinction of rank or station; none but superiours protect their inferiours. Defence is an occasional action; protection is a permanent action. A person may be defended in any particular case of actual danger or difficulty; he is protected from what may happen as well as what does happen. Defence respects the evil that threatens; 'A master may justify an assault in defence of his servant, and a servant in defence of his master.'—Blackstone. Protection involves the supply of necessities and the affording of comforts; 'They who protected the weakness of our infancy are entitled to our protection in their old age? infancy are entitled to our protection in their old age.'-BLACKSTONE.

Defence requires some active exertion either of body or mind; protection may consist only of the extension of power in behalf of any particular. A defence is successful or unsuccessful; a protection weak or strong. A soldier defends his country; a counsellor defends his client: 'Savage (on his trial for the murder of Sinclair) did not deny the fact, but endeavoured to justify it by the necessity of self defence, and the hazard of his own life if he had lost the opportunity of giving the thrust?

JOHNSON. A prince protects his subjects;

First give thy faith and plight, a prince's word, Of sure protection by thy power and sword;
For I must speak what wisdom would conceal, And truth invidious to the great reveal .- Pope

Henry the Eighth styled himself defender of the faith (that is of the Romish faith) at the time that he was subverting the whole religious system of the Catholicks: Oliver Cromwell styled himself protector at the time that he was overturning the government.

In a figurative and extended sense, things may either defend or protect with a similar distinction: a coat defends us from the inclemencies of the weather;

How shall the vine with tender leaves defend Her teeming clusters when the rains descend?

Houses are a protection not only against the changes of the seasons, but also against the violence of men;

Some to the holly hedge Nestling repair, and to the thicket some: Some to the rude protection of the thorn Commit their feeble offspring.—Thomson.

To vindicate is a species of defence only in the moral sense of the word. Acts of importance are defended; those of trifling import are commonly vindicated

Cicero defended Milo against the charge of murder, in which he was implicated by the death of Clodius; a child or a servant vindicates himself when any blame is attached to him. Defence is employed either in matters of opinion or conduct; vindicate only in matters of conduct. No absurdities are too great to want occa-sional defenders among the various advocates to free inquiry; 'While we can easily defend our character, we are no more disturbed at an accusation, than we are alarmed by an enemy whom we are sure to conquer. Johnson. He who vindicates the conduct of another should be fully satisfied of the innocence of the person whom he defends; 'In this poem (the Epistle to Dr. Arbuthnot), Pope seems to reckon with the publick. He vindicates himself from censures, and with dignity rather than arrogance, enforces his claims to kindness and respect.'-POPE.

DEFENDANT, DEFENDER.

The defendant defends himself (v. To defend;) the defender defends another. We are defendants when any charge is brought against us which we wish to refute: 'Of what consequence could it be to the cause whether the counsellor did or did not know the de-fendant?'—SMOLLET. We are defenders when we undertake to rebut or refute the charge brought against another; 'The abbot of Paisley was a warm partizan of France, and a zeatous defender of the established religion.'—ROBERTSON.

DEFENDER, ADVOCATE, PLEADER.

A defender exerts himself in favour of one that wants support: an advocate, in Latin advocatus, from advoco to call to one's aid, signified originally one who was called into court to speak in behalf of his friend, and who if he pleaded his cause was styled patrenus; 'Qui defendit alterum in judicio, aut patronus dicitur, si orator est; aut advocatus si aut jus suggerit, aut presentiam suam commodat anneo."—Asconus in Cic. A pleader, from plea or excuse, signifies one who brings forward pleas in favour of him that is accused. These terms are now employed more in a general than a technical sense, which brings them into still closer alliance with each other. A defender attempts to keep off the threatened injury by rebutting the attack of another: an advocate states that which is to the advan-tage of the person or thing advocated: a pleader throws in pleas and extenuations: he blends entreaty with In pleas and exemutations: he bleaus entreaty with argument. Oppressed or accused persons and disputed opinions require defenders; But the time was now come when Warburton was to change his opinion, and Pope was to find a defender in him who had contributed so much to the exaltation of his rival."—JOHNSON. That which falls in with the humours of men will always have advocates; 'It is said that some endeavours were used to incense the queen against Savage, but he found advocates to obviate at least part of their effect." The unfortunate and the guilty require Johnson. pleaders ;

Next call the *pleader* from his learned strife, To the calm blessings of a learned life.

St. Paul was a bold defender of the faith which is in Christ Jesus. Epicurus has been charged with being Christ Jesus. Epicurus has been charged with being the advocate for pleasure in its gross and sensual sense, whence the advocates for sensual indulgences have been termed Epicureans. Vetruvia and Volumnia, the wife and mother of Corolanus, were pleaders in be-half of the Roman republick, too powerful for him to he able to refuse their request.

DEFENSIBLE, DEFENSIVE.

Defensible is employed for the thing that is defended:

Defensible is employed for the thing that is defended: defensive for the thing that defends. An opinion or a line of conduct is defensible; a weapon or a military operation is defensive. The defensible is opposed to the indiffensible; and the defensive to the offensive. It is the height of folly to attempt to defend that which is indefensible; 'Impressing is only defensible from publick necessity, to which all private considerations must give way.'—BLACKSTONE. It is sometimes prudent to act on the defensive, when we are not in a condition to commence the offensive; 'A king circum-

stanced as the present king (of France) has no generous interest that can excite him to action. At best his conduct will be passive and defensive.'—BURKE.

TO GUARD, DEFEND, WATCH.

Guard is but a variation of ward and guarantee, &c., which comes from the Teutonick wahren to look to; watch and wake, through the medium of the northern languages, are derived from the Latin vigil watchful, vigeo to flourish, and the Greek ἀγάλλω το exult or be in spirits.

Guard seems to include in it the idea of both defend and watch, inasmuch as one aims to keep off danger, by personal efforts; guard comprehends the significa tion of defend, inasmuch as one employs one's powers to keep off the danger. Guard comprehends the idea of watch, inasmuch as one employs one's eyes to detect the danger; one defends and watches, therefore, when one guards; but one does not always guard when one defends or watches.

To defend is employed in a case of actual attack; to guard is to defend by preventing the attack: the soldier guards the palace of the king in time of peace;

Fix'd on defence, the Trojans are not slow To guard their shore from an expected foe. DRYDEN.

He defends the power and kingdom of his prince in time of war, or the person of the king in the field of battle

Forthwith on all sides to his aid was run, By angels many and strong, who interpos'd Defence .- MILTON.

One guards in cases where resistance is requisite, and attack is threatened; one watches in cases where an unresisting enemy is apprehended: soldiers or armed men are employed to guard those who are in custody; children are set to watch the corn which is threatened by the birds: hence it is that those are termed guards who surround the person of the monarch, and those are termed watchmen who are employed by night, to watch for thieves and give the alarm, rather than make any attack.

In the improper application they have a similar sense: modesty guards female honour; it enables her to present a bold front to the daring violator; 'Modesty is not only an ornament, but also a guard to virtue.'—
Additional Company of the property of the sense o of the weather

And here th' access a gloomy grove defends, And here th' unnavigable lake extends.—DRYDEN

Watching is frequently employed not merely to prevent an external evil, but also for the attainment of some object of desire; thus a person watches an opportunity to escape, or watches the countenance of another;

But see the well-plum'd hearse comes nodding on Stately and slow, and properly attended By the whole sable tribe, that painful watch The sick man's door, and live upon the dead.

The love of his subjects is the king's greatest safe guard; walls are no defence against an enraged multitude; it is necessary for every man to set a watch upon his lips, lest he suffer that to escape from him of which he may afterward repent.

GUARD, SENTINEL.

These terms are employed to designate those who are employed for the protection of either persons or things; but the sentinel, in Freuch sentinelle, is properly a species of guard, namely, a military guard in the time of a campaign: any one may be set as guard over property, who is empowered to keep off every intruder by force, but the sential acts in the army as intruder by force; but the sentinel acts in the army as the watch in the police, rather to observe the motions of the enemy, than to repel any force;

Fast as he could, he sighing quits the walls, And thus descending on the guards he call

One of the sentinels who stood on the stage to prevent disorder, burst into tears.'—Steele. In the moral acceptation of the terms, the guard acts in

but the sentinel where one is surrounded with danger Conscience is the sentincl of virtue.'-Johnson.

GUARD, GUARDIAN.

These words are derived from the verb to guard To guard); but they have acquired a distinct

Guard is used either in the literal or figurative sense; guardian only in the improper sense. Guard is applied either to persons or things; guardian only to persons. In application to persons, the guard is tempersons. In application to persons, the guard is temporary; the guardian is fixed and permanent: the guard only guards against external evils; the guardian takes upon him the office of parent, counsellor, and director; when a house is in danger of being attacked, a person may sit up as a guard; when the parent is dead, the guardian supplies his place: we expect from a guard nothing but human assistance; but from our guardian angel we may expect supernatural assistance:

Him Hermes to Achilles shall convey, Guard of his life, and partner of his way.

Ye guides and guardians of our Argive race! Come all! let gen'rous rage your arms employ, And save Patroclus from the dogs of Troy.

In an extended application they preserve a similar distinction; 'He must be trusted to his own conduct, since there cannot always be a guard upon him, ex cept what you put into his own mind by good principles.'—Locke. 'It then becomes the common concern of all that have truth at heart, and more espe cially of those who are the appointed guardians of the Christian faith, to be upon the watch against seducers. WATERLAND.

TO GUARD AGAINST, TAKE HEED.

Both these terms simply express care on the part of the agent; but the former is used with regard to external or internal evils, the latter only with regard to internal or mental evils; in an enemy's country it is essential to be particularly on one's guard, for fear of a surprise; in difficult matters, where we are liable to err, it is of importance to take heed lest we run from one extreme to another: young men, on their entrance into life, cannot be too much on their guard against associating with those who would lead them into exassociating with those who would take more than ordinary care to guard one's self against this particular imperfection (changeableness), because it is that which our nature very strongly inclines us to.'—Addison. our nature very strongly inclines us to.—Addison-In slippery paths, whether physically or morally under-stood, it is necessary to take heed how we go; 'Take heed of that dreadful tribunal where it will not be enough to say that I thought this or I heard that.' South.

TO APOLOGIZE, DEFEND, JUSTIFY, EXCUL-PATE, EXCUSE, PLEAD.

Apologize, from the French apologie, Greek anoλογία, and ἀπολογέσμαι, compounded of ἀπὸ from or away, and \(\lambda \epsilon y \) to speak, signifies to do away by speaking; \(delta \epsilon f \) fend, in French \(delta \epsilon f \) ender \(delta \epsilon f \) tand \(delta \epsilon f \) defends, signifies to keep or ward off; justify, in French justifier, Latin justifier, compounded of justus and facio, signifies to make or set right, that is, to set one's self right with others; exculpate, in Latin exculpatus, participle of exculpo, compounded of ex and culpa, signifies to get out of a fault; excuse, in French excuser, Latin excuse, compounded of ex and causa, signifies to get out of any cause or affair; plead, in French plaider, may either come from placitum or placendum, or be contracted from appellatum.

There is always some imperfection supposed or real which gives rise to an apology;* with regard to per-

According to the vulgar acceptation of the term, this imperfection is always presumed to be real in the thing for which we apologize; but the bishop of Landaff did not use the term in this sense when he wrote his

ordinary cases, where there is no immediate danger, | sons it presupposes a consciousness of impropriety, if sons it presupposes a consciousness of impropriety, it not of guilt; we apologize for an errour by acknowledging ourselves guilty of it: a defence presupposes a consciousness of innocence more or less; we defend ourselves against a charge by proving its fallacy: a justification is founded on the conviction not only of entire innocence, but of strict propriety; we justify our conduct against any imputation by proving that was blameless: exculpation rests on the conviction of innocence with regard to the fact; we exculpate our selves from all blame by proving that we took no part in the transaction: excuse and plea are not grounded on any idea of innocence; they are rather appeals for favour resting on some collateral circumstance which serves to extenuate; a plea is frequently an idle or unfounded excuse, a frivolous attempt to lessen displeasure; we excuse ourselves for a neglect by alleging indisposition; we plead for forgiveness by solicitation and entreaty.

An apology mostly respects the conduct of individuals with regard to each other as equals: it is a voluntary act springing out of a regard to decorum, or the good opinion of others. To avoid misunderstandings it is necessary to apologize for any omission that wears the appearance of neglect. A defence respects matters of higher importance; the violation of laws or publick morals; judicial questions decided in a court, or matters of opinion which are offered to the decision of the publick: no one defends himself, but he whose conduct or opinions are called in question. A justification is applicable to all moral cases in common life, whether of a serious nature or otherwise: it is the act of indivi-duals towards each other according to their different stations: no one can demand a justification from another without a sufficient authority, and no one will attempt to justify himself to another whose authority he does not acknowledge: men justify themselves either on principles of honour, or from the less creditable mo tive of concealing their imperfections from the observations. vation and censure of others. An exculpation is the act of an inferiour, it respects the violations of duty towards a superiour; it is dictated by necessity, and seldom the offspring of any higher motive than the desire to screen one's self from punishment: exculpation regards offences only of commission; excuse is employed for those of omission as well as commission: we excuse ourselves oftener for what we have not done, than for what we have done; it is the act of persons in all sta tions, and arises from various motives dishonourable or otherwise: a person may often have substantial reasons to excuse himself from doing a thing, or for not having done it; an excuse may likewise sometimes be the refuge of idleness and selfishness. To plead is properly a judicial act, and extended in its sense to the or-dinary concerns of life; it is mostly employed for the benefit of others, rather than ourselves.

Excuse and plea, which are mostly employed in an unfavourable sense, are to apology, defence, and exculpation, as the means to an end: an apology is same when, instead of an honest confession of an unintentional errour, an idle attempt is made at justification: a defence is poor when it does not contain sufficient to invalidate the charge: a justification is nugatory when it applies to conduct altogether wrong: an excuse or a plea is frivolous or idle, which turns upon some falsehood, misrepresentation, or irrelevant point.

There are some men who are contented to be the There are some men woo are contented to be the applogists for the vices of others; 'But for this practice (detraction), however vile, some have dared to applogize by contending that the report by which they injured an absent character was true.'—HAWKENDETH. No man should hold precepts secretly which he is not prepared to defend openly; 'Attacked by great injuries, the man of mild and gentle spirit will feel what human nature feels, and will defend and resent as his duty allows him.'—Blate. It is a habit with some people contracted in early life to justify themselves on every

"Apology for the Bible;" by which, bearing in mind the original meaning of the word, he wished to imply an attempt to do away the alleged imperfections of the Bible, or to do away the objections made to it. Whether the learned prelate might not have used a less classical, but more intelligible expression for such a work, is a question which, happily for mankind, it not necessary now to decide.

occasion, from a reluctance which they feel to acknowledge themselves in an errour

Whatever private views and passions plead, No cause can justify so black a deed

When several are involved in a general charge each seeks to exculpate himself. A good child will not seek to exculpate himself at the expense of the most revered characters.'—RICHARDSON. A plea of incapacity is often set up to excuse remissiess, which is in fact but the rating of idlaness and indolence; 'The strength of the refuge of idleness and indolence; he passions will never be accepted as an excuse for omplying with them. —Spectator. It is the boast of Engistemen that, in their courts of judicature, the poor man's plea will be heard with as much attention as their of his jetch width. that of his rich neighbour; 'Poverty on this occasion pleads her cause very notably, and represents to her old 'andlord that should she be driven out of the country, all their trades, arts, and sciences would be driven out witt her.'-ADDISON.

TO EXCUSE, PARDON.

We excuse (v. To apologize) a person or thing by exempting him from blame; we pardon (from the pre-positive par or per and dono to give) by giving up or not insisting on the punishment of another for his of-

We excuse a small fault, we pardon a great fault: we excuse that which personally affects ourselves; we pardon that which offends against morals: we may creuse as equals; we can pardon only as superiours. We exercise good nature in exensing; we exercise generosity or mercy in pardoning. Friends excuss each other for the unintentional omission of formalities;

I will not quarre! with a slight mistake Such as our nature's frailty may excuse.
Roscommon.

It is the privilege of the prince to pardon criminals whose offences will admit of pardon;

But infinite in pardon is my judge.-MILTON. The violation of good manners is inexcusable in those who are cultivated; falsehood is unpardonable even

VENIAL, PARDONABLE.

Venial, from the Latin venia pardon or indulgence, is applied to what may be tolerated without express disparagement to the individual, or direct censure; but the pardonable is that which may only escape severe censure, but cannot be allowed; garrulity is a verial offence in old age; 'While the clergy are employed in extirpating mortal sins, I should be glad to rally the world out of indecencies and verial transgressions.'— CUMBERLAND. Levity in youth is pardonable in single instances; 'The weaknesses of Elizabeth were not confined to that period of life when they are more pardonable.'-Robertson.

TO EXONERATE, EXCULPATE.

Exenerate, from onus a burthen, signifies literally to take off a burthen, either physically, as in the sense of relieving the body from a burthen;

This tyrant God, the belly! Take that from us With ah its bestad appetites, and man, Exonerated man, shall be all soul.'—CUMBERLAND.

Or in the moral application of relieving from the burthen of a charge or of guilt; to exculpate, from culpa a fault or blame; is to throw off the blame: the first is the act of another; the second is one's own act: we exons-rate him upon whom a charge has lain, or who has the load of guilt; we exculpate ourselves when there is any danger of being blamed: circumstances may sometimes tend to exonerate; the explanation of some person is requisite to exculpate; in a case of dishonesty the absence of an individual at the moment when the act was committed will altogether exonerate him from suspi-cion; it is fruitless for any one to attempt to exculpate himself from the charge of faithlessness who is detected in conniving at the dishonesty of others. 'By this fond and easy acceptance of exculpatory comment, Pope testified that he had not intentionally attacked religion.' -JOHNSON.

TO EXTENUATE, PALLIATE.

Extenuate, from the Latin tenuis thin, small, signifies literally to make small; palliate, in Latin palliatus, participle of pullin, from pullium a cloak, signifies to throw a cloak over a thing so that it may not be seen.

These terms are both applicable to the moral conduct, I nescrems are both applicable to the moral conduct, and express the act of lessening the guilt of any impropriety. To extenuate is simply to lessen guilt without reference to the means: to pulliate is to lessen it by means of art. To extenuate is rather the effect of circumstances: to pulliate is the direct effort of an individual. Ignorance in the offender may serve as an extenuation of his guilt, although real this of an extenuation of his guilt, although not of his of tence: 'Savage endravoured to extenuate the fact (of having killed Sinclair), by urging the suddenness of the whole action.'- Johnson. It is but a poor pulleution of a man's guilt, to say that his crimes have not been attended with the mischief which they were calculated to produce; 'Mons. St. Evremond has endeavoured to palliate the superstitions of the Roman Catholick reli gion.'-Appison.

TO ABSOLVE, ACQUIT, CLEAR.

Absolve, in Latin absolve, is compounded of ab from and solvo to loose, signifying to loose from that with which one is bound; acquit, in French acquitter, is compounded of the intensive syllable ac or ad, and quit, quitter, in Latin quietus quiet, signifying to make easy by the removal of a charge; to clear is to make clear These three words convey an important distinction

between the act of the Creator and the creature.

To absolve is the free act of an omnipotent and mer ciful being towards sumers; to acquot is the act of an earthly tribunal towards supposed offenders; by absolution we are released from the bondage of sin, and placed in a state of favour with God; by an acquittal we are released from the charge of guilt, and reinstated in the good estimation of our fellow-creatures. Absolution is obtained not from our own merits, but

the atoning merits of a Redeemer; acquittal is an act of justice due to the innocence of the individual. Absolution is the work of God only; by him alone it can

be made known to the penitent offender;

Yet to be secret makes not sin the less; T is only hidden from the vulgar view, Maintains indeed the reverence due to princes, But not absolves the conscience from the crime. DRYDEN

Acquittal is the work of man only; by him alone it is pronounced; 'The fault of Mr. Savage was rather negligence than ingratitude; but Sir Richard Steele must likewise be acquitted of severity; for who is there that can patiently bear contempt from one whom he has relieved and supported?—Johnson Although but few individuals may have occasion for

acquittal; yet we all stand in daily and hourly need of absolution at the hands of our Creator and Redeemer

One is absolved (v. To absolve) from an oath, acquit ted of a charge, and cleared from actual guilt, that is, made clearly free.

No one can absolve from an oath but he to whom the oath is made; no one can acquit another of a charge but he who has the right of substantiating the charge; yet any one may clear himself or another from guilt, or the suspicion of guilt, who has adequate proofs of innocence to allege.

The Pope has assumed to himself the right of absolving subjects at pleasure from their oath of allegiance to their sovereign; but as an oath is made to God only, it must be his immediate act to cancel the obligation which binds men's consciences;

Compell'd by threats to take that bloody oath, And the act ill, I am absolv'd by both.'-WALLER.

It is but justice to acquit a man of blame, who is enabled to clear himself from the appearance of guilt; Those who are truly learned will acquit me in this point, in which I have been so far from offending, that I have been scrupplous perhaps to a fault in quoring the authors of several passages which I have made my own.'- Appison. 'In vain we attempt to clear our conscience by affecting to compensate for fraud or cruelty by acts of strict religious homage towards God.'-

TO GUARANTEE, BE SECURITY, BE RE-sponsible, Warrant. | bear respect to his reason, so do human punishments bear respect to his responsibility, infants and boys are

Guarantee and warrant are both derived from the Tentonick wahren to look to; to be security is to be that which makes secure; and to be responsible, from the Latin responder to answer, is to take upon one's sell to answer for another.

Guarantee is a term of higher import than the others: one guarantees for others in matters of contract and stipulation: security is employed in matters of right and justice; one may be security for another of treat and paster; one may be security for another, or the security for one's self; responsibility is employed in moral concerns; we take the responsibility upon ourselves: warrant is employed in civil and commercial concerns; we warrant for that Which

Concerns ourselves.

We guarantee by virtue of our power and the confidence of those who accept the guarantee; it is given by means of a word, which is accepted as a pledge for the future performance of a contract; governments, in order to make peace, frequently guarantee for the performance of certain stipulations by powers of minor importance; 'The people of England, then, are willing to trust to the sympathy of regiones, the guarantee of the British monarchy.'-BURKE. We are security by virtue of our wealth and credit; the security is not confined to a simple word, it is always accompanied with some legitimate act that binds, it regards the pay ment of money for another; tradesmen are frequently security for others who are not supposed sufficiently

security for others who are not supposed summerably weather to answer for themselves; 'Richard Cromwell desired only security for the debts he had contracted.'

-BURNET. We are responsible by virtue of one's office and relation, the responsible by binds for the reparation of injuries; teachers are responsible for the reparation. good conduct of the children intrusted to their care good conduct of the camera mitruscal to their care: one warroants by virtue of one's knowledge and saturation: 'What a dreadful thing is a standing army, for the conduct of the whole or of any part of which no one is responsible.' BURKE. The warrant binds to make restitution; the seller warrants his articles on sale to be such as are worth the purchase, or in case of defectiveness to be returned; and in a moral application things are said to warrant or justify a person in forming conclusions or pursuing a line of conduct; 'No man's mistake will be able to warrant an unjust surmise, much less justify a false censure.'—South. A king guarantees for the transfer of the lands of one prince, on his decease, into the possession of another when men have neither honour nor money, they must get others to be security for them, if any can be found sufficiently credulous; in England masters are responsible for all the mischiefs done by their servants; a tradesman who stands upon his reputation will be careful not to warrant any thing which he is not assured will stand the trial.

ANSWERABLE, RESPONSIBLE, ACCOUNT-ABLE, AMENABLE

Answerable signifies ready or able to answer for; responsible, from responded to answer, has a similar meaning in its original sense; accountable, from account, signifies able or ready to give an account; amenable, from the French amener to lead, signifies

liable to be led.

We are answerable for a demand; responsible for a trust; accountable for our proceedings; and amenable to the laws. When a man's credit is firmly established he will have occasions to be answerable for those in less flourishing circumstances: every one becomes responsible more or less in proportion to the confidence which is reposed in his judgement and integrity: we are all accountable beings, either to one another, or at least to the great Judge of all; when a man sincerely wishes to do right, he will have no objection to be amenable to the laws of his country.

An honest man will not make himself answerable

for any thing which it is above his ability to fulfil;

That he might render the execution of justice strict and regular, Alfred divided all England into counties. these counties he subdivided into hundreds, and the hundreds into tithings. Every householder was answerable for the behaviour of his family and his slaves. and even of his guests if they lived above three days in his house.'—HUME. A prudent man will avoid a soo heavy responsibility; 'As a person's responsibility

bear respect to his responsibility, infants and boys are chastised by the hand of the parent or the master; rational adults are amenable to the laws. -Cumber-Land. An upright man never refuses to be accountable to any who are invested with proper authority We know that we are the subjects of a Supreme Righteous Governour, to whom we are accountable for our conduct.'-Blar. A conscientious man makes himself amenable to the wise regulations of society.

FENCE, GUARD, SECURITY.

Fence, from the Latin fendo to fend or keep off, serves to prevent the attack of an external enemy guard, which is but a variety of ward, from the old German wahren to look to, and wachen to watch, signifies that which keeps from any danger; security implies that which secures or prevents injury, mischief, and loss

The fence in the proper sense is an inanimate object; the guard is a living agent; the former is of perma-nent utility, the latter acts to a partial extent: in the figurative sense they retain the same distinction. desty is a fence to a woman's virtue; the love of the subject is the monarch's greatest safeguard. There are prejudices which favour religion and subordination, that act as fences against the introduction of licentious principles into the juvenile or enlightened mind; 'Whatever disregard certain modern refiners of morality may attempt to throw on all the instituted means of public religion, they must in their lowest view be considered as the out-guards and fences of virtuous conduct.—BLAIR. A proper sense of an overruling providence will serve as a guard to prevent the admission of improper thoughts; 'Let the heart be either wounded by sore distress, or agitated by violent emotions: and you shall presently see that virtue without religion is inadequate to the government of life. It is destitute of its proper guard, of its firmest support, of its chief encouragement.—Blatt. The guard only stands at the entrance, to prevent the ingress of evil: the security stops up all the avenues, it locks up with firmness. A guard serves to prevent the ingress of every thing that may have an evil intention or tendency: the security rather secures the possession of what one has, and prevents a loss. A king has a guard about his person to keep off all violence. The security may either secure against the loss of property or against the loss of any external advantage or moral benefit; 'The Romans do not seem to have known the secret of paper money or securities upon mortgages. —Arbuthnor.

DEPOSITE, PLEDGE, SECURITY.

Deposite is a general term from the Latin depositus, participle of depono to lay down, or put into the hands of another, signifying that which is laid down or given in charge, as a guarantee for the performance of an engagement; pledge, comes probably from plice, signifying what engages by a tie or envelope; security signifies that which makes secure.

The deposite has most regard to the confidence we place in another; the *pledge* has most regard to the security we give for ourselves; security is a species of pledge. A deposite is always voluntarily placed in the hands of an indifferent person; a pledge and security are required from the parties who are interested. person may make a deposite for purposes of charity or convenience; he gives a pledge or security for a tem-porary accommodation, or the relief of a necessity. Money is deposited in the hands of a friend in order to execute a commission; a pledge is given as an equivalent for that which has been received; a security is given by way of security for the performance.

A deposite may often serve the purpose of a security; but it need not contain any thing so binding as either a pledge or a security; both of which involve a loss on the non-fulfilment of a certain contract. A pledge is given for matters purely personal; a security is given in behalf of another.

Deposites are always transportable articles, consisting either of money, papers, jewels, or other valuables: a pledge is seldom pecuniary, but it is always some article of positive value, as estates, furniture, and the like, given at the moment of forming the contra security is always pec miary, but it often consists of a | promise and not of any immediate resignation of one's Deposites are made and securities given by the wealthy; pledges are commonly given by those

who are in distress.

These words bear a similar distinction in the figurative application; 'It is without reason we praise the wisdom of our constitution, in putting under the dis-cretion of the crown the awful trust of war and peace. if the ministers of the crown virtually return it again into our hands. The trust was placed there as a sacred deposite, to secure us against popular rashness in plunging into wars.'-BURKE.

These garments once were his, and left to me, The pledges of his promised loyalty.—DRYDEN.

'It is possible for a man, who hath the appearance of religion, to be wicked and a hypocrite; but it is impossible for a man who openly declares against religion, to give any reasonable security that he will not be false and cruel.'-Swift.

EARNEST, PLEDGE.

In the proper sense, the earnest (v. Fager) is given as a token of our being in earnest in the promise we have made; the pleage, in all probability from plico to fold or implicate, signifies a security by which we are engaged to indemnify for a loss.

The earnest has regard to the confidence inspired;

the pleage has regard to the bond or tie produced: when a contract is only verbally formed, it is usual to give eurnest; whenever money is advanced, it is com-

mon to give a pledge.

In the figurative application the terms bear the same analogy: a man of genius sometimes, though not always, gives an earnest in youth of his future greatness:

Nature has wove into the human mind This anxious care for names we leave behind, T' extend our narrow views beyond the tomb, And give an earnest of a life to come.—Jenyns.

Children are the dearest pledges of affection between parents:

Fairest of stars, last in the train of night, If better thou belong not to the dawn, Sure pledge of day that crown'st the smiling morn, With thy bright circlet praise him in thy sphere.

TO APPOINT, ORDER, PRESCRIBE, ORDAIN.

To appoint (v. Allot) is either the act of an equal or To appoint (5. Attot) is either the act of an equal or superiour: we appoint a meeting with any one at a given time and place; a king appoints his ministers. To order, in French ordre, Latin ordino to acrange, dispose, ordo order, Greek boxos a row of trees, which is the symbol of order, is the act of one invested with a partial authority: a customer orders a commodity from his tradesman: a master gives his orders to his To prescribe, in Latin prescribo, compoundservant. ed of pre before, and scribo to write, signifying to draw a line for a person, is the act of one who is superiour a line for a person, is the dect of one who is superious by virtue of his knowledge: a physician prescribes to his patient. To ordain, which is a variation of order, is an act emanating from the highest authority: kings and councils ordain; but their ordainances must be conformable to what is ordained by the Divine Being.

Appointments are made for the convenience of indiriduals or communities; but they may be altered or annulled at the pleasure of the contracting parties;

Majestic months

Set out with him to their appointed race .- DRYDEN. Orders are dictated by the superiour only, but they pre-Orders are dictated by the superiour only, but they presuppose a discretionary obligation on the part of the individual to whom they are given; 'Upon this new fright an order was made by both Houses for disarming an papists.'—CLARENDON. Prescriptions are binding on none but such as voluntarily admit their authority; 'It will be found a work of no small difficulty, to disposses a vice from that heart, where long possession begins to plend prescription.'—South. Ordinances leave no choice to those on whom they are imposed to begins to plead prescription. South. Ordinances or the passion; suggestions spring from the mind, the leave no choice to those on whom they are imposed to accept or reject them: the ordinances of man are not class binding than those of God, so long as they do not is the part of a Christian at all times to listen to the

expressly contradict the Divine law; 'It seemeth hard to plant any sound ordinance, or reduce them (the Irish) to a civil government; since all their ill customs are permitted unto them."—Spenser.

Appointments are kept, orders executed or obeyed,

prescriptions followed, ordinances submitted to. It is a point of politeness or honour, if not of direct moral obligation, to keep the appointments which we have made. Interest will lead men to execute the orders which they receive in the course of business: duty obliges them to obey the orders of their superiours. It is a nice matter to prescribe to another without hurting his pride: this principle leads men often to regard the counsels of their best friends as prescriptions; with children it is an unquestionable duty to follow the prescriptions of those whose age, station, or experience, authorize them to prescribe; 'Sir Francis Bacon, in authorize them to prescribe; his Essay upon Health, has not thought it improper to prescribe to his reader a poem or a prospect, where he particularly dissuades him from knotty or subtle disquisitions.'—Addison. God has ordained all things for our good; it rests with ourselves to submit to his ordinances and be happy; 'It was perhaps ordained by Providence to hinder us from tyrannizing over one another, that no individual should be of such importance as to cause by his retirement or death any chasm in the world.'-Johnson. Sometimes the word order is taken in the sense of direct and regulate, which brings it still nearer to the word ordain. God is said to or-dain, as an act of power; he is said to order, as an act of wisdom; 'The whole course of things is so ordered, that we neither by an irregular and precipitate education become men too soon; nor by a fond and trifling indulgence be suffered to continue children for ever.'-

TO DICTATE, PRESCRIBE.

Dictate, from the Latin dictatus and dictum, a word, signifies to make a word for another; and prescribe literally signifies to write down for another (v. To appoint), in which sense the former of these terms is used technically for a principal who gets his secretary to write down his words as he utters them; and the latter for a physician who writes down for his patient what he wishes him to take as a remedy. They are used figuratively for a species of counsel given by a su-periour: to dictate is however a greater exercise of au-thority than to prescribe.

To dictate amounts even to more than to command, it signifies commanding with a tone of unwarrantable authority, or still oftener a species of commanding by those who have no right to command; it is therefore mostly taken in a bad sense. To prescribe partakes altogether of the nature of counsel, and nothing of command; it serves as a rule to the person prescribed, and is justified by the superiour wisdom and knowledge of the person prescribing; it is therefore always taken in an indifferent or a good sense. He who dictates speaks with an adventitious authority; he who pre

scribes has the sanction of reason.

To dictate implies an entire subserviency in the person dictated to: to prescribe carries its own weight with it in the nature of the thing prescribed. Upstarts with it in the nature of the thing prescribed. Upstarts are ready to dictate even to their superiours on every occasion that offers. 'The physician and divine are often head to dictate in private company with the same authority which they exercise over their patients and disciples.'—Buddell. Modest people are often fearful of giving advice lest they should be suspected of prescribing: 'In the form which is prescribed to us (the Lord's Prayer), we only pray for that happiness which is our chief good, and the great end of our existence, when we petition the Surveyne for the coming istence, when we petition the Supreme for the coming of his kingdom.'—Addison.

DICTATE, SUGGESTION.

Dictate signifies the thing dictated, and has an imperative sense as in the former case (v. To dictate), suggestion signifies the thing suggested, and conveys the idea of being secretly or in a gentle manner pro-

The dictate comes from the conscience, the reason,

dictates of conscience; it is the characteristick of a weak mind to follow the suggestions of envy. A man renounces the character of a rational being who yields to the dictates of passion; When the dictates of honour are contrary to those of religion and equity, they are the greatest depravations of human nature.—Appison. Whoever does not resist the suggestions of his own evit mind is very far gone in corruption, and will never be able to bear up long against temptation; 'Did not conscience suggest this natural relation between guilt and punishment; the mere principle of approbation or disapprobation, with respect to moral conduct, would prove of small efficacy.—Blank.

Dictate is employed only for what passes inwardly;

Dictate is employed only for what passes inwardly; suggestion may be used for any action on the mind by external objects. No man will err essentially in the ordinary affairs of life who is guided by the dictates of plain sense. It is the lot of sinful mortals to be drawn to evil by the suggestions of Satan as well as

their own evil inclinations.

COMMAND, ORDER, INJUNCTION, PRECEPT, MANDATE.

Command, compounded of com and mando, manulo, or dare in manus to give into the hand, signifies giving or appointing as a task; a command is imperative; it is the strongest exercise of authority; order, which in the extended sense of regularity; implies what is done in the way of order, or for the sake of regularity; an order is instructive; it is an expression of the wishes: injunction, in French injunction, from in and jungo, signifies literally to join or bring close to; figuratively to impress on the unin; an injunction is decisive; it is a greater exercise of authority than order, and less than command: precept, in French précepte, Latin praceptum, participle of pracipio, compounded of pre and capio to put or lay before, signifies the thing preposed to the mind; a precept is a moral law; it is binding on the conscience. The three former of these are personal in their application; the latter is general: a command, an order, and an injunction, must be addressed to some particular individual; a precept is addressed to all.

Command and order exclusively flow from the will of the speaker in the ordinary concerns of life; injunction has more regard to the conduct of the person addressed; precept is altogether founded on the moral obligations of men to each other. A command is just or unjust; an order is prudent or imprudent; an injunction is mild or severe; a precept is general or particular.

ticular.

Command and order are affirmative; injunction or precept are either affirmative or negative: the command and the order oblige us to do a thing; the injunction and precept oblige us to do it, or leave it undone. A sovereign issues his commands, which the well-being of society requires to be instantly obeyed;

'Tis Heav'n commands me, and you urge in vain: Had any mortal voice the injunction laid, Nor augur, seer, or priest, had been obey'd.—Pore.

A master gives his orders, which it is the duty of the servant to execute;

A stepdame too I have, a cursed she, Who rules my henpeck'd sire, and orders me. DRYDEN.

This done, Æneas orders for the close,
The strife of archers with contending bows.

DRYDEN.

A father lays an injunction on his children, which they with filial regard ought to endeavour to follow; 'The duties which religion enjoins us to perform towards God are those which have oftenest furnished matter to the scoffs of the licentious.'—BLAIR. The moralist lays down his precepts, which every rational creature is called upon to practise;

We say not that these ills from virtue flow; Did her wise precepts rule the world, we know The golden ages would again begin.—JENYNS.

Mandate, in Latin mandatum, participle of mando, has the same original meaning as command, but is employed to denote a command given by publick authority; whence the co-ormands of princes, or the command of the church, are properly denominated mandates;

The necessities of the times cast the power of the three estates upon himself, that his mandates should pass for laws, whereby he laid what taxes he pleased."

—Howell.

COMMANDING, IMPERATIVE, IMPERIOUS, AUTHORITATIVE.

Commanding, which signifies having the force of a command (v. To command), is either good or bad according to circumstances; a commanding voice is necessary for one who has to command; but a commanding air is offensive when it is affected;

Oh! that my tongue had every grace of speech, Great and commanding as the breath of kings.

Imperative from impero, to command, signifying simply in the imperative mood, is applied to things, and used in an indifferent sense; imperious, which signifies literally in the tone or way of command, is used for persons or things in the bad sense: any direction is imperative which comes in the shape of a command, and circumstances are likewise imperative, which act with the force of a command; 'Quitting the dry imperative style of an act of Parliament he (Lord Somers) makes the Lords and Commons fall to a pious legislative ejaculation.'—Burke. Persons are imperious who exercise their power oppressively;

Fear not, that I shall watch, with servile shame, Th' imperious looks of some proud Grecian dame. DRYDEN.

In this manner underlings in office are imperious; necessity is imperious when it leaves us no choice in our conduct. Authoritative, which signifies having authority, or in the way of authority, is mostly applied to persons or things personal in the good sense culy; magistrates are called upon to assume an authoritative air when they meet with any resistance; 'Authoritative instructions, mandates issued, which the member (of Parliament) is bound blindly and implicitly to vote and argue for, though contrary to the clearest conviction of his judgement and conscience; these are things utterly unknown to the laws of this land.'—BURKE.

IMPERIOUS, LORDLY, DOMINEERING, OVERBEARING.

All these epithets imply an unseemly exercise or affectation of power or superiority. *Imperious*, from *impero* to command, characterizes either the disposition to command without adequate authority, or to convey one's commands in an offensive manner: lordly, signifying like a lord, characterizes the manner of acting the lord: and domineering, from dominus a lord, denotes the manner of ruling like a lord, or rather of attempting to rule: hence a person's temper or his tone is denominated imperious; his air or deportment is lordly: his tone is domineering. A woman of an imperious temper commands in order to be obeyed: she commands with an imperious tone in order to enforce obedience; 'He is an imperious dictator of the principles of vice, and impatient of all contradiction.'—More. A person assumes a lordly air in order to display his own importance: he gives orders in a domineering tone in order to make others feel their inferiority. There is always make others feel their inferiority. There is always something offensive in imperiousness; there is frequently something ludicrous in that which is lordly; and a mixture of the ludicrous and offensive in that which is domineering: the lordly is an affectation of grandeur where there are the fewest pretensions;

Lords are lordliest in their wine.-MILTON.

The domineering is an affectation of authority where it least exists: 'He who has sunk so far below himself as to have given up his assent to a domineering errour is fit for nothing but to be trampled on.'—South Lordly is applied even to the brutes who set themselves up above those of their kind: domineering is applied to servants and ignorant people, who have the opportunity of commanding without knowing how to command. A turkey-cock struts about the yard in a lordly style; an upper servant domineers over all that are under him.

The first three of these terms are employed for such as are invested with some sort of power, or endowed

with some sort of superiority, however trifling; but overbearing is employed for men in the general relations of society, whether superiours or equals. A man of an imp rious temper and some talent will frequently be so over bearing in the assemblies of his equals as to awe the rest into silence, and carry every measure of his own without contradiction; 'I reflected within my-self how much society would suffer if such insolent overbearing characters as Leontine were not held in restraint. - CUMBERLAND. As the petty airs of superiority here described are most common among the uncultivated part of mankind, we may say that the imperious temper shows itself pecuharly in the domestick circle; that the lordly air shows itself in publick; that the domineering tone is most remarkable in the kitchen; and the overbearing behaviour in villages.

TO COMMISSION, AUTHORIZE, EMPOWER.

Commission, from commit, signifies the act of committing, or putting into the hands of another; to authorize signifies to give authority; to empower, to put

in possession of the power to do any thing.

The idea of transferring some business to another is common to these terms; the circumstances under which this is performed constitute the difference. We commission in ordinary cases; we authorize and empower in extraordinary cases. We commission in matters where our own will and convenience are concerned; we authorize in matters where our personal authority is requisite; and we empower in matters where the authority of the law is required. A commission is given by the bare communication of one's wishes; we authorize by a positive and formal declaration to that intent; we empower by the transfer of some legal document. A person is commissioned to make a purchase;

Commission'd in alternate watch they stand, The sun's bright portals and the skies command.

One is authorized to communicate what has been intrusted to him as a secret, or people are authorized to act any given part; 'A more decisive proof cannot be given of the full conviction of the British nation that the principles of the Revolution did not authorize them to elect kings at pleasure, than their continuing to adopt a plan of hereditary Protestant succession in the old line.'-Burke. One is empowered to receive money;

Empower'd the wrath of gods and men to tame, E'en Jove rever'd the venerable dame .- Pope.

When commissions pass between equals, the performance of them is an act of civility; but they are frequently given by sovereigns to their subjects; authorizing and empowering are as often directed to inferiours, they are frequently acts of justice and necessity. Judges and ambassadors receive commissions from their prince; 'Princes do not use to send their viceroys unfurnished with patents clearly signifying their commission.'—South. Servants and subordinate persons are sometimes authorized to act in the name of their employers; magistrates empower the officers of justice to apprehend individuals or enter houses. We are commissioned by persons only; we are authorized some-times by circumstances; we are empowered by law.

INFLUENCE, AUTHORITY, ASCENDANCY OR ASCENDANT, SWAY.

Influence, from the Latin influo to flow in upon or cause to flow in upon, signifies the power of acting on an object so as to direct or move it; authority, in Latin auctoritas, from auctor the author or prime mover of a thing, signifies that power which is vested in the prime mover; ascendancy or ascendant, from ascend, signifies having the upper hand; sway, like our word swing and the German schweben, comes in all probability from the Hebrew nt to move, signifying also the power to move an object.

These terms imply power, under different circuminfluence is altogether unconnected with any right to direct; authority includes the idea of right ne cessarily: superiority of rank, talent, or property, per sonal attachment, and a variety of circumstances give influence; it commonly acts by persuasion, and employs engaging manners, so as to determine in favour of what is proposed: superiour wisdom, age, office, and

relation, give authority; it determines of itself, and requires no collateral aid: ascendancy and sway are modes of influence, differing only in degree; they both umply an excessive and improper degree of influence over the mind, independent of reason; the former is, however, more gradual in its process, and consequently more confirmed in its nature; the latter may be only temporary, but may be more violent. A person employs many arts, and for a length of time, to gain the ascendancy; but he exerts a sway by a violent stretch of power. It is of great importance for those who have power. It is of great importance for those who have influence, to conduct themselves consistently with their rank and station; "The influence of France as a republick is equal to a war."—BUREN Men are apt to regard the warnings and admonitions of a true friend as an odious assumption of authority; "Without the force of authority the power of soldiers grows pernicious to their master."—TEMPLE. Some men voluntarily give themselves up to the ascendancy which a valet or a mistress has gained over them while the latter event. mistress has gained over them, while the latter exert the most unwarrantable sway to serve their own inter ested and vicious purposes; 'By the ascendant he had ested and vicious purposes; in his understanding, and the dexterity of his nature, he could persuade him ver? much.—CLAREMDON 'France, since her revolution, is under the sway of a sect whose leaders, at one stroke, have demolished the whole body of jurisprudence. —BURKE.

Influence and ascendancy are said likewise of things

as well as persons: true religion will have an influence not only on the outward conduct of a man, but the inward affections of his heart; 'Religion hath so great an influence upon the felicity of man, that it ought to be upheld, not only out of a dread of divine vengeance in another world, but out of regard to temporal prosperity."

—Tillotson. That man is truly happy in whose mind religion has the ascendancy over every other principle; 'Il you allow any passion, even though it be esteemed innocent, to acquire an absolute ascendant, your inward peace will be impaired.'-Blair.

POWER, STRENGTH, FORCE, AUTHORITY, DOMINION.

Power, in French pouvoir, comes from the Latin possum to be able; strength denotes the abstract quality of strong; authority signifies the same as in the pre-ceding article; dominion, from dominus a lord, signifies the power of a lord or the exercise of that power; from the Latin fortis strong, signifies the abstract

quality of strength.

Power is the generick and universal term, comprehending in it that simple principle of nature which exists in all subjects. Strength and force are modes of power. These terms are all used either in a physical or moral application. *Power* in the physical sense respects whatever causes motion; 'Observing in ourselves that we can at pleasure move several parts of our bodies which were at rest; the effects also that natural bodies are able to produce in one another, occurring every moment to our senses, we both these ways get the idea of power.'—Locks. Strength respects that species of power that lies in the vital and muscular parts of the body;

Not founded on the brittle strength of bones.

Strength, therefore, is internal, and depends upon the surengia, unereore, is internat, and depends upon the internal organization of the frame; power, on the external circumstances. A man may have strength to move, but not the power if he be bound with cords. Our strength is proportioned to the health of the body, and the firmness of its make; our power may be increased by the help of instruments.

Power may be exerted or otherwise; force is power exerted, or active; bodies have a power of resistance while in a state of rest, but they are moved by a certain

force from other bodies;

A ship which hath struck sail, doth run, By force of that force which before it won.

The word power is used technically for the moving force; 'By understanding the true difference between the weight and the power, a man may add such a fitting supplement to the strength of the power, that it shall move any conceivable weight, though it should never so much exceed that force which the power is naturally endowed with.'—WILKINS.

In a moral acceptation power, strength, and force, any be applied to the same objects with a similar distantion, thus we may speak of the power of language to the education, but not to the destruction, of their may be applied to the same objects with a similar dis-tinction, thus we may speak of the *power* of language generally, the *strength* of a person's expressions to convey the state of his own mind; and the force of terms as to their extent of meaning and fitness to convey the ideas of those who use them. In this case it is evident that strength and force are here employed as particular properties, but strength is the power actually exerted,

and force the power which may be exerted.

Power is either publick or private, which brings it in alliance with authority. Civil power includes in it all that which enables us to have any influence or control over the actions, persons, property, &c. of others;

Hence thou shalt prove my might, and curse the hour, Thou stoodst a rival of imperial pow'r.—Pope.

Authority is confined to that species of power which is derived from some legitimate source; 'Power arising from strength is always in those who are governed, who are many; but authority arising from opinion is in those who govern, who are few."—TEMPLE. Power exists independently of all right; authority is founded only on right. A king has often the *power* to be cruel, but he has never the *authority* to be so. Subjects have sometimes the power of overturning the government, but they can in no case have the authority. Power may be abused; authority may be exceeded. A sovereign abuses his power, who exercises it for the misery of his subjects; he exceeds his authority, if he deprive them of any right from mere caprice or

may be seized either by fraud or force: authority is derived from some present law, or dele ga'ed by a higher power. Despotism is an assumed power, it acknowledges no law but the will of the individual; it is, therefore, exercised by no authority: the sovereign holds his power by the law of God; for God is the source of all authority, which is commensurate with his goodness, his power, and his wisdom: man, therefore, exercises the supreme authority over man, as the minister of God's authority; he exceeds that authority if he do any thing contrary to God's will. Subjects have a delegated authority which they receive from a superiour; if they act for themselves, without respect to the will of that superiour, they exert a power without authority. In this manner a prime minister acts by the authority of the king, to whom he is responsible. A minister of the gospel performs his functions by the *authority* of the gospel, as it is interpreted and administered by the church; but when he acts by an individual or particular interpretation, it is a self-assumed power, but not authority. Social beings, in order to act in concert, must act by laws and the subordination of ranks, whether in religion or "politicks; and he who acts solely by his own will, in opposition to the general consent of competent judges, exerts a power, but is without authority. Hence those who officiate in England as ministers of the gospel, otherwise than according to the form and discipline of the Established Church, act by an as sumed *power*, which, though not punishable by the laws of man, must, like other sins, be answered for at the bar of God.

It lies properly with the supreme power to grant privileges, or take them away; but the same may be lone by one in whom the authority is invested. Authority in this sense is applied to the ordinary concerns of life, where the line of distinction is always drawn, between what we can and what we ought to do. There is power where we can or may act; there is authority only where we ought to act. In all our dealings with others, it is necessary to consider in everything, not what we have the power of doing, but what we have the authority to do. In matters of indifference, and in what concerns ourselves only, it is sufficient to have the power to act, but in all important matters we must have the authority of the divine law: a man may have the power to read or leave it alone; but he cannot dispose of his person in all respects, without authority. In what concerns others, we must act by their authority, if we wish to act conscientiously; when the secrets of another are confided to us, we have the power to divulge them, but not the authority, unless it be given by him who intrusted them.

Instructers are invested by parents with authority over their children; and parents receive their authority

offspring. The heathens, however, claimed and exerted a power over the lives of their children. By my superiour strength I may be enabled to exert a power over a man, so as to control his action; of his own accord he gives me authority to dispose of his property; so in literature, men of established reputation, of classical merit, and known veracity, are quoted as authorities in support of any position.

Power is indefinite as to degree; one may have little or much power: dominion is a positive degree of power. A monarch's power may be limited by various circumstances; a despot exercises dominion over all his subjects, high and low. One is not said to get a power over any object, but to get an object into one's power: on the other hand, we get a dominion over an object; thus some men have a dominion over the con

sciences of others:

And each of these must will, perceive, design, And draw confus'dly in a diff'rent line, Which then can claim dominion o'er the rest, Or stamp the ruling passion in the breast.

POWERFUL, POTENT, MIGHTY.

Powerful, or full of power, is also the original meaning of potent; but mighty signifies having might.

Powerful is applicable to strength as well as power: a powerful man is one who by his size and make can easily overpower another; and a powerful person is one who has much in his power; 'It is certain that the senses are more powerful as the reason is weaker.'— JOHNSON. Potent is used only in this latter sense, in which it expresses a larger extent of power;

Now, flaming up the heavens, the potent sun Melts into limpid air the high-raised clouds.

A potent monarch is much more than a powerful prince; mighty expresses a still higher degree of power; might is power unlimited by any consideration or circumstance; 'He who lives by a mighty principle within, which the world about him neither sees nor understands, he only ought to pass for godly.'—SOUTH. A giant is called mighty in the physical sense, and that genius is said to be mighty which takes every thing within its greater the Surveyor Relief. every thing within its grasp; the Supreme Being is entitled either Omnipotent or Almighty; but the latter term seems to convey the idea of boundless extent more forcibly than the former.

EMPIRE, REIGN, DOMINION.

Empire in this case conveys the idea of power,* or an exercise of sovereignty; in this sense it is allied to the word reign, which, from the verb to reign, signifies the act of reigning; and to the word dominion, which signifies the same as in the preceding article.

Empire is used more properly for people or nations; reign for the individuals who hold the power: hence we say the empire of the Assyrians, or of the Turks; the reign of the Cæsars or the Paleologi. The most the reign of the Cæsars of the Paleologi. The most glorious epoch of the empire of the Babylonians is the reign of Nebuchadnezzar; that of the empire of the Persians is the reign of Cyrus; that of the empire of the Greeks is the reign of Alexander; that of the Romans is the reign of Alexander; that of the Romans is the reign of Alexander; these are the four great empires forefold by the prophet Daniel.

All the epithets applied to the word empire, in this An one epithets applied to the word empire, in this sense, belong equally to reign; but all which are applied to reign are not suitable in application to empire. We may speak of a reign as long and glorious; but not of an empire as long and glorious, unless the idea be expressed paraphrastically. The empire of the Romans was of longer duration than that of the Greeks; but the glory of the latter was more brilliant, from the rapidity of its conquests: the reign of King George III. was one of the longest and most eventful recorded in history.

Empire and reign are both applied in the proper sense to the exercise of publick authority;

* Vide Abbe Girard: "Empire, regne."

The sage historick muse Should next conduct us through the deeps of time, Show us how *empire* grew, declin'd, and fell.

Dominion applies to the personal act, whether of a sovereign or a private individual: a sovereign may have dominion over many nations by the force of arms, but he holds his reign over one nation by the force of law;

He who, like a father, held his reign, So soon forgot, was wise and just in vain.—Pope.

Hence the word dominion may, in the proper sense, be applied to the power which man exercises over the brutes, over inanimate objects, or over himself; but if empire and reign be applied to any thing but civil government, or to nations, it is only in the improper sense; thus a female may be said to hold her empire among her admirers; or fashious may be said to have their reign. In this application of the terms, empire is something wide and all-commanding;

Let great Achilles, to the gods resign'd, To reason yield the *empire* of his mind.—Pope.

Reign is that which is steady and settled:

 $\begin{array}{c} \text{The frigid zone,} \\ \text{Where for relentless months continual night} \\ \text{Holds o'er the glittering waste her starry $reign$.} \\ \text{Thomson.} \end{array}$

Dominion is full of control and force; 'By timely caution those desires may be repressed to which indulgence would give absolute dominion.'—Johnson.

PRINCE, MONARCH, SOVEREIGN, POTENTATE.

Prince, in French prince, Latin princeps, from primus, signifies the chief or the first person in the nation; monarch, from the Greek µprog alone, and day,\(\frac{1}{2}\) government, signifies one having sole authority; sovereign is probably changed from superregnum; potentate, from potens powerful, signifies one having supreme power.

is the generick term, the rest are specifick terms; every monarch, sovereign, and potentate, is a prince, but not vice versa. The term prince is indefinite as to the degree of power: a prince may have a limited or despotick power; but in its restricted sense this title denotes a smaller degree of power than any of the other terms: the term monarch does not define the extent of the power, but simply that it is undivided as opposed to that species of power which is lodged in the hands of many: sovereign and potentate indicate the highest degree of power; but the former is employed only as respects the nation that is governed. the latter respects other nations: a sovereign is su-preme over his subjects; a potentate is powerful by means of his subjects. Every man having inde-pendent power is a prince, let his territory be ever so inconsiderable; Germany is divided into a number of small states, which are governed by petty princes; Of all the princes who had swayed the Mexican Sceptre, Montezuma was the most haughty.'—Robertson. Every one reigning by himself in a state of some considerable magnitude, and having an independent authority over his subjects is a monarch; kings and emperours therefore are all monarchs; 'The Mexican people were warlike and enterprising, the authority of the monarch unbounded. Robertson. Every monarch is a sovereign, whose extent of dominion and number of subjects rises above the ordinary level; The Peruvians yielded a blind submission to their sovereigns.'-Robertson. He is a potentate if his sovereigns.'—ROBERTSON. He is a potentate if his influence either in the cabinet or the field extends very considerably over the affairs of other nations; 'How mean must the most exalted potentate upon earth appear to that eye which takes in immunerable orders of spirits.'—Addison. Although we know that princes are but men, yet in estimating their characters in area of the opposition of the property of the prop we are apt to expect more of them than what is human. It is the great concern of every monarch who wishes for the welfare of his subjects to choose good coun sellors, whoever has approved himself a faithful subject may approach his sovereign with a steady confi-dence in having done his duty: the potentates of the earth may sometimes be intoxicated with their power

and their triumphs, but in general they have too many mementoes of their common infirmity, to forget that they are but mortal men.

ABSOLUTE, DESPOTICK, ARBITRARY, TYRANNICAL.

Absolute in Latin absolutus, participle of absolvo, signifies absolved or set at liberty from all restraint as it regards persons; unconditional, unlimited, as it regards things; despotick, from despot, in Greek deamforg, a master or lord, implies being like a lord, uncontrolled; arbitrary, in French arbitraire, from the Latin arbitrium will, implies belonging to the will of one independent of that of others; tyrannical signifies being like a tyrant.

Absolute power is independent of and superiour to all other power: an absolute monarch is uncontrolled not only by men but things; he is above all law except what emanates from himself;

Unerring power!

Supreme and absolute, of these your ways You render no account.—LYLLO.

When absolute power is assigned to any one according to the constitution of a government, it is despotick. Despotick power is therefore something less than absolute power: a prince is absolute of himself; he is despotick by the consent of others.

In the early ages of society monarchs were absolute, and among the Eastern nations they still retain the absolute form of government, though much limited by established usage. In the more civilized stages of society the power of despots has been considerably restricted by prescribed laws, in so much that despotism is now classed among the regular forms of government; 'Such a history as that of Suetonius is to me an unanswerable argument against despotick power.'—Additional to the empire of the will commands, the whole man must do; the empire of the will over all the faculties being absolutely overruling and despotick.—South.

Arbitrary and tyrannical do not respect the power itself, so much as the exercise of power: the latter is always taken in a bad sense, the former sometimes in an indifferent sense. With arbitrariness is associated the idea of captice and selfishness; for where is the individual whose uncontrolled will may not oftener be capticious than otherwise? With tyranny is associated the idea of oppression and injustice. Among the Greeks the word "boavog a tyrant, implied no more than what we now understand by despot, namely, a possessor of unlimited power; but from the natural abuse of such power, it has acquired the signification now attached to it, namely, of exercising power to the injury of another;

Our sects a more tyrannick power assume, And would for scorpions change the rod of Rome. Roscommon.

Absolute power should be granted to no one man or body of men; since there is no security that it will not be exercised arbitrarily; 'An honest private man often grows cruel and abandoned, when converted into an absolute prince.—Addison. In despatick governments the tyrannical proceedings of the subordinate officers are often more intolerable than those of the Prince.

POSITIVE, ABSOLUTE. PEREMPTORY.

Positive, in Latin positivus, from pone to put or place, signifies placed or fixed, that is, fixed or established in the mind; absolute (c. Absolute) signifies uncontrolled by any external circumstances; peremptory, in Latin peremptorius, from perizo to take away, signifies removing all further question.

Positive is said either of a man's convictions or temper of mind, or of his proceedings; absolute is said of his mode of proceeding, or his relative circumstances; peremptory is said of his proceeding. Positive, as respects a man's conviction, has been spoken of under the article of confident (v. Confident); in the latter sense it bears the closest analogy to absolute or peremptory: a positive mode of speech depends upon a positive state of mind; 'The diminution or ceasing of pain does not operate like positive pleasure.'—BURKE. An absolute mode of speech depends upon the uncontrollable authority of the speaker; 'Those parts of the

moral world which have not an absolute, may yet have a relative beauty, in respect of some other parts concealed from us.—Addison. A peremptory mode of speech depends upon the disposition and relative circumstances of the speaker; 'The Highlander gives to every question an answer so prompt and peremptory, that skepticism is dared into silence.—Johnson. A decision is positive; a command absolute or peremptory; what is positive excludes all question; what is absolute bars all resistance; what is peremptory removes all hesitation: a positive answer can be given only by one who has positive information; an absolute decree can issue only from one vested with absolute authority; a peremptory refusal can be given only by one who has the will and the power of deciding it without any controversy.

As adverbs, positively, absolutely, and peremptorily, have an equally close connexion: a thing is said to be positively known, or positively determined upon, or positively agreed to; it is said to be absolutely necessary, absolutely true or false, absolutely required; it is not to be peremptorily decided, peremptorily declared, peremptorily refused.

Positive and absolute are likewise applied to moral objects with the same distinction as before: the positive expresses what is fixed in distinction from the relative that may vary; the absolute is that which is independent of every thing: thus, pleasure and pains are positive; names in logic are absolute; cases in grammar are absolute.

ROYAL, REGAL, KINGLY.

Royal and regal from the Latin rex a king, though of foreign origin, have obtained more general application than the corresponding English term kingly. Royal signifies belonging to a king, in its most general sense; regal in Latin regalis, signifies appertaining to a king, in its particular application; kingly signifies properly like a king. A royal carriage, a royal residence, a royal couple, a royal salute, royal authority, all designate the general and ordinary appurtenances to a king.

He died, and oh! may no reflection shed Its pois'nous venom on the royal dead.—PRIOR.

Regal government, regal state, regal power, regal dignity, denote the peculiar properties of a king;

'Jerusalem combined must see
My open fault and regal infamy.—Prior.

Kingly always implies what is becoming a king, or after the manner of a king; a kingly crown is such as a king ought to wear; a kingly mien, that which is after the manner of a king;

Scipio, you know how Massanissa bears His kingly post at more than ninety years

DENHAM.

EMPIRE, KINGDOM.

Annough these two words obviously refer to two species of states, where the princes assume the title of either emperour or king, yet the difference between them is not limited to this distinction.

* The word empire carries with it the idea of a state that is vast, and composed of many different people; that of kingdom marks a state more limited in extent, and united in its composition. In kingdoms there is a uniformity of fundamental laws; the difference in regard to particular laws or modes of jurisprudence being merely variations from custom, which do not affect the unity of political administration. From this uniformity, indeed, in the functions of government, we may trace the origin of the words king and kingdom; since there is but one prince or sovereign ruler, although there may be many employed in the administration. With empires it is different: one part is sometimes governed by fundamental laws, very different from those by which another part of the same empire is governed; which diversity destroys the unity of government, and makes the union of the state to consist in the submission of certain chiefs to the commands of a superiour general or chief. From this very right of commanding, then, it is evident that the words empire and emperour

moral world which have not an absolute, may yet have derive their origin; and hence it is that there may be a relative beauty, in respect of some other parts commany princes or sovereigns, and kingdoms, in the same

As a farther illustration of these terms, we need only look to their application from the earliest ages in which they were used, down to the present period. The word king had its existence long prior to that of emperate, being doubless derived, through the channel of the northern languages, from the Hebrew [7] a priest, since in those ages of primitive simplicity, before the lust of dominion had led to the extension of power and conquest, he who performed the sacerdotal office was unanimously regarded as the fittest person to discharge the civil functions for the community. So in like manner among the Romans the corresponding word rex, which comes from rego, and the Hebrew [7] to feed, signifies a pastor or shepherd, because he who filled the office of king acted both spiritually and civily as their guide. Rome therefore was first a kingdom, while it was formed of only one people: it acquired the name of empire as soon as other nations were brought into subjection to it, and became members of it; not by losing their distinctive character as nations, but by submitting themselves to the supreme command of their conquerors.

For the same reason the German empire was so denominated, because it consisted of several states independent of each other, yet all subject to one ruler or emperor; so likewise the Russian empire, the Ottoman empire, and the Mogul empire, which are composed of different nations: and on the other hand the kingdom of Spain, of Portugal, of France, and of England, all of which, though divided into different provinces, were, nevertheless, one people, having but one ruler. While France, however, included, many distinct countries within its jurisdiction, it properly assumed the name of an empire; and England having by a legislative act united to itself a country distinct both in its laws and customs, has likewise, with equal propriety, been denominated the British empire.

A kingdom can never reach to the extent of an em-

A kingdom can never reach to the extent of an empire, for the unity of government and administration which constitutes its leading feature cannot reach so far, and at the same time requires more time than the simple exercise of superiority, and the right of receiving certain marks of homage, which suffice to form an empire. Although a kingdom may not be free, yet an empire can scarcely be otherwise than despotick in its form of government. Power, when extended and ramified, as it must unavoidably be in an empire, derives no aid from the personal influence of the soverign, and requires therefore to be dealt out in portions far too great to be consistent with the happiness of the subject.

TERRITORY, DOMINION.

Both these terms respect a portion of country under a particular government; but the word territory brings to our minds the land which is included; dominion conveys to our minds the power which is exercised: territory refers to that which is in its nature bounded; dominion may be said of that which is boundless. A petty prince has his territory; the monarch of a great empire has dominions.

empire has acominous.

It is the object of every ruler to guard his territory against the irruptions of an enemy; 'The conquered territory was divided among the Spanish invaders, according to rules which custom had introduced.'—
ROBERTSON. Ambitious monarchs are always aiming to extend their dominions;

And while the heroick Pyrrhus shines in arms, Our wide dominions shall the world o'errun. TRAPP

STATE, REALM, COMMONWEALTH.

The state is that consolidated part of a nation in which lies its power and greatness; the realm, from royaume a kingdom, is any state whose government is monarchical; the commonwealth is the grand body of a nation, consisting both of the government and people, which forms the commonwealth or commonweal of a nation.

The ruling idea in the sense and application of the

^{*} Vide Abbe Bauzee: "Empire, royaume."

word state is that of government in its most abstract tense; adairs of state may either respect the internal regulations of a country, or it may respect the arrangements of different states with each other. The term realm is employed for the nation at large, but confined to such nations as are monarchical and aristocratical; peers of the realm sit in the English Parliament by their own right. The term commonwealth refers rather to the aggregate body of men, and their possessions, rather than to the government of a country: it is the business of the minister to consult the interests of the commonwealth.

Commonweedth.

The term state is indefinitely applied to all communities, large or small, living under any form of government: a petty principality in Germany, and the whole German or Russian empire, are alike termed states; 'No man that understands the state of Poland, and the living the internal state of the state of Poland, and the state of the state of the state of the state of Poland. United Provinces, will be able to range them under any particular names of government that have been invented.'-TEMPLE. Realm is a term of dignity in regard to a nation; France, Germany, England, Russia, are, therefore, with most propriety termed realms, when spoken of either in regard to themselves or in general connexions;

Then Saturn came, who fled the power of Jove, Robb'd of his realms, and banish'd from above.

DRVDEN.

Commonwealth, although not appropriately applied to any nation, is most fitted for republicks, which have hardly fixedness enough in themselves to deserve the name of state;

Civil dissension is a viperous worm, That gnaws the bowels of the commonwealth. SHAKSPEARE.

CREDIT, FAVOUR, INFLUENCE

Credit, from the Latin creditus, participle of credo to believe or trust, marks the state of being believed or trusted; favour, from the Latin javeo, and probably favous a honey comb, marks an agreeable or pleasant state of feeling; influence significs the same as in the preceding article

These terms denote the state we stand in with regard to others as flowing out of their sentiments towards ourselves: credit arises out of esteem; favour out of good-will or affection; influence out of either credit or favour; credit depends most on personal merit; favour may depend on the caprice of him who be-

stows it.

The credit which we have with others is marked by their confidence in our judgement; by their disposition to submit to our decisions; by their reliance in our to submit to our decisions; by their reliance in our veracity, or assent to our opinions: the favour we have with others is marked by their readiness to comply with our wishes; their subserviency to our views; attachment to our society: men of talent are ambitions to gain credit with their sovereigns, by the superiority of their counsel; weak men or men of ordinary powers are contented with being the favourities of reviews, and enjoying their naturange and redication. princes, and enjoying their patronage and protection. princes, and enjoying their patronage and protection. Credit redounds to the honour of the individual, and stimulates him to noble exertions; it is beneficial in its results to all mankind, individually or collectively; 'Truth itself shall lose its credit, if delivered by a person that has none.'—SOUTH. Favour redounds to the personal advantage, the selfish gratification of the individual; it is apt to inflame pride, and provoke jealousy; 'Halifax, thinking this a lucky opportunity of securing immortality, made some advances of fa-vour and some overtures of advantage to Pope, which ne seems to have received with sullen coldness.'— Johnson. The honest exertion of our abilities is all that is necessary to gain credit; there will always be found those who are just enough to give credit where credit is due: favour, whether in the gaining or maintaining, requires much finesse and trick; much management of the humours of others; much control of one's own humours; what is thus gained with difficulty is often lost in a moment, and for a trifle. Credit. culty is otten lost in a moment, and for a trifle. Credit, though sometimes obtained by falsehood, is never got without exertion; but favour, whether justly or unjustly bestowed, often comes by little or no effort on the part of the receiver: a clergyman gains credit with his parishioners by the consistency of his conduct, the gravity of his demeanour, and the strictness of his

life; the favour of the populace is gained by arts

which men of upright minds would disdain to employ Credit and favour are the gifts of others; influence is a possession which we derive from circumstances: there will always be influence where there is credit or favour, but it may exist independently of either: we have credit and favour for ourselves; we exert influ-ence over others: credit and favour serve one's own purposes; influence is employed in directing others: weak people easily give credit, or bestow their arear, weak people easily give creax, or destow their Corear, by which an influence is gained over them to bend them to the will of others; the influence itself may be good or bad, according to the views of the person by whom it is exerted; What motive could induce Murray to murder a prince without capacity, without followers, without influence over the nobles, whom the queen, by her neglect, had reduced to the lowest state of contempt.'-ROBERTSON.

GRACE, FAVOUR.

Grace, in French grace, Latin gratia, comes from gratus kind, because a grace results from pure kindness independently of the merit of the receiver; but favour is that which is granted voluntarily and with out hope of recompense independently of all obligation.

Grace is never used but in regard to those who have offended and made themselves liable to punishment; farour is employed for actual good. An act of grace is a term employed to denote that act of the government by which insolvent debtors are released; but otherwise the term is in most frequent use among Christians to denote that merciful influence which God exerts over his most unworthy creatures from the infinite goodness of his Divine nature; it is to his special grace that we attribute every good feeling by which we are prevented from committing sin;

But say I could repent and could obtain, By act of grace, my former state, how soon Would height recall high thoughts.—MILTON.

The term favour is employed indiscriminately with regard to man or his Maker; those who are in power have the greatest opportunity of conferring favours; 'A bad man is wholly the creature of the world. He hangs upon its favour.'—BLAIR. But all we receive at the hands of our Maker must be acknowledged as a favour. The Divine grace is absolutely indispensable for men as sinners; the Divine favour is perpetually necessary for men as his creatures dependent upon him for every thing.

FAVOURABLE, PROPITIOUS, AUSPICIOUS.

Favourable, disposed to favour, or after the manner of favour, is the general term; propitious and auspi-cious are species of the favourable; propitious, in Latin propitius, comes from prope near, because the heathens solicited their deities to be near or present to give them aid in favour of their designs; whence progive them and in favour of their designs; whence pro-pitious signifies favourable as it springs from the de-sign of an agent: auspicious, in French auspice, Latin auspicium and auspez, compounded of avis and spico to behold, signifies favourable according to the aus-pices; what is propitious or auspicious, therefore, is always favourable, but not vice versa: the favourable properly characterizes both persons and things; the properly characterizes out persons and times; the properties, in the proper sense, characterizes the person only; auspicious is said of things only: as applied to persons, an equal may be favourable: a superiour only is propitious: the one may be favourable only in inclination; the latter is favourable also in granting timely assistance. Cato was favourable to Pumpey; the gods were propitious to the Greeks: we may all decides the property of the property of the property of the property of the greeks. wish to have our friends favourable to our projects; Famous Plantagenet! most gracious prince,

Lend favourable ear to our requests. - SHAKSPEARE. None but heathens expect to have a blind destiny pro pitions. In the improper sense, propitions may be applied to things with a similar distinction: whatever

applied to things with a similar distinction, whatevor, which is well disposed to us, and seconds our endeavours, or serves our purpose, is favourable; 'You have indeed every farourable circumstance for your advancement that can be wished.'—Mellowork (Letters of Cicero)

But ah! what use of valour can be made, When Heaven's propitious powers refuse their aid. DRVDEN.

On ordinary occasions, a wind is said to be favourable which carries us to the end of our voyage; but it is said to be propietous if the rapidity of our passage forwards any great purpose of our own. Those things are auspicious which are casual, or only indicative of good; persons are propitious to the wishes of another who listen to their requests and contribute to their satisfaction. A journey is undertaken under auspi-cious circumstances, where every thing incidental, as weather, society, and the like, bid fair to afford pleasure;

Still follow where auspicious fates invite, Caress the happy, and the wretched slight. Sooner shall jarring elements unite, Than truth with gain, than interest with right.

A journey is undertaken under propitious circumstances when every thing favours the attainment of the object for which it was begun :

Who loves a garden loves a greenhouse too: Unconscious of a less proportious clime, There blooms exotic beauty.—Cowper.

Whoever has any request to make ought to seize the auspicious moment when the person of whom it is asked is in a pleasant frame of mind; a poet in his invocation requests the muse to be propitious to him, or the lover conjures his beloved to be propitious to his VOUS.

TO LEAD, CONDUCT, GUIDE,

Lead, in Saxon lädden, läden, Danish lede, Swedish leda, low German leiden, high German leiten, is most probably connected with the obsolete German leit, leige, a way or road, Swedish led, Saxon late, &c signifying properly to show or direct in the way; consignifying property to snow of three in the way; conduct, in Latin conductus, participle of conduct, signifies to carry a person with one, or to make a thing go according to one's will; guide, in French guider, Saxon witan or wisan, German, &c. weisen to show, Latin video to see or show, signifies properly to point out the

These terms are all employed to denote the influence which one person has over the movements or actions of another; but the first implies nothing more than personal presence and direction or going before, the last two convey also the idea of superiour intelligence; those are led who either cannot or will not go alone. those are conducted and guided who do not know the road: in the literal sense it is the hand that leads, the head that conducts, and the eye that guides; one leads an infant; conducts a person to a given spot; and guides a traveller

His guide, as faithful from that day His guide, as faithful from that thay As Hesperus that leads the sun his way.

FAIRFAX.

We waited some time in expectation of the next worthy, who came in with a great retinue of historians, whose names I could not learn, most of them being natives of Carthage. The person thus conducted, who was Hannibal, seemed much disturbed.

Can knowledge have no bound, but must advance So far to make us wish for ignorance?

And rather in the dark to grope our way. Than led by a false guide to err by day?—Denham.

A general leads an army, inasmuch as he goes before t into the field of battle; he conducts an army, inasmuch as he directs its movements by his judgement and skill; he is himself guided, inasmuch as he followed. lows the guide who points out the road. The coach-han leads his horses in or out of the stable; he guides them when they are in a carriage; the pilot conducts a vessel; the steersman guides it.

These words bear the same analogy in the moral or figurative application; the personal influence of ano-

Whatever efficaciously protects us, speeds our exertions, and decides our success, is propirtious to us:

ther leads; the understanding conducts; authority or law guides. Men are tol into miscakes by listening to law guides. Men are led into mistakes by listening to evil counsellors. The word is also applied in the same sense to circumstances; 'Human testimony is not so proper to lead us into the knowledge of the 'essence of things, as to acquaint us with the existence of things. things, as to acquaint us with the existence of things.—Watts. But sometimes the word lead is taken in the sense of draw or move into action, as men are said to be led by their passions into errours; 'What I say will have little influence on those whose ends lead them to wish the continuance of the war.'—Swirt. Conducting in the moral sense is applied mostly to conacting in the moral sense is applied mostly to things; one conducts a lawsuit or a business; 'He so conducted the affairs of the kingdom, that he made the reign of a prince most happy to the English.'—Lord Lyttleton. Guiding, which comes nearest to leading in this application, conveys the idea of serving as contact in a sterritor nearest of the Scripture. a rule; an attentive perusal of the Scriptures is sufficient to guide us in the way of salvation; 'The brutes are guided by instinct and know no sorrow; the angels have knowledge and they are happy.'-STEELE. 'Upon but interest guides men, they many times conclude that the slightest wrongs are not to be put up with."— KETTELWELL.

TO CONDUCT, MANAGE, DIRECT.

Conducting, as in the preceding article, requires most wisdom and knowledge: managing, from the French menager and mener, and the Latin manus a hand, supposes most action; direction, from the Latin directus, participle of dirigo or di and rego, signifies to regulate distinctly, which supposes most authority. lawyer conducts the cause intrusted to him; a steward manages the mercantile concerns for his employer; a superintendent directs the movements of all the subordinate agents.

Conducting is always applied to affairs of the first importance; 'The general purposes of men in the conduct of their lives, I mean with relation to this life only, end in gaining either the affection or esteem of those with whom they converse.'—STEELE. Management is a term of familiar use to characterize a familiar em ployment; 'Good delivery is a graceful management of the voice, countenance, and gesture.'—Steele. 'I have sometimes amused myself with considering the several methods of managing a debate, which have obtained in the world.'—Appison. Direction makes up in authority what it wants in importance; it falls but little short of the word conduct; 'To direct a wan-derer in the right way is to light another man's candle by one's own, which loses none of its light by what the other gains.'—Grove. A conductor conceives and plans as well as executes: 'If he did not entirely proplans as well as executes: 'If he did not entirely project the union and regency, none will deny him to have been the chief conductor in both.'—ADDISON. A manager, for the most part simply acts or executes, except in a subordinate capacity, or in mean concerns; 'A skilful manager of the rabble, so long as they have but ears to hear, need never inquire whether they but ears to near, need never inquire whether they have understanding. —South. A director commands; 'Himself stood director over them, with nodding or stamping, showing he did like or mislike those things he did not understand. —Sidney. It is necessary to conduct with wisdom; to manage with diligence and attention; to direct with promptitude, precision, and eleganose. A minister of state register requires more than the promptitude of the control of the clearness. A minister of state requires peculiar talents to conduct, with success, the various and complicated concerns which are connected with his office: he must exercise much skill in managing the various characters and clashing interests with which he becomes connected: and possess much influence to direct the mul tiplied operations by which the grand machine of go vernment is kept in motion.

When a general undertakes to conduct a campaign he will intrust the management of minor concerns to persons on whom he can rely; but he will direct in person whatever is likely to have any serious influence on his success.

TO DIRECT, DISPOSE, REGULATE.

We direct for the instruction of individuals. regulate for the good order or convenience of many We dispose for the benefit of one or many

To direct (v. To conduct) is personal, it supposes authority; to regulate, from the Latin regula a rule, sig nifying to settle according to a rule, is general, it sup poses superiour information. An officer directs the movements of his men in military operations;

Canst thou with all a monarch's cares opprest! Oh Atreus' son! canst thou indulge thy rest? Ill fits a chief, who mighty nations guides, Directs in council, and in war presides .-- POPE.

The steward or master of the ceremonies regulates the whole concerns of an entertainment;

Ev'n goddesses are women: and no wife Has power to regulate her husband's his

The director is often a man in power; the regulator is always the man of business; the latter is frequently employed to act under the former. The Bank of England has its directors, who only take part in the administration of the whole; the regulation of the subordinate part, and of the details of business, is intrusted to the subordinate part, and of the details of business, is intrusted to the superiour clerks.

To direct is mostly used with regard to others; regulate, frequently with regard to ourselves. person directs another according to his better judge ment; he regulates his own conduct by principles circumstances; 'Strange disorders are bred in the minds of those men whose passions are not regulated by reason. — Addison. But sometimes the word derect is taken in the sense of giving a direction towards an object, and it is then distinguished from regulate, which signifies to determine the measure and other circumstances; 'It is the business of religion and philosophy not so much to extinguish our passions, as to regulate and direct them to valuable, well-chosen

objects.—ADDISON.
To dispose, from dispone, or dis and pone, signifying to put apart for a particular use, supposes superiour power, like the word direct, and superiour wisdom, like that of regulate; whence the term has been applied to the Supreme Being, who is styled the 'Drysoser of all events;' and in the same sense, it is used by the poets in reference to the heathen gods;

Endure, and conquer; Jove will soon dispose To future good, our past and present woes.

BEHAVIOUR, CONDUCT, CARRIAGE, DE-PORTMENT, DEMEANOUR.

behaviour comes from behave, compounded of be and have, signtlying to have one's self, or have self-possession; conduct, in Latin conductus, participle of conduct, compounded of con or cum and duce to lead along, signifies leading one's self along; carriage, the abstract of carry (v. To bear, carry), signifies the act of carrying one's body, or one's self; deportment, from the Latin deporte to carry; and demeanour, from the French demenr to lead, have the same original sense as the preceding. have, signifying to have one's self, or have self-posses-

preceding. Behaviour respects corporeal or mental actions; con-Echanicur respects corporea or mental actions; conduct, mental actions; carriage, deportment, and demensiour, are different species of behaviour. Brhaviour respects all actions exposed to the notice of others: conduct the general line of a person's moral table, or in company, in a ball room, in the street, or in publick; of his conduct in the management of his private concerns, in the direction of his family, or in his different relations with his fellow-creatures. Behaviour applies to the minor morals of society; conduct to those of the first moment: in our intercourse with others we may adopt a civil or polite, a rude or boister-ous behaviour; in our serious transactions we may adopt a peaceable, discreet, or prudent, a rash, dan-gerous, or mischievous conduct. Our behaviour is good or bad; our conduct is wise or foolish: by our behaviour we may render ourselves agreeable, or otherwise; by our conduct we may command esteem, or provoke contempt: the behaviour of young people in ecciety is of particular importance; it should, above all things, be marked with propriety in the presence of superiours and elders; 'The circumstance of life is not the ordinary movements of men; there is a good, a

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that which gives us place, but our behaviour in that circumstance is what should be our solid distinction."

—Stelle. The youth who does not learn betines a seemly behaviour in company, will scarcely know how to conduct himself judiciously on any future occasion; 'Wisdom is no less necessary in religious and moral than in civil conduct.'—BLAIR.

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Carriage respects simply the manner of carrying the body; deportment includes both the action and the the body; deportment includes both the action and the carriage of the body in performing the action; demeanour respects only the moral character or tendency of the action; deportment is said only of those exteriour actions that have an immediate reference to others; demeanour, of the general behaviour as it relates to the circumstances and situation of the individual: the carriage is that part of behaviour, which is of the first importance to attend to in young persons. The carriage should neither be haughty nor servile; to be graceful, it ought to have a due mixture of dignity and condescension: the deportment of a man should be suited to his station; an humble deportment is becoming in inferiours; a stately and forbidding deportment is very unbecoming in superiours; the demeanour of a man should be suited to his situation; the suita-ble demeanour of a judge on the bench, or of a clergy-man in the pulpit, or when performing his clerical functions, adds much to the dignity and solemnity of the office itself.

The carriage marks the birth and education: an awkward carriage stamps a man as vulgar; a graceful carriage evinces refinement and culture; 'He that will look back upon all the acquaintances he has had in his whole life, will find he has seen more men capable of the greatest employments and performances, than such as could in the general bent of their car riage act otherwise than according to their own com-plexion and humour?—Steele. The deportment marks the existing temper of the mind; whoever is really impressed with the solemnity and importance of publick worship will evince his impressions by a gravity of deportment; females should guard against a light deportment, as highly prejudicial to their reputation: deportment, as nignly prejudicial to their reputation; 'The mild demeanour, the modest deportment, are valued not only as they denote internal purity and innocence, but as forming in themselves the most amiable and engaging part of the female character.'—Mackenzie. The demeanour marks the habitual temper of the mind, or in fact the real character; we are often led to judge favourably of an individual from the first glance, whose demeanour on close examination does not leave such favourable impressions; 'I have been told the same even of Mahometans, with relation to the propriety of their demeanour in the conventions of their erroneous worship.'—Steele.

CARRIAGE, GAIT, WALK.

Carriage, from the verb to carry (v. To bear, carry), signifies the act of carrying in general, but here that of carrying the body; gait, from go, signifies the manner of going with the body; walk signifies the

manner of going with the body, manner of valking.

Carriage is here the most general term; it respects the manner of carrying the body, whether in a state of motion or rest: gait is the mode of carrying the limbs and body whenever we move: walk is the manner of carrying the body when we move forward

to walk.

A person's carriage is somewhat natural to him; if is often an indication of character, but admits of great change by education; we may always distinguish great change by education; we may awaysus miguish a man as high or low, either in mind or station, by his carriage; 'Upon her nearer approach to Hercules, she stepped before the other lady, who came forward with a regular composed carriage.'—Addition. Gait is artificial; we may contract a certain gait by habit; the gait is therefore often taken for a bad habit of going, as when a person has a limping gait, or an unsteady gait;

bad, or an indifferent walk; but it is not a matter of ndifference which of these kinds of walk we have; it is the great art of the dancing-master to give a good malk:

In length of train descends her sweeping gown, And by her graceful walk, the queen of love is known. DRYDEN.

MANNERS, MORALS.

Manners (v. Air, manner) respect the minor forms of acting with others and towards others; morals include the important duties of life: manners have, therefore, been denominated minor morals. By an attention to good manners we render ourselves good companions; by an observance of good morals we become good members of society: the former gains the good will of others, the latter their esteem. The manners of a child are of more or less importance, according to his station in life; his morals cannot be at-tended to too early, let his station be what it may; 'In the present corrupted state of human manners, always to assent and to comply, is the very worst maxim we can adopt. It is impossible to support the purity and dignity of Christian morals, without opposing the world on various occasions.'—Blair.

AIR, MANNER.

Air, in Latin aer, Greek ano, comes from the Hebrew אור, because it is the vehicle of light; hence in the figurative sense, in which it is here taken, it denotes an appearance: manner, in French manière, comes probably from mener to lead or direct, signifying the direction of one's movements.

An air is inherent in the whole person; a manner is

confined to the action or the movement of a single limb. A man has the air of a common person; it discovers A man has the ar of a common person, it discovers itself in all his manners. An air has something superficial in its nature; it strikes at the first glance; 'The air she gave herself was that of a romping girl.'

—Steele. Manner has something more solid in it; it developes itself on closer observation; 'The boy is well fashioned, and will easily fall into a graceful manner.'—STEELE. Some people have an air about them which displeases; but their manners afterward win upon those who have a farther intercourse with them. Nothing is more common than to suffer ourselves to be prejudiced by a person's air, either in his favour or otherwise: the manners of a man will often contribute to his advancement in life, more than his real merits.

An air is indicative of a state of mind; it may re sult either from a natural or habitual mode of thinking: a manner is indicative of the education; it is produced by external circumstances. An air is noble or simple, it marks an elevation or simplicity of chaor simple, it marks an elevation of simpletly of character: a manner is rude, rustic, or awkward, for want of culture, good society, and good example. We assume a air, and affect a manner. An assumed air of importance exposes the littleness of the assumer, which might otherwise pass unnoticed: the same manners which are becoming when natural, render a person ridiculous when they are affected. A prepos ing air and engaging manners have more influence on the heart than the solid qualities of the mind.

AIR, MIEN, LOOK.

Air signifies the same as in the preceding article; mien, in German miene, comes, as Adelung supposes, from mahnen to move or draw, because the lines of the face, which constitute the mien in the German sense, are drawn together: look signifies properly a mode of

looking or appearing.

The exteriour of a person is comprehended in the sense of all these words. Air depends not only on the countenance, but the stature, carriage, and action: mien respects the whole outward appearance, not excepting the dress: look depends altogether on the face and its changes. Air marks any particular state of the mind; 'The truth of it is, the air is generally nothing else but the inward disposition of the mind made visible.'-Addison. Mien denotes any state of the outward circumstances;

How sleek their looks, how goodly is their mien, When big they strut behind a double chin

Look denotes any individual movement of the mind; How in the looks does conscious guilt appear. Addison.

We may judge by a person's air, that he has a confident and fearless mind: we may judge by his sorrow ful mien, that he has substantial cause for sorrow; and by sorrowful looks, that he has some partial or tempo-

rary cause for sorrow.

We talk of doing any thing with a particular air. of having a mien; of giving a look. An innocent man will answer his accusers with an air of composure; a person's whole mien sometimes bespeaks his wretched condition; a *look* is sometimes given to one who acts in concert, by way of intimation.

TO ADMONISH, ADVISE.

Admonish, in Latin admoneo, is compounded of the intensive ad and moneo to advise, signifying to put seriously in mind; advise compounded of the Latin ad and visus, participle of video to see, signifies to make to see, or to show.

Admonish mostly regards the past; advise respects the future. We admonish a person on the errours he has committed, by representing to him the extent and consequences of his offence; we advise a person as to his future conduct, by giving him rules and instruc Those who are most liable to transgress require to be admonished;

He of their wicked ways Shall them admonish, and before them set The paths of righteousness .- MILTON.

Those who are most inexperienced require to be advised; 'My worthy friend, the clergyman, told us, that he wondered any order of persons should think themselves too considerable to be advised.'-Addison. Admonition serves to put people on their guard against evil; advice to direct them in the choice of good.

ADMONITION, WARNING, CAUTION.

Admonition signifies the act of admonishing, or that by which one admonishes: warning, in Saxon warnien, German warnen, probably from währen to perceive, signifies making to see; caution, from caveo to beware, signifies the making beware.

A guarding against evil is common to these terms but admonition expresses more than warning, and that more than caution.

An admonition respects the moral conduct; it comprehends reasoning and remonstrance: warning and caution respect the personal interest or safety; the former comprehends a strong forcible representation of the evil to be dreaded; the latter a simple apprisal of a future contingency. Admonition may therefore frequently comprehend varning; and varning may comprehend caution, though not vice versd. We admonish a person against the commission of any offence; we warn him against danger; we caution him against any misfortune.

Admonitions and warnings are given by those who are superiously in possession of information. Parents give admonitions; ministers of the gospel give varages: indifferent persons give cautions. It is necessary to admonish those who have once offended to abstain from a similar offence; 'At the same time that I am talking of the cruelty of urging people's faults with severity, I cannot but bewail some which men are guilty of for want of admonition.'—STERLE. It is necessary to warn those of the consequences of sin who seem determined to persevere in a wicked course:

Not e'en Philander had bespoke his shroud, Nor had he cause-a warning was denied.

It is necessary to caution those against any false step who are going in a strange path;

You caution'd me against their charms, But never gave me equal arms;

Your lessons found the weakest part,

Aim'd at the head, but reach'd the heart .- Swift.

Admonitions are given by persons only; warnings and cautions are given by things. The young are admonished by the old: the death of friends or relatives serves as a warning to the survivors; the unfortunate accidents of the careless serve as a caution to others to avoid the like errour. Admonitions should be given with mildness and gravity; warnings with impressive force and warmth; cautions with clearness and precision. The young require frequent admonitions; the ignorant and self-deluded solemn warning. ings; the inexperienced timely cautions.

Admonitions ought to be listened to with sorrowful attention; warnings should make a deep and lasting impression; cautions should be borne in mind: but admonitions are too often rejected, warnings despised,

and cautions slighted.

ADVICE, COUNSEL, INSTRUCTION.

Advice signifies that which is advised (v. Advice); counsel, in French conseil, Latin consilium, comes from consilio, compounded of con and salio to leap together, signifying to run or act in accordance; and in an extended sense implies deliberation, or the thing deliberation. rated upon, determined, and prescribed; instruction, in French instruction, Latin instructio, comes from in and strue to dispose or regulate, signifying the thing laid down.

The end of all the actions implied by these words is the communication of knowledge, and all of them in-clude the accessary idea of superiority, either of age, station, knowledge, or talent. Advice flows from superiour professional knowledge, or an acquaintance with things in general; counsel regards superiour wisdom, or a superiour acquaintance with moral principles and practice; instruction respects superiour local knowledge in particular transactions. A medical man gives advice to his patient; a father gives counsel to his children; a counsellor gives advice to his client in points of law; he receives instructions from him in matters

Advice should be prudent and cautious; counsel, sage and deliberative; instructions, clear and positive. vice is given on all the concerns of life, important or otherwise; 'In what manner can one give advice to a youth in the pursuit and possession of pleasure?—
STELLE. Counsel is employed for grave and weighty matters; 'Young persons are commonly inclined to slight the remarks and counsels of their elders.'—Joan-BON. Instruction is used on official occasions;

To serve by way of guide or direction See this despatch'd with all the haste thou canst; See this despatch a with an end of the Anon I'll give thee more instruction.

Shakspeare.

Men of business are best able to give advice in mercantile transactions. In all measures that involve our fu-ture happiness, it is prudent to take the counsel of those who are more experienced than ourselves. An ambas sador must not act without instructions from his court.

A wise king will not act without the advice of his ministers. A considerate youth will not take any serious step without the counsel of his better informed All diplomatick persons are guided by particular instructions in carrying on negotiations

Advice and counsel are often given unasked and undesired, but instructions are always required for the regulation of a person's conduct in an official capacity. The term instruction may however be also applied morally and figuratively for that which serves to guide one in his course of life;

On ev'ry thorn delightful wisdom grows, In ev'ry stream a sweet instruction flows .- Young.

TO INFORM, INSTRUCT, TEACH.

The communication of knowledge in general is the common idea by which these words are connected with each other. Inform is the general term; the other two are specifick. To inform is the act of persons in all conditions; to instruct and teach are the acts of superiours, either on one ground or another: one informs by virtue of an accidental superiority or priority of know-

ledge; one instructs by virtue of superiour knowledge or superiour station: one teaches by virtue of superiour knowledge, rather than of station: diplomatick agents inform their governments of the political transactions in which they have been concerned; government instructs its different functionaries and officers in regard to their mode of proceeding; professors and pre-ceptors teach those who attend a publick school to learn.

To inform is applicable to matters of general interest; we may inform ourselves or others on every thing which is a subject of inquiry or curiosity; and the information serves either to amuse or to improve the mind; 'While we only desire to have our ignorance informed, we are most delighted with the plainest diction.'—Johnson To instruct is applicable to matters of serious concern, or that which is practically useful; it serves to set us right in the path of life. A parent *instructs* his child in the course of conduct he should pursue; a good child profits by the instruction of a good parent to make him wiser and better for the time to come;

Not Thracian Orpheus should transcend my lays, Nor Linus, crown'd with never fading bays; Though each his heav'nly parent should inspire, The Muse instruct the voice, and Phæbus tune the lyre. DRYDEN.

To teach respects matters of art and science; the learner depends upon the teacher for the formation of his mind, and the establishment of his principles; 'He that teaches us any thing which we knew not before is undoubtedly to be reverenced as a master.'—Johnson. Every one ought to be properly informed before he pretends to give an opinion; the young and inexperienced must be instructed before they can act; the ignorant must be taught, in order to guard them against errour. Truth and sincerity are all that is necessary for an informant; general experience and a period knowledge of the subject in question are requisite for the instructer; fundamental knowledge is requisite for a teacher. Those who give information upon the authority of others are liable to mislead; those who instruct others in doing that which is bad, scandalously abuse the authority that is reposed in them; those who pretend to teach what they themselves do not understand, mostly betray their ignorance sooner or later.

To inform and to teach are employed for things as 10 inform and to teach are employed for image as well as persons; to instruct only for persons; books and reading inform the mind; history or experience teaches mankind; 'The long speeches rather confounded than informed his understanding.'—CLARENDON. 'Nature is no sufficient teacher what we should do that we may attain unto life everlasting.'-Ilooker

TO INFORM, MAKE KNOWN, ACQUAINT, APPRIZE.

The idea of bringing to the knowledge of one or more persons is common to all these terms. Inform, from the Latin informo to fashion the mind, comprehends this general idea only, without the addition of any collateral idea; it is therefore the generick term, and the rest specifick: to inform is to communicate what has lately happened, or the contrary; but to make known is to bring to light what has long been known and pur posely concealed: to inform is to communicate directly or indirectly to one or many;

Our ruin, by thee inform'd, I learn .- MILTON.

To make known is mostly to communicate indirectly to many: one informs the publick of one's intentions by means of an advertisement in one's own name; one makes known a fact through a circuitous channel, and without any name;

But fools, to talking ever prone, Are sure to make their follies known .- GAY.

To inform may be either a personal address or other wise; to acquaint and apprize are immediate and personal communications. One informs the government. or any publick body, or one informs one's friends; one acquaints or apprizes only one's friends, or particular individuals: one is informed of that which either concerns the informant, or the person informed; one acquaints a person with, or apprizes him of such things as peculiarly concern himself, but the latter in more specifick circumstances than the former: one informs a correspondent by letter of the day on which he may expect to receive his order, or of one's own wishes with regard to an order;

I have this present evening from my sister, Been well informed of them, and with cautions.

SHAKSPEARE.

One acquaints a father with all the circumstances that respect his son's conduct; 'If any man lives under a minister that doth not act according to the rules of the gospel, it is his own fault in that he doth not acquaint the bishop with it.'-BEVERIDGE. One apprizes a friend of a bequest that has been made to him; 'You know, without my telling you, with what zeal I have recommended you to Casar, although you may not be apprized that I have frequently written to him upon that subject: Mklmoth (Letters of Cicero). One informs the magistrate of any irregularity that passes; one acquaints the master of a family with the misconone acquaents the master of a faining with the misconduct of his servants; one apprizes a person of the time when he will be obliged to appear. Inform is used figuratively, but the other terms mostly in the proper sense; 'Religion informs us that misery and sin were produced together."—JOHNSON.

INFORMANT, INFORMER.

These two epithets, from the verb to inform, have acquired by their application an important distinction. The informant being he who informs for the benefit of others, and the informer to the molestation of others. What the informant communicates is for the benefit of the individual, and what the informer communicates is for the benefit of the whole. The informant is thanked for his civility in making the communication; the informer undergoes a great deal of odium, but is thanked by notone, not even by those who employ him. We may all be informants in our turn, if we know of any thing of which another may be informed; 'Aye (says our Artist's informant), but at the same time he declared you (Hogarth) were as good a portrait painter as Vandyke.'—Pilkington. None are informers who do not inform against the transgressors of any law; . Every member of society feels and acknowledges the necessity of detecting crimes, yet scarce any degree of virtue or reputation is able to secure an informer from publick hatred.'-Johnson.

INFORMATION, INTELLIGENCE, NOTICE, ADVICE.

Information (v. To inform) signifies the thing of which one is informed: Intelligence, from the Latin intelligo to understand, signifies that by which one is thade to understand: notice, from the Latin notitia, is that which brings a circumstance to our knowledge: Avice (v. Advice) signifies that which is made known. These terms come very near to each other in signification, but differ in application: information is the most general and indefinite of all; the three others are but modes of information. Whatever is communicated to us is information, be it publick or private, open or concealed:

There, centring in a focus round and neat, Let all your rays of information meet.-Cowper.

Notice, intelligence, and advice, are mostly publick, but particularly the former. Information and notice may be communicated by word of mouth or by writing; intelligence is mostly communicated by writing or printing; advices are mostly sent by letter: information is mostly an informal mode of communication; notice, intelligence, and advice, are mostly formal communications. A servant gives his master information, or one friend sends another information from the country magistrates or officers give notice of such things as it concerns the publick to know and to observe; spies concerns the publick to know and to observe; spies give intelligence of all that passes under their notice; or intelligence is given in the publick prints of all that passes worthy of notice; 'My lion, whose jaws are at all hours open to intelligence, informs me that there are a few enormous weapons still in being.'-STEELE. military commander sends advice to his government of the operations which are going forward under his direction; or one merchant gives advice to another of the state of the market; 'As he was dictating to his hearers with great authority, there came in a gentleman from Garrawav's, who told us that there were several

letters from France just come in, with advice that the

king was in good health.'—Addison.

Information, as calculated to influence men's actions, ought to be correct: those who are too eager to know what is passing, are often misled by false infor-mation. Notice, as it serves either to warn or direct. ought to be timely;

At his years
Death gives short notice.—Thomson.

No law of general interest is carried into effect without timely notice being given. Intelligence, as the first intimation of an interesting event, ought to be early; advices, as entering into details, ought to be clear and particular; official advices often arrive to contradict non-official intelligence

Information and intelligence, when applied as characteristicks of men, have a farther distinction: the man of information is so denominated only on account of his knowledge; but a man of intelligence is so denominated on account of his understanding as well as experience and information. It is not possible to be intelligent without information; but we may be well informed without being remarkable for intelligence: a man of information may be an agreeable companion, and fitted to maintain conversation; but an intelligent man will be an instructive companion, and most fitted for conducting business.

ACQUAINTANCE, FAMILIARITY, INTIMACY.

Acquaintance comes from acquaint, which is com pounded of the intensive syllable ac or ad and quaint, in old French coint, Teut. gekannt known, signifying known to one; familiarity comes from familiar, in Latin familiaris and familia, signifying known as one of the family; intimacy, from intimate, in Latin inti-matus, participle of intimo to love entirely, from in-timus innermost, signifies known to the innermost recesses of the heart.

These terms mark different degrees of closeness in the social intercourse; acquaintance expressing less than familiarity; and that less than intimacy; 'A slight knowledge of any one constitutes an acquaintance; to be familiar requires an acquaintance of some standing; intimacy supposes such an acquaintance as is supported by friendship.'—Trusler.

Acquaintance springs from occasional intercourse; familiarity is produced by a daily intercourse, which wears off all constraint, and banishes all ceremony; intimacy arises not merely from frequent intercourse but unreserved communication. An acquaintance will be occasionally a guest; 'An acquaintance is a being who meets us with a smile and salute, who tells us with the same breath that he is glad and sorry for the most trivial good and ill that befalls us. HAWKES-WORTH. One that is on terms of familiarity has easy access to our table; 'His familiars were his entire friends, and could have no interested views in courting his acquaintance. —Steele. An intimate lays claim to a share at least of our confidence; 'At an entertainment given by Pisistratus to some of his intimates. Thrasippus took some occasion, not recorded, to break out into the most violent abuse.'—Cumberland. An acquaintance with a person affords but little opportunity for knowing his character; familiarity puts us in the way of seeing his foibles, rather than his virtues; but intimacy enables us to appreciate his worth; 'Those who are apt to be familiar on a slight acquaintance, will never acquire any degree of intimacy. TRUSLER.

A simple acquaintance is the most desirable footing on which to stand with all persons, however deserving;

Acquaintance grew; th' acquaintance they improve To friendship; friendship ripen'd into love.

If it have not the pleasures of familiarity or intimacy, it can claim the privilege of being exempted from their pains. "Too much familiarity," according to the old proverb, "breeds contempt." The unlicensed freedom which commonly attends familiarity affords freedom which commonly attends familiarity altords but too ample scope for the indulgence of the selfash and unamiable passions; 'That familiarity produces neglect has been long observed.'—Johnson. Intimacies begun in love often end in hatred, as ill chosen friends commonly become the bitterest enemies. A man may have a thousand acquaintance, and not one whom he should make his *intimate*; 'The *intimacy* between the father of Eugenio and Agrestis produced a tender friendship between his sister and Amelia.'—

HAWKESWORTH.

These terms may be applied to things as well as persons, in which case they bear a similar analogy. An acquaintance with a subject is opposed to entire ignorance upon it; familiarity with it is the consequence of frequent repetition; and intimacy of a steady and thorough research; 'With Homer's heroes we have more than historical acquaintance: we are made intimate with their habits and nanners.'—
Cumberland. 'The frequency of envy makes it so familiar, that it escapes our notice.'—Johnson. In our intercourse with the world we become daily acquainted with fresh subjects to engage our attention. Some men have by extraordinary diligence acquired a considerable familiarity with more than one language and science; but few, if any, can boast of having possessed an intimate acquaintance with all the particulars of even one language or science. When we can translate the authors of any foreign language, we may claim an acquaintance with it; when we can speak, or write it freely, we may be said to be familiar with it; but an intimate acquaintance comprehends a thorough critical intimacy with all the niceties and subtleties of its structure.

TO KNOW, BE ACQUAINTED WITH.

To know is a general term; to be acquainted with is particular (v. Acquaintance). We may know things or persons in various ways; we may know them by name only; or we may know their internal properties or characters; or we may simply know their figure; we may know them by report; or we may know them by a direct intercourse: one is acquainted with either a person or a thing, only in a direct manner, and by an immediate intercourse in one's own person. We know a man to be good or bad, virtuous or vicious, by being a witness to his actions;

Is there no temp'rate region can be known,
Between their frigid and our torrid zone?
Could we not wake from that lethargick dream,
But to be resuless in a worse extreme.—Denham.

We become acquainted with a person by frequently being in his company; 'But how shall I express my anguish for my little boy, who became acquainted with sorrow as soon as he was capable of reflection.'
--Melmoth (Letters of Cierro).

KNOWLEDGE, SCIENCE, LEARNING, ERUDITION.

Knowledge, from know, in all probability comes from the Latin nosco, and the Greek γινόσκω; science, in Latin scientia, from scio, Greek ζοημι to know, and του to see or perceive; learning, from learn, signifies the thing learned; erudition, in Latin eruditio, comes from erudio to bring out of a state of rudeness or ignorance.

Knowledge is a general term which simply implies the thing known: science, learning, and erudition, are imodes of knowledge qualified by some collateral idea: science is a systematick species of knowledge which consists of rule and order; learning is that species of knowledge which one derives from schools, or through the medium of personal instruction; erudition is scholastick knowledge obtained by profound research: knowledge admits of every possible degree, and is expressly opposed to ignorance; science, learning, and

pressly opposed to ignorance; science, learning, and crudition, are positively high degrees of knowledge. The attainment of knowledge is, of itself, a pleasure, independent of the many extrinsick advantages which it brings to every individual, according to the station of life in which he is placed; the pursuits of science have a peculiar interest for men of a peculiar turn: those who thirst after general knowledge may not have a reach of intellect to take the comprehensive survey of nature, which is requisite for a scientifick man. Learning is less dependent on the genius, than on the will of the individual; men of moderate talents have overcome the deficiencies of nature, by labour and perseverance, and have acquired such stores of learning as have raised them to a respectable station

in the republick of letters. Profound erudition is obtained but by few; a retentive memory, patient in dustry, and deep penetration, are requisites for one who aspires to the title of an erudite man.

Knowledge, in the unqualified and universal sense, is not always a good: Pope says, "A little knowledge is a dangerous thing:" it is certain we may have a knowledge of evil as well as good, and as our passions are ever ready to serve us an ill turn, they will call in our imperfect or superficial knowledge to their aid;

Can knowledge have no bound, but must advance So far, to make us wish for ignorance.—Denham.

Science is more exempt from this danger; but the scientifick man who forgets to make experience his guide, as many are apt to do in the present day, will wander in the regions of idle speculation, and sink in the quicksands of skepticism;

O sacred poesy, thou spirit of Roman arts, The soul of science, and the queen of souls. B. Jonson.

Learning is more generally and practically useful to the morals of men than science; while it makes us acquainted with the language, the sentiments, and manners of former ages: it serves to purify the sentiments, to enlarge the understanding, and exert the powers; but the pursuit of that learning which consists merely in the knowledge of words or in the study of editions, is even worse than a useless employment of the time; 'As learning advanced, new works were adopted into our language, but I think with little improvement of the art of translation.'—Johnson. Erudition is always good, it does not merely serve to ennoble the possessor, but it adds to the stock of important knowledge; it serves the cause of religion and morality, and elevates the views of men to the grandest objects of inquiry; 'Two of the French clergy with whom I passed my evenings were men of deep erudition.'—Burke.

LETTER, EPISTLE.

According to the origin of these words, letter, in Latin litera, signifies any document composed of written letters; and epistle, in Greek ἐκηςολὴ from ἐπιςέλλω to send, signifies a letter sent or addressed to any one; consequently the former is the generick, the latter the specifick term. Letter is a term altogether familiar, it may be used for whatever is written by one friend to another in domestick life, or for the publick documents of this description, which have emanated from the pen of writters, as the letters of Madame de Savigny, the letters of Pope or of Swlft, and even those which were written by the ancients, as the letters of Cicero, Pliny, and Seneca: but in strict propriety those are entitled epistles, as a term most adapted to whatever has received the sanction of ages, and by the same rule, likewise, whatever is pecularly solema in its contents has acquired the same epithet, as the epistles of St. Paul, St. Peter, St. John, St. Jude; and by an analogous rule, whatever poetry is written in the epistolary form is denominated an epistle rather than a letter, whether of ancient or modern date, as the epistles of Horacc, or the epistles of Boileau; and finally, whatever is addressed by way of dedication is denominated a dedicatory epistle. Ease and a friendly familiarity should characterize the letter: sentiment and instruction are always conveyed by an epistle.

LETTERS, LITERATURE, LEARNING.

Letters and literature signify knowledge, derived through the medium of written letters or books, that is, information: learning (v. Knowledge) is confined to that which is communicated, that is, scholastick know ledge. The term men of letters, or the republick of letters, comprehends all who devote themselves to the cultivation of their minds; 'To the greater part of mankind the duties of life are inconsistent with much study; and the hours which they would spend upon letters must be stolen from their occupations and families.'—Johnson. Literary societies have for their object the diffusion of general information: learned societies propose to themselves the higher object of extending the bounds of science, and increasing the sum of lumma knowledge. Men of letters have a passport

for admittance into the higher circles; literary men can always find resources for themselves in their own society: learned men, or men of learning, are more the objects of respect and admiration than of imitation; 'He that recalls the attention of mankind to any part of learning which time has left behind it, may be truly said to advance the literature of his own age.'—Johnson.

CHARACTER, LETTER.

Character comes from the Greek $\chi a \rho a \kappa \tau \hat{\eta} \rho$, signifying an impression or mark, from $\chi a \rho \hat{a} \sigma \omega \omega$ to imprint or stamp letter, in French letter, Latin litera, is probably contracted from legitera, signifying what is legible.

Character is to letter as the genus to the species: every letter is e character; but every character is not a letter. Character is any printed mark that serves to designate something; a letter is a species of character which is the constituted part of a word. Shorthand and hieroglyphicks consist of characters, but not of letters.

Character is employed figuratively, but letter is not. A grateful person has the favours which are conferred upon him written in indelible characters upon his heart; 'A disdainful, a subtle, and a suspicious temper, is displayed in characters that are almost universally understood.'—HAWESWOETH.

SCHOLAR, DISCIPLE, PUPIL.

Scholar and disciple are both applied to such as learn from others; but the former is said only of those who learn the rudiments of knowledge; the latter of one who acquires any art or science from the instruction of another; the scholar is opposed to the teacher, the disciple to the master; children are always scholars; adult persons may be disciples.

Scholars chiefly employ themselves in the study of words; disciples, as the disciples of our Saviour, in the study of things; we are the scholars of any one under whose care we are placed, or from whom we learn any thing, good or bad; 'The Romans confessed themselves the scholars of the Greeks.'—Johnson. We are the disciples only of distinguished persons or such as communicate either knowledge or opinions, useful or otherwise; 'We are not the disciples of Voltaire.'—BURKE. Children are sometimes too apt scholars in learning evil from one another.

A pupil is a species of scholar who is under the immediate and personal superintendance of the person from whom he receives his instruction. The Latin word pupillus signifies a fatherless child, or a man child under age and in ward, in which sense it is also sometimes used for the term ward; but in the ordinary acceptation of the tern it now comprehends the idea of instruction more than that of wardship and superintendence;

My master sues to her, and she hath taught hor suitor, He being her pupil, to become her tutor.

SHAKSPEARE.

SCHOOL, ACADEMY.

The Latin term schola signifies a lottering place, a place for desultory conversation or instruction, from the Greek σχολλ leisure; hence it has been extended to any place where instruction is given, particularly that which is communicated to youth, which being an easy task to one who is familiar with this subject is considered as a relaxation rather than a labour; academy derives its name from the Greek ἀκαδημία the name of a publick place in Athens, where the philosopher Plato first gave his lectures, which afterward became a place of resort for learned men; hence societies of learned men have since been termed academics.

The leading idea in the word school is that of instruction given and doctrine received; in the word academy is that of association among those who have already learned; hence we speak in the literal sense of the school where young persons meet to be taught, or in the extended and moral sense of the old and new school, the Pythngorean school, the philosophical school, and the like; 'The world is a great school where deceit, in all its forms, is one of the lessons that is first learned.'—BLAIR. But the academy of arts or sciences, the French reademy, being members of any academy, and the like; As for other academies such as those for painting.

sculpture, or architecture, we have not so much as heard the proposal.'—Shaftesbury.

EDUCATION, INSTRUCTION, BREEDING

Instruction and breeding are to education as parts to a whole; instruction respects the communication of knowledge, and breeding the manners or outward conduct; but education comprehends not only both these but the formation of the mind, the regulation of the heart, and the establishment of the principles; good instruction makes one wiser; good breeding makes one more polished and agreeable; good education makes one really good. A want of education will always be to the injury if not to the ruin of the sufferer: a want of instruction is of more or less inconvenience, according to circum stances; a want of breeding only units a man for the society of the cultivated. Education belongs to the period of childhood and youth; 'A mother tells her infant that two and two make four, the child remembers the proposition, and is able to count four for all the purposes of life, till the course of his education brings him among philosophers, who fright him from his former knowledge, by telling him that four is a certain aggregate of units.'—Johnson. Instruction may be given at different aggs: 'To illustrate one thing by its resemblance to another, has been always the most popular and efficacious art of instruction.'—Johnson. Good breeding is best learned in the early part of life; 'My breeding abroad hath shown me more of the world than yours has done.'—Wentworth.

IGNORANT, ILLITERATE, UNLEARNED, UNLETTERED.

Ignorant, in Latin ignorans, from the privative ig or in and noro, or the Greek γινώσκω, signifies not knowing things in general, or not knowing any particular circumstance; unlearned, illiterate, and unlettered, are compared with ignorant in the general sense.

Ignorant is a comprehensive term; it includes want of knowledge to any degree from the highest to the lowest, and consequently includes the other terms, illiterate, unlearned, and unlettered, which express different forms of ignorance;

He said, and sent Cyllenius with command To free the ports and ope the Punic land To Trojan guests; lest, ignorant of fate,

The queen might force them from her town and state.

Ignorance is not always to one's disgrace, since it is not always one's fault; the term is not therefore di-rectly reproachful: the poor ignorant savage is an object of pity, rather than condemnation; but when ignorance is coupled with self-conceit and presumption, it is a perfect deformity: hence the word illiterate, which is used only in such cases as to become a term of re proach: an ignorant man who sets up to teach others, is termed an illiterate preacher; and quacks, whether in religion or medicine, from the very nature of their calling, are altogether an illiterate race of men, words unlearned and unlettered are exempt from such unfavourable associations. A modest man, who makes no pretensions to learning, may suitably apologize for his supposed deficiencies by saying he is an unlearned ans supposed demendes by saying he is an unlearned or unlettered man; the former is, however, a term of more familiar use than the latter. A man may be described either as generally unlearned, or as unlearned in particular sciences or arts; as unlearned in history; unlearned in philosophy; Because this doctrine may have appeared to the unlearned light and whimsical, must take leave to unfold the wisdom and antiquity of my first proposition in these my essays, to wit, that "every worthless man is a dead man." "—Addison. We say of a person that he is unlearned in the ways of the world: and a poet may describe his muse as unlettered; 'Ajax, the haughty chief, the unlettered soldier, had no way of making his anger known, but by gloomy sullenness.'-Johnson.

TO ILLUMINATE, ILLUMINE, ENLIGHTEN.

Illuminate, in Latin, illuminatus, participle of illumina, and calighten, from the noun light, both denote the communication of light; the former in the natural, the latter in the moral sense. We illuminate by means

of artificial lights; the sun illuminates the world by its cannot be urbanity without snavity. By the snavity of our manners we gain the love of those around us; own light:

Reason our guide, what can she more reply. Than that the sun illuminates the sky ?-PRIOR.

Preaching and instruction enlighten the minds of men; But if neither you nor I can gather so much from these places, they will tell us it is because we are not inwardly enlightened.'—SOUTH. Illumine is but a poetick variation of illuminate; as, the Sun of Righteousness illumined the benighted world;

What in me is dark Illumine; what is low, raise and support

Illuminations are employed as publick demonstrations of joy: no nation is now termed enlightened but such as have received the light of the Gospel.

CULTIVATION, CULTURE, CIVILIZATION, REFINEMENT.

Cultivation, from the Latin cultus, denotes the act of cultivating, or state of being cultivated : culture signifies the state only of being cultivated; civilization sig-nifies the act of civilizing, or state of being civilized; refinement denotes the act of refining, or the state of

being refined.

being refined. Cultivation is with more propriety applied to the thing that grows; culture to that in which it grows. The cultivation of flowers will not repay the labour unless the soil be prepared by proper culture. In the same manner, when speaking figuratively, we say the cultivation of any art or science; the cultivation of one's taste or inclination, may be said to contribute to one's own skill, or the perfection of the thing itself: one's own skill, or the perfection of the thing itself; but the mind requires culture previously to this particular exertion of the powers; 'Notwithstanding this faculty (of taste) must be in some measure born with us, there are several methods of cultivating and improving it.'—Addison.

But the' Heav'n In every breath has sown these early seeds Of love and admiration, yet in vain
Without fair culture's kind parental aid.

AKENSIDE.

Civilization is the first stage of cultivation; refine ment is the last: we civilize savages by divesting them of their rudeness, and giving them a knowledge of such arts as are requisite for civil society; we culti-vate people in general by calling forth their powers into action and independent exertion; we refine them by the introduction of the liberal arts.

The introduction of Christianity has been the best means of civilizing the rudest nations. The cultiva tion of the mind in serious pursuits tends to refine the sentiments without debilitating the character; cultivation of the liberal arts may be pursued to a vicious extent, so as to introduce an excessive refinement of feeling that is incompatible with real manliness;

To civilize the rude unpolish'd world And lay it under the restraint of laws, To make man mild and sociable to man, To cultivate the wild licentious savage With wisdom, discipline, and lib'ral arts, Th' embellishments of life! Virtues like these Make human nature shine.—Approx.

Poetry makes a principal amusement among unpolished nations, but in a country verging to the extremes of refinement, painting and musick come in for a share.'

Cultivation is applied either to persons or things; civilization is applied to men collectively, refinement to men individually; we may cultivate the mind or any of its operations; or we may cultivate the ground or any thing that grows upon the ground; we civilize nations; we refine the mind or the manners.

SUAVITY, URBANITY.

Suavity is literally sweetness; and urbanity the reinasmich, therefore, as a polite education tends to soften the mind and the manners, it produces swavity; but swavity may sometimes arise from natural temper, and exist therefore without whanity; although there

by the urbanity of our manners we render ourselves by the urbanity of our manners we render oursetves agreeable companions; 'The virtue called urbanity by the moralists, or a courtly behaviour, consists in a desire to please the company.'—Pore. Hence also arises another distinction that the term suapity may be applied to other things, as the voice, or the style; 'The suapity of Menander's style might be more to Plustick the supplied to the suapity of the sua tarch's taste than the irregular sublimity of Aris tophanes. —Cumberland. Urbanity is applied to Urbanity is applied to manners only.

CIVIL, POLITE.

Civil, in French civile, Latin civilis, from civis a citizen, significs belonging to or becoming a citizen; polite, in French poli, Latin politus, participle of polio to polish, signifies literally polished.

These two epithets are employed to denote different modes of acting in social intercourse; polite expresses more than civil; it is possible to be civil without be ing polite: politeness supposes civility and something

in addition.

Civility is confined to no rank, age, condition, or country; all have an opportunity with equal propriety of being civil, but it is not so with politeness; this requires a certain degree of equality, at least the equality of education; it would be contradictory for masters and servants, rich and poor, learned and unlearned, to be polite to each other. Civility is a Christian duty; there are times when every man ought to be civil to his neighbour; politeness is rather a voluntary devo-tion of ourselves to others; among the inferiour orders civility is indispensable; an uncivil person in a subordi-nate station is an obnoxious member of society;

He has good nature. And I have good manners,
His sons too are civil to me, because
I do not pretend to be wiser than they.—Otway.

Among the higher orders, politeness is often a substi-Among the higher orders, potteness is often a substitute; and where the form and spirit are combined, it supersedes the necessity of civility: politeness is the sweetener of human society; it gives a charm to every thing that is said and done; 'The true effect of genuine politeness seems to be rather ease than pleasure.'— JOHNSON.

Civility is contented with pleasing when the occasion offers: politeness seeks the opportunity to please it prevents the necessity of asking by anticipating the wishes; it is full of delicate attentions, and is an active benevolence in the minor concerns of life.

Civility is anxious not to offend, but it often gives pate from ignorance or errour: politeness studies all the cumstances and situations of men; it enters into their characters, suits itself to their humours, and even yields indulgently to their weaknesses; its object is no less to avoid giving pain than to study to afford pleasure.

Cirility is dictated by the desire of serving, politeness by that of pleasing: civility often confines itself to the bare intention of serving; politeness looks to the action and its consequences: when a peasant is civil he often does the reverse of what would be desired of him; he takes no heed of the wants and necessities of others: politices considers what is due to others and from others; it does nothing superfluously; men of good breeding think before they speak, and move before they act. It is necessary to be civil without being trouble some, and polite without being affected.

Civility requires nothing but goodness of intention; it may be associated with the coarsest manners, the grossest ignorance, and the total want of all culture: po liteness requires peculiar properties of the head and the heart, natural and artificial; much goodness and gen tleness of character, an even current of feeling, quick ness and refined delicacy of sentiment, a command of temper, a general insight into men and manners, and . thorough acquaintance with the forms of society

Civility is not incompatible with the barshest expressions of one's feelings; it allows the utterance of all a man thinks without regard to person, time, or sea son; it lays no restraint upon the angry passions! politeness enjoins upon us to say nothing to another which we would not wish to be said to ourselves : 14 lays at least a temporary constraint on all the angry passions, and prevents all turbulent commotions.

Civility is always the same; whatever is once crost

is always so, and acknowledged as such by all persons; | Complaisance displays itself in direct good offices, parhence the term civil may be applied figuratively in the

I heard a mermaid on a dolphin's back, Uttering such dulect and harmonious sounds, That the rude sea grew civil at her song.

SHAKSPEARE.

Politeness varies with the fashions and times: what is politic in one age or in one country may be unpolite in another; 'A polite country squire shall make you as many bows in half an hour as would serve a courtier for a week.'-ADDISON

If civility be not a splendid virtue, it has at least the recommendation of being genuine and harmless, having nothing artificial in it: it admits of no gloss, and will never deceive; it is the true expression of good will, the companion of respect in inferiours, of condescen-sion in superiours, of humanity and kindness in equals: politeness springs from education, is the offspring of refinement, and consists much in the exteriour: it often rests contented with the bare imitation of virtue, and is distinguished into true and false; in the latter case it may be abused for the worst of purposes, and serve as a mask to conceal malignant passions under the appearance of kindness; hence it is possible to be polite in form without being civil, or any thing else that is good.

CIVIL, OBLIGING, COMPLAISANT.

Civil(v. Civil, polite); obliging, from oblige, signifies either doing what obliges, or ready to oblige; complaisant, in French complaisant, comes from complaire to please, signifying ready to please.

to piease, signifying ready to piease.

Cool is more general than obliging: one is always civil when one is obliging, but one is not always obliging when one is civil: complaisance is more than either, it refines upon both; it is a branch of politeness.

(v. Civil, polite).

Civil regards the manner as well as the action, obliging respects the action, complaisant includes all the circumstances of the action: to be civil is to please by any word or action; 'Pride is never more offensive than when it condescends to be civil.'--Cumberland. To be obliging is to perform some actual service;

The shepherd home Hies merry-hearted, and by turns relieves The ruddy milkmaid of her brimming pail, The beauty whom perhaps his witless heart Sincerely loves, by that best language shown Of cordial glances, and obliging deeds.

To be complaisant is to do a service in the time and manner that is most suitable and agreeable; 'I seem'd so pleased with what every one said, and smiled with so much complaisance at all their pretty fancies, that though I did not put one word into their discourse, I have the vanity to think they looked upon me as very agreeable company. Additional Civility requires no effort; to be obliging always costs the agent some trouble; complaisance requires attention and observation; a person is civil in his reply, obliging in lending assistance, complaisant in his attentions to his friends.

One is habitually civil; obliging from disposition; complaisant from education and disposition: it is necessary to be civil without being free, to be obliging without being officious, to be complaisant without being

COURTEOUS, COMPLAISANT, COURTLY.

Courteous, from court, denotes properly belonging to a court, and by a natural extension of the sense, suitable to a court; complaisant (v. Complaisance).

Courteous in one respect comprehends in it more than complaisant; it includes the manner as well as the action; it is, properly speaking, polished complaisance; on the other hand, complaisance includes more of the disposition in it than courteousness; it has less of the polish, but more of the reality of kindness.

Courteousness displays itself in the address and the

And then I stole all courtesy from Heav'n, And dress'd myself in such humility, That I did pluck allegiance from men's hearts. SHAKSPEARE

ticularly in complying with the wishes of others; comply with the notions of mankind is in some degree the duty of a social being; because by compliance only he can please, and by pleasing only he can become useful; but as the end is not to be lost for the sake of the means, we are not to give up virtue for complaisance.'-Johnson. Courteousness is most suitable for strangers; complaisance for friends or the nearest relatives: among well-bred men, and men of rank, it is an invariable rule to address each other courteously on all occasions whenever they meet, whether acquainted or otherwise; there is a degree of complaisance due be tween husbands and wives, brothers and sisters, and members of the same family, which cannot be neglected without endangering the harmony of their intercourse.

Courtly, though derived from the .ame word as urteous, is in some degree opposed to it in point of courteous, sense; it denotes a likeness to a court, but not a likeness which is favourable; courtly is to courteous as the form to the reality; the courtly consists of the exteriour only, the latter of the exteriour combined with the spirit; the former therefore seems to convey the idea of insincerity when contrasted with the latter, which must necessarily suppose the contrary: a courtly demeanour, or a courtier-like demeanour may be suitable on certain occasions; but a courteous demeanour is always desirable;

In our own time (excuse some courtly strains)
No whiter page than Addison's remains.—Pope.

Courtly may likewise be employed in relation to things: but courteous has always respect to persons:
we may speak of a courtly style, or courtly grandeur;
but we always speak of courteous behaviour, cour teous language, and the like.

Yes, I know He had a troublesome old-fashion'd way Of shocking courtly ears with horrid truth. THOMSON

POLITE, POLISHED, REFINED, GENTEEL,

Polite (v. Civil) denotes a quality; polished, a state: he who is polite is so according to the rules of politeness; he who is polished is polished by the force of art: a politic man is, in regard to his behaviour, a finished gentleman. A rude person may be more or less polished, or freed from rudeness; 'In rude nations the dependence of children on their parents is of shorter continuance than in polished societies. ROBERTSON. Refined rises in sense, both in regard to polite and polished: a man is indebted to nature, rather than to art, for his refinement; but his politeness, or his polish, are entirely the fruit of education.
Politeness and polish do not extend to any thing but externals; refinement applies as much to the mind as the body: rules of conduct, and good society, will make a man polite; 'A pedant among men of learning and sense is like an ignorant servant giving an account of polite conversation.'—STEELE. Lessons in dancing will serve to give a polish; refined manners or principles will naturally arise out of refinement of mind and temper; 'What is honour but the height and flower of morality, and the utmost refinement of conversation?—South.

As polish extends only to the exteriour, it is less lia

ble to excess than refinement: when the language, the walk, and deportment of a man is polished, he is divested of all that can make him offensive in social intercourse; but if the temper of a man be refined beyond a certain boundary, he loses the nerve of character which is essential for maintaining his dignity

against the rude shocks of human life.

Genteel, in French gentil, Latin gentilis, signified literally one belonging to the same gens or family, the next akin to whom the estate would fall, if there no children; hence by an extended application it denoted to be of a good family, and the tern gentility now respects rank in life; in distinction from politeness, which respects the refinement of the mind and outward behaviour, a genteel education is suited to the station of a gentleman; 'A lady of genius will give a genteeld air to her whole dress by a well-fancied suit of knots, as a judicious writer gives a spirit to a whole sentence by a single expression.'—Gay. A polite

education fits for polished society and conversation, and raises the individual among his equals;

In this isle remote, Our painted ancestors were slow to learn, To arms devote, in the politer arts, Nor skilled, nor studious .- Somerville.

There may be gentility without politeness; and vice versa. A person may have genteel manners, a genteel carriage, a genteel mode of living as far as respects his general relation with society; but a polite behaviour and a polite address, which qualify him for every relation in society, and enable him to shine in connexion with all orders of men, is independent of either birth or wealth; it is in part a gift of nature, although it is to be acquired by art.

A person's equipage, servants, house, and furniture, may be such as to entitle a man to the name of genteel, although he is wanting in all the forms of real good breeding. Fortune may sometimes frown upon the polished gentleman, whose politeness is a recommen-

dation to him wherever he goes.

AFFABLE, COURTEOUS.

Affable, in French affable, Latin affabilis, from af or ad, and for to speak, signifies a readiness to speak to any one; courteous, in French courtois, from the word court, signifies after the refined manner of a

We are affable by a mild and easy address towards all, without distinction of rank, who have occasion to speak to us; we are courteous by a refined and engaging air to our equals or superiours who address

themselves to us.

The affable man invites to inquiry, and is ready to gratify curiosity; 'It is impossible for a publick minister to be so open and easy to all his old friends as he was in his private condition; but this may be helped out by an affability of address.'-L'ESTRANGE. courteous man encourages to a communication of our wants, and discovers in his manners a willingness to relieve them;

Whereat the Elfin knight with speeches gent Him first saluted, who, well as he might, Him fair salutes again, as seemeth courteous knight.

Affability results from good nature, and courteousness from fine feeling; it is necessary to be affable without familiarity, and courteous without offic iousness.

COMPLAISANCE, DEFERENCE, CONDESCENSION.

Complaisance, from com and plaire to please, signihes the act of complying with, or pleasing others; deference, in French deference, from the Latin defero to bear down, marks the inclination to defer, or acquiesce in the sentiments of another in preference to one's own: condescension marks the act of condescending from one's own height to yield to the satisfaction of others, rather than rigourously to exact one's rights.

The necessities, the conveniences, the accommoda tions and allurements of society, of familiarity, and of intimacy, lead to complaisance; it makes sacrifices to the wishes, tastes, comforts, enjoyments, and per-sonal feelings of others; 'Complaisance renders a superiour amiable, an equal agreeable, and an inferiour acceptable.'—Addison. Age, rank, dignity, and personal merit, call for deference: it enjoins compliance with respect to our opinions, judgements, pretensions, and designs; 'Tom Courtly never fails of paying his obeisance to every man he sees, who has title or office to make him conspicuous; but his deference is wholly given to outward consideration.'—Streels. The infirmities, the wants, the defects and foibles of others, minutes, the wants, the detects and tobles of others, call for condescension: it relaxes the rigour of authority, and removes the distinction of rank or station; 'The same noble condescension which never dwells but in truly great minds, and such as Homer would represent that of Ulysses to have been, discovers itself likewise in the speech which he made to the ghost of Ajax.'-Applson.

Complaisance is properly the act of an equal; defer ence that of an interiour; condescension that of a superiour. Comptaisance is due from one well bred person to another; deference is due to all superiours in age, knowledge, or station, whom one approaches; condescension is due from all superiours to such as are

dependent on them for comfort and enjoyment.

All these qualities spring from a refuencent of humanity; but complaisance has most of genuine kindness in its nature; deference most of respectful submission; condescension most of easy indulgence. Complaisance has unalloyed pleasure for its companion; it is pleased with doing: it is pleased with seeing that it has pleased; it is pleasure to the giver and pleasure to the receiver. Deference is not unmixed with pain; it fears to offend, or to fail in the part it has to perform it is mingled with a consciousness of inferiority, and a fear of appearing lower than it deserves to be thought. Condescension is not without its alloy; it is accompa-nied with the painful sentiment of witnessing inferiority, and the no less painful apprehension of not

riority, and the no less pannul approximation maintaining its own dignity.

Complaisance is busied in anticipating and meeting the wishes of others; it seeks to amalgamate one's own will with that of another: deference is busied in the control of yielding submission, doing homage, and marking one's sense of another's superiority: condescension employs itself in not opposing the will of others; in yielding to their gratification, and laying aside unnecessary distinctions of superiority. Complaisance among strangers is often the forerunner of the most friendly intercourse: it is the characteristick of self-conceit to pay deference to no one, because it considers no one as having superiour worth: it is the common characteristick of ignorant and low persons when placed in a state of elevation, to think themselves degraded by

any act of condescension.

IMPERTINENT, RUDE, SAUCY, IMPUDENT. INSOLENT.

Impertinent, in Latin in and pertinens not belonging to one, signifies being or wanting to do what it does not belong to one to be or do; rude, in Latin rudis rude, and raudus a ragged stone, in the Greek ράβδος a rough stick, signifies literally unpolished; and in an extended sense, wanting all culture; saucy comes from sauce, and the Latin salsus, signifying literally salt; and in an extended sense, stinging like salt; impudent (v. Assurance); insolent, from the Latin in and solens, contrary to custom, signifies being or wanting to be contrary to custom.

Impertment is allied to rude, as respects one's general relations in society, without regard to station; it is allied to sawy, impudent, and insolent, as respects the conduct of insolent.

conduct of inferiours.

He who does not respect the laws of civil society in his intercourse with individuals, and wants to assume to himself what belongs to another, is impertinent: if he carry this impertinence so far as to commit any violent breach of decorum in his behaviour, he is rude. Impertinence seems to spring from a too high regard of one's self: rudeness from an ignorance of what is due to others. An impertinent man will ask questions for the mere gratification of curiosity; a rude man will stare in one's face in order to please himself. An impertinent man will take possession of the best seat without regard to the right or convenience of another: a rude man will burst into the room of another. other, or push against his person, in violation of all ceremony

Impertinent, in comparison with the other terms, aucy, impudent, and insolent, is the most general and indefinite: whatever one does or says that is not compatible with our station is impertinent; saucy is a sharp kind of impertinence; impudent an unblushing kind of impertinence; insolence is an outrageous kind of impertinence, it runs counter to all established order: thus, the terms seem to rise in sense. A person may be impertinent in words or actions: he is saucy in words or looks: he is impudent or insolent in words, tones, gesture, looks, and every species of action. A person's impertinence discovers itself in not giving the respect which is due to his superiours in general, strangers, or otherwise; as when a common person sits down in the presence of a man of rank: snuciness discovers itself towards particular individuals, in certain relations; as in the case of servants who are saucy to their masters, or children who are saucy to their teachers: impudence and insolence are the

strongest degrees of impertinence; but the former is more ! particularly said of such things as reflect disgrace upon the offender, and spring from a low depravity of mind, such as the abuse of one's superiours, and a vulgar defiance of those to whom one owes obedience and respect: insolence, on the contrary, originates from a haughtiness of spirit, and a misplaced pride, which breaks out into a contemptuous disregard of the station of those by whom one is offended; as in the case of a servant who should offer to strike his master, or of a criminal who sets a magistrate at defiance; 'It is publickly whispered as a piece of impertinent pride in me, that I have hitherto been saucity civil to every body, as if I thought nobody good enough to quarrel with.'-LADY M. W. MONTAGU.

My house should no such rude disorders know, As from high drinking consequently flow. POMERET.

Whether he knew the thing or no, His tongue externally would go: For he had impudence at will .-

He claims the bull with lawless insolence, And having seiz'd his horns, accosts the prince.

DRYDEN.

Self-conceit is the grand source of impertinence, it makes persons forget themselves; the young thereby forget their youth; the servant forgets his relationship to his master; the poor and ignorant man forgets the distance between himself and those who are elevated by education, rank, power, or wealth: impertinent persons, therefore, act towards their equals as if they were inferiours, and towards their superiours as if they were their equals: an angry pride that is offended with reproof commonly provokes sauciness: an insensibility to shame, or an unconsciousness of what is honourable either in one's self or others, gives birth to impudence; uncontrolled passions, and bloated pride, are the ordinary stimulants to insolence.

ABRUPT, RUGGED, ROUGH.

Abrupt, in Latin abruptus, participle of abrumpo, to break off, signifies the state of being broken off; rugged, in Saxon hrugge, comes from the Latin rugosus full of wrinkles; rough is in Saxon rech, high German rauh, low German rug, Dutch ruig, in Latin rudis uneven.

These words mark different degrees of unevenness. What is abrupt has greater cavities and protuberances than what is rugged; what is rugged has greater irre-gularities than what is rough. In the natural sense abrupt is opposed to what is unbroken, rugged to what is even, and rough to what is smooth. A precipice is abrupt, a path is rugged, a plank is rough;

The precipice abrupt,
Projecting horrour on the blackened flood,
Softens at thy return.—Thomson's Summer.

'The evils of this life appear like rocks and precipices rugged and barren at a distance; but at our nearer approach we find them little fruitful spots.'—Spec-TATOR.

Not the rough whirlwind, that deforms Adria's black gulf, and vexes it with storms, The stubborn virtue of his soul can move.

FRANCIS.

The abruptness of a body is generally occasioned by a violent concussion and separation of its parts; rug-gedness arises from natural, but less violent causes; roughness is mostly a natural property, although some-times produced by friction.

In the figurative sense the distinction is equally clear. M the light and manners are abrupt when they are sudden and unconnected; the temper is rugged which is exposed to frequent ebullitions of angry humour; actions are rough when performed with violence and incaution.

An abrupt behaviour is the consequence of an agitated mind;

My lady craves To know the cause of your abrupt departure. SHAKSPEARE.

win upon him; neither melt nor endear him, but leave win upon nim; neutrer men nor endear nim, but leave him as haid, rugged, and unconcerned as ever."— SOUTH. A rough deportment arises from an undisci-plined state of feeling; 'Kind words prevent a good deal of that perverseness, which rough and imperious usage often produces in generous minds."—Locke.— As healthing standings and conference of which is

An habitual steadiness and coolness of reflection is best fitted to prevent or correct any abruptness of manners; a cultivation of the Christian temper cannot fail of smoothing down all ruggedness of humour; an intercourse with polished society will inevitably refine down all roughness of behaviour.

COARSE, ROUGH, RUDE.

Coarse, probably from the Gothick kaurids heavy, answering to our word gross, and the Latin gravis; rough, in Saxon hruh, German rauh, roh, &c. is pro-

bably a variation of rude (n. Imperiment).

These epithets are equally applied to what is not polished by art. In the proper sense coarse refers to the composition and materials of bodies, as coarse bread, coarse meat, coarse cloth; rough respects the surface of bodies, as rough wood and rough skin; rude respects the make or fashion of things, as a ruds bark, a rude utensil. Coarse is opposed to fine, rough to smooth, rude to polished.

In the figarative application they are distinguished in a similar manner: coarse language is used by persons of naturally coarse feeling; 'The fineness and delicacy of perception which the man of taste requires, may be more liable to irritation than the coarser feelings of minds less cultivated. —Crais. Rough lan guage is used by those whose tempers are either naturally or occasionally rough;

This is some fellow, Who, having been prais'd for bluntness, doth affect A saucy roughness.—SHAKSPEARE.

Rude language is used by those who are ignorant of any better; 'Is it in destroying and pulling down that skill is displayed? the shallowest understanding, the rudest hand, is more than equal to that task. BURKE.

GROSS, COARSE.

Gross derives its meaning in this application from the Latin crassus thick from fat, or that which is of common materials; coarse (v. Coarse.)

These terms are synonymous in the moral application. Grossness of habit is opposed to delicacy, coarseness to softness and refinement. A person be coarseness to softness and refinement. A person be-comes gross by an unrestrained indulgence of his sensual appetites; particularly in eating and drinking; he is coarse from the want of polish either as to his mind or manners. A gross sensualist approximates very nearly to the brute; he sets aside all moral con-siderations; he indulges himself in the open face of day in defiance of all decency: a coarse person approaches nearest to the savage, whose roughness of humour and inclination have not been refined down by habits of restraining his own will, and complying with the will of another. A gross expression conveys the idea of that which should be kept from the view of the mind, which shocks the moral feeling, a coarse expression conveys the idea of an unseemly sentiment in the mind of the speaker. The representation of the Deity by any sensible image is gross, because it gives us a low and grovelling idea of the Supreme; the doing as kindness, and making the receiver at the same time sensible of your superiority and his dependence, indicates great coarseness in the character of the reson granting the favour; 'A certain preparation is requisite for the enjoyment of devotion in its whole extent; not only must the life be reformed from gross enormities, but the heart must have undergone that change which the Gospel demands.'—Baars. The refined pleasures of a pious mind are, in many respects, superiour to the coarse gratifications of sense.'—Baars.

TO AMEND, CORRECT, REFORM, RECTIFY, EMEND, IMPROVE, MEND, BETTER.

A rugged disposition is inherent in the character; transcribing, signifies to remove this fault; cocrect, 'The greatest favours to such a one neither soften nor in Latin correctus, participle of corrigo, compounded

of con and rego, signifies to set in other, to see rights; reform, compounded of re and form, signifies to reform aresh, or put into a new form; rectify, in of con and rego, signifies to set in order, to set to Latin rectifico, compounded of rectus and facio, Latin rectifics, compounded of rectas and facts, sig-nifies to make or put right; emend is the immediate derivative of the Latin emends; improve comes from the Latin in and probe to prove or try, signifying to make any thing good, or better than it was, by trials or after experiments; mend is a contraction of emend; better is properly to make better.

better is properly to make better.

To amend, correct, rectify, and emend, imply the lessening of evil; to improve, reform, and better, the increase of good. We amend the moral conduct, correct errors, reform the life, rectify mistakes, emend the readings of an author, improve the mind, mend or better the condition. What is amended is mostly that which is wrong in ourselves: what is reformed or corrected is that which is faulty in ourselves or in others; what is rectified is mostly wrong in that which has been done; that which is improved may relate either to an individual or to indifferent objects. either to an individual or to indifferent objects.

To mend and better are common terms, employed only on familiar occasious, corresponding to the terms amend and improve. Whatever is wrong must be amended; whatever is faulty must be corrected; whatever is altogether insufficient for the purpose must be reformed; whatever errour escapes by an oversight must be rectified; whatever is obscure or incorrect

must be amended. What has been torn may be mended;

> The wise for cure on exercise depend, God never made his work for man to mend. DRYDEN.

What admits of change may be improved or bettered; 'I then bettered my condition a little, and lived a whole summer in the shape of a bee.'—Addison. When a person's conduct is any way culpable, it ought to be amended; 'The interest which the corrupt part of mankind have in hardening themselves against every motive to amendment, has disposed them to give to contradictions, when they can be produced against the cause of virtue, that weight which they will not allow them in any other case.—Johnson. When a person's habits and principles are vicious, his character ought to be reformed; Indolence is one of the vices from which those whom it once in feets are seldom reformed.

—Johnson. When a man has any particular faulty habit, it ought to be corrected; 'Presumption will be easily corrected; but timidity is a disease of the mind more obstinate and fatal.'—Johnson. When we commit mistakes we should not object to have them rectified; 'That sorrow which dictates no caution, that fear which does not quicken our escape, that austerity which fails to rectify our affections, are vain and un-availing.'—Johnson. 'Some had read the manuscript, and rectified its inaccuracies.'—Johnson. The emenda-tions of criticks frequently involve an author in still greater obscurity; 'That useful part of learning which consists in emendations, knowledge of different readings, and the like, is what in all ages persons extremely wise and learned have had in great veneration."— Addition. Whoever wishes to advance himself in life must endeavour to improve his time and talents. While a man, infatuated with the promises of greatness, wastes his hours and days in attendance and solicitation, the honest opportunities of improving his condition pass by without his notice.'-Apprson

The first step to amendment is a consciousness of errour in ourselves: busy politicians are ever ready to propose a reform in the constitution of their country, but they forget the reformation which is requisite in themselves: the correction of the temper is of the first moment, in order to live in harmony with others: in order to avoid the necessity of rectifying what has been done amiss, we must strive to do every thing with care: criticks emend the productions of the pen, and ingenious

artists improve the inventions of art.

Correct respects ourselves or others; rectify has regard to one's self only; correct is either an act of au-thority or discretion; rectify is an act of discretion only. What is corrected may vary in its magnitude or importwhat is corrected may an assumption or importance, and consequently may require more or less tou-ble; what is rectified is always of a nature to be altered without great injury or effort. Habitual or individual faults are corrected; 'Desire is corrected when there is a tenderness or admiration expressed which partakes of

Licentious language has something bruta the passion. in it which disgraces humanity.—STRELE. Individual mistakes are rectified; 'A man has frequent opportunities of mitigating the fierceness of a party; of softening the envious, quieting the angry, and rectifying the prejudiced.—Addison. A person corrects himself or another of a bad habit in speaking or pronouncing; he rectifies any errour in his accounts. Mistakes in writing must be corrected for the advantage of the scholar; mistakes in pecuniary transactions cannot be

too soon rectified for the satisfaction of all parties.

Reform like rectify is used only for one's self when it respects personal actions: but reform and correct are likewise employed for matters of general interest. Correct in neither case amounts to the same as reform. A person corrects himself of particular habits; he reforms his whole life; what is corrected undergoes a change, more or less slight; what is reformed assumes a new form and becomes a new thing. Correction is always advisable: it is the removal of an evil; reform is equally so as it respects a man's own conduct; but as it respects publick matters, it is altogether of a questionable nature; a man cannot begin too soon to reform himself, nor too late to attempt reforming the constitutions of society. The abuses of government may always be advantageously corrected by the judicious hand of a wise minister; reforms in a state are always attended with a certain evil, and promise but an uncertain good; they are never recommended but by the young, the thoughtless, the busy, or the interested. The reformation of laws is the peculiar province of the prince;

Edward and Henry, now the boast of fame, And virtuous Alfred, a more sacred name, After a life of generous toils endur'd, The Gauls subdu'd, or property secur'd, Ambition humbled, mighty cities storm'd, Or laws establish'd, and the world reformed.

CORRECT, ACCURATE.

Correct is equivalent to corrected (v. To Amend,) or set to rights. Accurate (v. Accurate) implies properly done with care, or by the application of care. is negative in its sense; accurate is positive; it is sufficient to be free from fault to be correct; it must contain every minute particular to be accurate. Information is correct which contains nothing but facts; 'Sallust the most elegant and correct of all the Latin historians, observes, that in his time when the most formidable states of the world were subdued by the Romans, the republick sunk into those two opposite vices of a quite different nature, luxury and avarice.'-Addison. formation is accurate when it contains a vast number of details; 'Those ancients who were the most accurate in their remarks on the genius and temper of mankind, have with great exactness allotted inclinations and objects of desire to every stage of life. - Steele. What is incorrect is allied to falsehood; what is inac-

curate is general and indefinite.

According to the dialect of modern times, in which gross vices are varnished over with smooth names, a liar is said to speak incorrectly; this is however not only an inaccurate but an incorrect mode of speech, for a lie is a direct violation of truth, and the incorrect is only a deviation from it to greater or less extent

JUSTNESS, CORRECTNESS.

Justness, from jus law (v. Justice), is the conformity to established principle: correctness, from rectus right or straight (v. Correct), is the conformity to a certain mark or line: the former is used in the moral or improper sense only; the latter is used either in the proper or improper sense. We estimate the value of remarks by their justness, that is, their accordance to certain admitted principles; 'Few men, possessed of the most perfect sight, can describe visual objects with more spirit and justness than Mr. Blacklock the poet, born blind.'—BURKE. Correctness of outline is of the first importance in drawing; correctness of dutine is of the list importance in drawing; correctness of dates enhances the value of a history; 'I do not mean the popular eloquence which cannot be tolerated at the bar, but that correctness of style and elegance of method which at once pleases and persuades the hearer.—Sir WM JONES II. has been justly observed by the moralists of antiquity,

ACCURATE, EXACT, PRECISE.

Accurate, in French accurate, Latin accuratus, participle of accuro, compounded of the intensive ac or ad and curo to take care of, signifies done with great care and cure to take care of, signifies done with great care; exact, in French exacte, Latin exactus, participle of exigo to finish or complete, denotes the quality of completeness, the absence of defect; precise, in French precise, Latin practises, participle of practide to cut by rule, signifies the quality of doing by rule.

A man is accurate when he avoids faults; exact, when he attends to every minutia, and leaves nothing undone; precise, when he does it according to a certain These epithets, therefore, bear a comparative measure. relation to each other; exact expresses more than accu-rate, and precise more than exact. An account is accu-rate in which there is no misrepresentation; it is exact when nothing essential is omitted; it is precise when it contains particular details of time, place, and circumstance.

Accuracy is indispensable in all our concerns, be they ever so ordinary; 'An eminent artist who wrought up his pictures with the greatest accuracy, and gave them all those delicate touches which are apt to please the nicest eye, is represented as tuning a theorbo.'-ADDIson. Exactness is of peculiar importance in matters of economy and taste; 'This lady is the most exact economist, without appearing busy.'—Congreve. In some cases, where great results flow from trifling causes, the greatest precision becomes requisite: we may, however, be too precise when we dwell on unimportant particulars; but we never can be too accurate or exact Hence the epithet precise is sometimes taken in the unfavourable sense for affectedly exact; 'An apparent desire of admiration, a reflection upon their own merit, and a precise behaviour in their general conduct, are almost inseparable accidents in beauties.' -Hughes. An accurate man will save himself much trouble; an exact man will gain himself much credit; and a precise man will take much pains only to render himself idiculous. Young people should strive to do every thing accurately, which they think worth doing at all, and thus they will learn to be exact or precise, as occasion may require.

Accuracy, moreover, concerns our mechanical labours, and the operations of our senses and underbours, and the operations of our senses and understandings; 'An aptness to jumble things together, wherein can be found any likeness, hinders the mind from accurate conceptions of them.'—Locke. Exactness respects our dealings with others, or our views of things; 'Angels and spirits, in their several degrees of elevation above us, may be endowed with more comprehensive faculties; and some of them, perhaps, have perfect and exact views of all finite beings that come under their consideration. LOCKE. Precision is applied to our habits and manners in society, or to our representations of things; 'A definition is the only way whereby the precise meaning of moral words can be known.'—Locke. We write, we see, we think, we judge accurately; we are exact in our payments; we Judge accuracy; we are exact in our payments, nor ear precise in our modes of dress. Some men are very accurate in their particular line of business, who are not very exact in fulfilling their engagements, nor very precise in the hours which they keep.

EXACT, NICE, PARTICULAR, PUNCTUAL.

Exact (v. Accurate); nice, in Saxon nise, comes in all probability from the German geniessen, &c. to enjoy, signifying a quick and discriminating taste; particular signifies here directed to a particular point; punctual, from the Latin punctum a point, signifies keeping to a

point.

Exact and nice are to be compared in their application, either to persons or things; particular and punctual only in application to persons. To be exact, is to arrive at perfection; to be nice, is to be free from faults; to be particular, is to be nice in certain particulars; to be punctual, is to be exact in certain points. We are exact in our conduct or in what we do; nice and particular in our mode of doing it; punctual as to the time and season for doing it. It is necessary to be exact in our accounts; to be pice as an artist in the choice and distribution of colours; to be particular as

that money is the root of all evil; partisans seldom state a man of business, in the number and the details of merchandless that are to be delivered out, to be pune taud in observing the hour or the day that has been fixed

upon for keeping appointments.

Exactness and punctuality are always taken in a good sense; they designate an attention to that which good sense; they resignate an attention to that which cannot be dispensed with; they form a part of one's duty; niceness and particularity are not always taken in the best sense; they designate an excessive attention to things of inferiour importance; to matters of taste and choice. Early habits of method and regularity will make a man very exact in the performance of all his duties, and particularly punctual in his payments; 'What if you and I inquire how money matters stand between us? With all my heart, I love czact dealing; and let Hoeus audit.'—Arbuthnor. 'The trading part of mankind suffer by the want of punctuality in the dealings of persons above them.—STREELE. An over niceness in the observance of mechanical rules often supplies the want of genius; or a niceness in regard to one's diet is the mark of an epicure;

Nor be so nice in taste myself to know, If what I swallow, be a thrush or no .- DRYDEN Thus criticks, of less judgement than caprice

Curious, not knowing, not exact, but nice .-- POPE. It is the mark of a contracted mind to amuse itself with particularities about the dress, the person, the furniture, and the like. On the other hand, it is desirable for a person to be particular in the account he is called upon to give of any transaction: 'I have been the more particular in this inquiry, because I hear there is scarce a village in England that has not a Moll White in it.'— ADDISON.

ADDISON.

When exact and nice are applied to things, the former expresses more than the latter; we speak of an exact resemblance, and a nice distinction. The exact point is that which we wish to reach; 'We know not so much as the true names of either Homer or Virgil, with any exactness.'—WALSH. The nice point is that which it is difficult to keep; 'Every age a man passes through, and way of life he engages in, has some particular vice or imperfection naturally cleaving to it, which it will require his nicest care to avoid.'—Bun which it will require his nicest care to avoid.'—Bud GELL.

REFORM, REFORMATION.

Reform has a general, and reformation a particular application: whatever undergoes such a change as to give a new form to an object occasions a reform; when such a change is produced in the moral character, it is termed a reformation: the concerns of a state require occasional reform; which, when administered with discretion, may be of great benefit, otherwise of great 'He was anxious to keep the distemper of iniary: rance from the least countenance in England, where he was sure some wicked persons had shown a strong ne was sure some wicked persons had shown a strong disposition to recommend an imitation of the French spirit of reform.—BURKE. The concerns of an individual require reformation; 'Examples are pictures, and strike the senses, nay, raise the passions, and call in those (the strongest and most general of all motives) to the aid of reformation.—Pope. When reform and reformation are applied to the moral character, the former has a more extensive signification than the latter: the term reform conveying the idea of a complete amendment; reformation implying only the pro-

cess of amending or improving.

A reform in one's life and conversation will always be accompanied with a corresponding increase of happiness to the individual: when we observe any approaches to reformation, we may cease to despair of the individual who gives the happy indications.

TO RECLAIM, REFORM.

Reclaim, from clamo to call, signifies to call back to its right place that which has gone astray; reform signifies the same as in the preceding article.

A man is reclaimed from his vicious courses by the force of advice or exhortation; he may be reformed by various means, external or internal.

A parent endeavours to reclaim a child, but too often

in vain; 'Scotland had nothing to dread from a prin-cess of Mary's character, who was wholly occupied in endeavouring to reclaim her heretical subjects.'—Ro

DERTSON. A hardened offender is seldom reformed, nor 1 and the Greek πείνη pain, the leading idea is that of ins a corrupt state easy to be reformed :

A monkey, to reform the times, Resolv'd to visit foreign climes .- GAY.

PROGRESS, PROFICIENCY, IMPROVEMENT.

Progress (v. Proceeding) is a generick term, the rest are specifick; proficiency, from the Latin proficio, compounded of pro and facto, signifies a profited state, that is to say, a progress already made; and improvement, from the verb improved, signifies an improved condition, that is, progress in that which improves. The progress here, as in the former paragraph, marks the step gress here, as in the former paragraph, marks the step or motion onward, and the two others the point already reached; but the term progress is applied either in the proper or improper sense, that is, either to those tra-velling forward, or to those going on stepwise in any work; proficiency is applied in the proper sense, to the ground gained in an art, and improvement to what is gained in science or arts: when idle people set out about any work, it is difficult to perceive that they make any progress in it from time to time;

Solon, the sage, his progress never ceas'd, But still his learning with his days increas'd. DENHAM.

Those who have a thorough taste for either musick or drawing will make a proficiency in it which is astonishing to those who are unacquainted with the circumstances; 'When the lad was about nineteen, his uncle desired to see him, that he might know what proficiency he had made. —HAWKESWORTH. The improve-The improve of the mind can never be so effectually and easily obtained as in the period of childhood; 'The metrical part of our poetry, in the time of Chaucer, was capable of more improvement.'—Tyrwhitt.

PROGRESS, PROGRESSION, ADVANCE, ADVANCEMENT.

A forward motion is designated by these terms: but progress and progression simply imply this sort of motion; advance and advancement also imply an approximation to some object: we may make a progress in that which has no specifick termination, as a progress in learning, which may cease only with life; 'I wish it were in my power to give a regular history of the progress which our ancestors have made in this species of versification.'—Tyrwhitt. The advance is only made to some limited point or object in view; as an advance in wealth or honour, which may find a termination within the life; 'The most successful students make their advances in knowledge by short flights.' -JOHNSON.

Progress and advance are said of that which has been passed over; but progression and advancement may be said of that which one is passing: the progress is made, or a person is in advance; he is in the act of progression or advancement: a child makes a progress in learning by daily attention; the progression from one stage of learning to another is not always person one stage of learning to another is not always person or the progression of the pr ceptible;

And better thence again, and better still, In infinite progression .- THOMSON.

It is not always possible to overtake one who is in adpance; sometimes a person's advancement is retarded by circumstances that are altogether contingent; 'I have lived to see the fierce advancement, the sudden turn, and the abrupt period, of three or four enormous friendships. —Pope. The first step in any destructive friendships."—Pore. The first step in any destructive course still prepares for the second, and the second for the third, after which there is no stop, but the progress is infinite.

CORRECTION, DISCIPLINE, PUNISHMENT.

As correction and discipline have commonly required punishment to render them efficacious, custom has affixed to them a strong resemblance in their application, although they are distinguished from each other by ob-The prominent idea in corvious marks of difference. rection (v. To correct), is that of making right what has been wrong. In discipling, from the Latin disciplina and disco to learn, the leading idea is that of instructing and disco to earn, the leading idea is that of instructing by an extended application, satisfaction by way of or regulating. In punishmens, from the Latin punish annuals for an offence; malet, in Latin muleta, comes

flicting pain.
Children are the peculiar subjects of correction; discipline and punishment are confined to no age. A wise parent corrects his child;

Wilt thou, pupil-like, Take thy correction mildly, kiss the rod? SHAKSPEARE.

A master maintains discipline in his school; a general preserves discipline in his army; 'The imaginations of young men are of a roving nature, and their passions

of young men are of a roving nature, and their passions under no discipline or restraint.—Annison. Whoever commits a fault is hable to be punished by those who have authority over him; if he commits a crime he subjects himself to be punished by law.

Correction and discipline are mostly exercised by means of chastisement, for which they are often employed as a substitute; punishment is inflicted in any way that gives pain. Correction and discipline are both of them personal acts of authority exercised by superious over inferious, but the former is mostly employed. ours over inferious, but the former is mostly employed by one individual overanother: the latter has regard to a number who are the subjects of it directly or indi-rectly: punishment has no relation whatever to the agent by which the action is performed; it may proceed alike from persons or things. A parent who spares the due correction of his child, or a master who does not use a proper discipline in his school, will alike be punished by the insubordination and irregularities of those over whom they have a control;

When by just vengeance impious mortals perish, The gods behold their punishment with pleasure. Addison.

TO CHASTEN, TO CHASTISE. .

Chasten, chastise, both come through the French châtier, from the Latin castigo, which is compounded of castus and ago to make pure

Chasten has most regard to the end, chastise to the means; the former is an act of the Deity, the latter a human action: God chastens his faithful people to cleanse them from their transgressions; parents chastis; their children to prevent the repetition of faults: afflic-tions are the means which the Almighty adopts for chastening those whom he wishes to make more obedient to his will;

I follow thee, safe guide! the path

Thou leadst me; and to the hand of Heaven submit, However chastening.-MILTON.

Stripes are the means by which offenders are chastised: Bad characters are dispersed abroad with profusion; I hope for example's sake, and (as punishments are designed by the civil power) more for the delivering of the innocent, than the chastising of the guilty. Hughes. To chasten is also sometimes taken in the sense of making chaste by a course of discipline, either moral, literary, or religious, as to chasten the fancy, or to chasten the style; 'By repairing sometimes to the house of mourning, you would chasten the looseness of fancy. -BLAIR.

STRICT, SEVERE.

Strict, from strictus, bound or confined, characterizes the thing which binds or keeps in control: seeere (v. Austere) characterizes in the proper sense the disposition of the person to inflict pain, and in an extended application the thing which inflicts pain. The term strict is, therefore, taken always in the good sense; se vere is good or bad, according to circumstances: he who has authority over others must be strict in enforcing obedience, in keeping good order, and a proper attention to their duties; but it is possible to be very severe in punishing those who are under us, and yet very lax in all matters that our duty demands of us;

Lycurgus then, who bow'd beneath the force Of strictest discipline, severely wise, All human passions.—Thomson.

FINE, MULCT, PENALTY, FORFEITURE.

Fine, itom the Latin finis the end or purpose, signifies,

from mulgeo to draw or wipe, because an offence is wiped off by money: penalty, in Latin pænalitus, from pæna a pain, signifies what gives pain by way of punishment; forfettere, from forfeit, in French forfait, from forfaire, signifies to do away or lose by doing

The fine and mulct are always pecuniary; a penalty may be pecuniary; a forfeiture applies to any loss of personal property: the fine and mulct are imposed; the penalty is inflicted or incurred; the forfeiture is

The violation of a rule or law is attended with a fine or mulet, but the former is a term of general use; the latter is rather a technical term in law: a criminal offence incurs a penalty: negligence of duty occasions the forfeiture.

A fine or mulct serves either as punishment to the offender, or as an amends for the offence;

Too dear a fine, ah much lamented maid! For warring with the Trojans thou hast paid. DRYDEN.

For to prohibit and dispense, To find out or to make offence, To set what characters they please, And mulcts on sin, or godliness, Must prove a pretty thriving trade.-BUTLER.

A penalty always inflicts some kind of pain as a punishment on the offender; 'It must be confessed that as for the laws of men, gratitude is not enjoined that as for the laws of men, granting is not enjoined by the sanction of penalties."—SOUTH. A forfeiture is attended with loss as a punishment to the delinquent; 'The Earl of Hereford, being tried secundum leges Normannorum, could only be punished by a forfeiture of his inheritance."—TYRWHITT. 'In the Roman law, if a lord manumits his slave, gross ingratitude in the person so made free forfeits his free-dom.'—South. Among the Chinese, all offences are punished with fines or flogging; the Roman Catholicks were formerly subject to penalties if detected in the performance of their religious worship: societies sub-ject their members to forfeitures for the violation of their laws.

TO BANISH, EXILE, EXPEL.

Banish, in French bannir, German bannen, signified to put out of a community by a ban or civil interned to put out of a community by a ban of civil interdict, which was formerly either ecclesiastical or civil;
exile, in French exiler, from the Latin exilium banishment, and exul an exile, compounded of extra and
solum the soil, signifies to put away from one's native
soil or country; expel, in Latin expello, compounded
of ex and pello to drive, signifies to drive out.

The idea of exclusion, or of a coercive removal from a place, is common to these terms: banishment includes the removal from any place, or the prohibition of access to any place, where one has been, or whither one is in the habit of going; exile signifies the re-moval from one's home: to exile, therefore, is to banish, but to banish, is not always to exile:* the Tarquins were banished from Rome; Coriolanus was

exiled.

Banishment follows from a decree of justice; exile either by the necessity of circumstances or an order of authority: banishment is a disgraceful punishment inflicted by tribunals upon delinquents; exile is a dis-grace incurred without dishonour: exile removes us from our country: banishment drives us from it igno-miniously: it is the custom in Russia to banish offenders to Siberia; Ovid was exiled by an order of

Banishment is an action, a compulsory exercise of power over another, which must be submitted to;

O banishment! Eternal banishment! Ne'er to return! Must we ne'er meet again! My heart will break.—Otway.

Exile is a state into which we may go voluntarily; many Romans chose to go into exile rather than await the judgement of the people, by whom they might have been banished;

Arms, and the man I sing, who forc'd by fate, And haughty Juno's unrelenting hate, Expell'd and exil'd, left the Trojan shore.—DRYPEN

Banishment and expulsion both mark a disgraceful and coercive exclusion, but banishment is authoritative; it is a publick act of government: expulsion is simply coercive, it is the act of a private individual, or a small community; 'The expulsion and escape of Hippias at length set Athens free.'—Cumberland. Banishment always supposes a removal to a distant spot, to another land; expulsion never reaches beyond a particular house or society: expulsion from the university, or any publick school, is the necessary consequence of discovering a refractory temper, or a propensity to insubordination.

Banishment and expulsion are likewise used in a figurative sense, although exile is not: in this sense, banishment marks a distant and entire removal; expulsion a violent removal: we banish that which it is not prudent to retain; we expel that which is noxious. Hopes are banished from the mind when every prospect of success has disappeared; fears are bunished when

they are altogether groundless;

If sweet content is banish'd from my soul, Life grows a burden and a weight of wo.

Envy, hatred, and every evil passion, should be expelled from the mind as disturbers of its peace: harmony and good humour are best promoted by banishing from conversation all subjects of difference in religion and politicks; good morals require that every unseemly word should be expelled from conversation; 'In all the tottering imbedity of a new government, and with a national totally unmanageable, big. and with a parliament totally unmanageable, his Majesty (King William III.) persevered. He persevered to expel the fears of his people by his fortitude; to steady their fickleness by his constancy."—Burke.

PREVAILING, PREVALENT, RULING, OVERRULING, PREDOMINANT.

Prevailing and prevalent both come from the Latin prevales to be strong above others; ruling, overruling, and predominant (from dominor to rule), signify ruling or bearing greater sway than others.

or bearing greater sway than others.

Prevailing expresses the actual state or quality of a particular object: prevalent marks the quality of prevailing, as it affects objects in general. The same distinction exists between overruling and predomant. A person has a prevailing sense of religion; 'The evils naturally consequent upon a prevailing temptation are intolerable.'—SOUTH. Religious feeling is prepared in a company of the property of the ing is prevalent in a country or in a community. prevailing idea at present is in favour of the legitimate rights of sovereigns: a contrary principle has been very prevalent for many years; 'The conduct of a peculiar providence made the instruments of that great design prevalent and victorious, and all those mountains of opposition to become plains.—South. Prevailing and prevalent mark simply the existing state of superiority: ruling and predominant express this state, in relation to some other which it has superseded or reduced to a state of inferiority. An opinion is said to be *prevailing* as respects the number of persons by whom it is maintained; a principle is said to be ruling as respects the superiour influence which it has over the conduct of men more than any other;

Whate'er thou shalt ordain, thou ruling pow'r, Unknown and sudden be the dreadful hour

An argument is overruling that bears down every other, and Providence is said to be overruling when it determines things contrary to the natural course of events; 'Nor can a man independently of the overevents, Avor can a man independently of the over-ruling influence of God's blessing and care, call him self one penny richer.—Sourm. Particular disorders are prevalent at certain seasons of the year, when they affect the generality of persons: a particular taste or fashion is predominant which supersedes all other tastes or fashions. Excessive drinking is too prevalent a practice in England: virtue is certainly predominant over vice in this country, if it be in any country, if the doctrine of not owning a foreigner to be a king was held and taught by the Pharisees, a predominant sect of the Jews.'-PRIDEAUX.

^{*} Vide Roubaud: "Exiler, bannir."

TO OVERBALANCE, OUTWEIGH, PREPONDERATE.

To overbalance is to throw the balance over on one side; to outweigh is to exceed in weight; to preponderate, from præ before, and pondus a weight, signifies

also to exceed in weight

Although these terms approach so near to each other in their original meaning, yet they have now a different application: in the proper sense, a person overbalances himself who loses his balance and goes on one side; a heavy body outweighs one that is light, when they are put into the same pair of scales. Overbalance and outweigh are likewise used in the improper application; preponderate is never used otherwise: things are said to overbalance which are supposed to turn the scale to one side or the other; they are said to outweigh when they are to be weighed against each other; they are said to preponderate when one weighs every thing else down: the evils which arise from innovations in society commonly overbalance the good; 'Whatever any man may have written or done, his precepts or his va..ur will scarcely overbalance the unimportant uniformity which runs through his time?—Johnson. The will of a parent should outweigh every personal consideration in the mind of a child;

If endless ages can outweigh an hour,

Let not the laurel but the palm inspire.—Young. Children can never be unmindful of their duty to their parents where the power of religion preponderates in the heart; 'Looks which do not correspond with the heart cannot be assumed without labour, nor continued without pain; the motive to relinquish them must, therefore, soon preponderate:'—HAWKESWORTH.

TO OVERRULE, SUPERSEDE.

To overrule is literally to get the superiority of rule; and to supersede is to get the upper or superiour seat; but the former is employed only as the act of persons or things personified; the latter is also applied to things as the agents: a man may be overruled in his domestick government, or he may be overruled in a publick assembly, or he may be overruled in the cabinet; 'When fancy begins to be overruled by reason, and corrected by experience, the most artful tale raises but little curiosity! —Johnson. Large works in general supersede the necessity of smaller ones, by containing that which is superiour both in quantity and quality; or one person supersedes another in an office; 'Christoval received a commission empowering him to superioude Cortes.'—ROBERTSON.

CHIEF, CHIEFTAIN, LEADER, HEAD.

Chief and chieftain signify he who is chief; leader, from to lead, and head, from the head, sufficiently designate their own signification.

Chief respects precedency in civil matters; leader regards the direction of enterprises: chieftain is employed for the superiour in military rank; and head for

the superiour in general concerns.

Among savages the chirf of every tribe is a despotick prince within his own district. Factions and parties in a state, like savage tribes, must have their leaders, to whom they are blindly devoted, and by whom they are instigated to every desperate proceeding. Robbers have their chirftains, who plan and direct every thing, having an unlimited power over the band. The heads of families were, in the primitive ages, the chirfs, who ln conjunction regulated the affairs of state.

 $\it Chiefs$ have a permanent power, which may descend by inheritance to branches of the same families;

No chief like thee, Menestheus, Greece could yield, To marshal armies in the dusty field.--Pope.

Irenders and chirftains have a deputed power with which they are invested, as the time and occasion require; 'Their constant emulation in military renown dissolved not that inviolable friendship which the ancient Saxons professed to their chieftain and to each other.'—Hums. 'Savage alleged that he was then dependent upon the Lord Tyrconnel, who was an implicit follower of the ministry; and, being enjoined by him, not without menaces, to write in praise of his teader, he had not sufficient resolution to sacri-

fice the pleasure of affluence to that of integrity.'—
Johnson. Heads have a natural power springing out
of the nature of their birth, rank, talents, and situation; it is not hereditary, but it may be successive, as
the father is the head of his family, and may be succeded by his son; a head is also sometimes temporary
and partial, as the head of a party; 'As each is
more able to distinguish himself as the head of a party,
he will less readily be made a follower or associate.'—
Johnson.

Chiefs ought to have superiority of birth combined with talents for ruling; leaders and chieftains require a bold and enterprising spirit; heads should have talents for directing.

CHIEF, PRINCIPAL, MAIN.

Chief, in French chef, from the Latin caput the head, signifies belonging to the uppermost part; principal, in French principal, Latin principalis, comes from princeps a chief or prince, signifying belonging to a prince; main, from the Latin magnus, signifies in a great degree.

Chief respects order and rank; principal has regard to importance and respectability; main to degree or quantity. We speak of a chief clerk; a commander in chief: the chief person in a city: but the principal people in a city; the principal circumstances in a narrative, and the main object.

The chief cities, as mentioned by geographers, are those which are classed in the first rank;

What is man,
If his chief good and market of his time
Be but to sleep and feed? A beast, no more!
SHAKSPEARE.

The principal cities generally include those which are the most considerable for wealth and population these, however, are not always technically comprehended under the name of chief cities; 'The right which one man has to the actions of another is generally borrowed, or derived from one or both of these two great originals, production or possession, which two are certainly the principal and most undoubted rights that take place in the world.'—South. The main end of man's exertions is the acquirement of wealth; 'To the accidental or adventitious parts of Paradise Lost, some slight exceptions may be made; but the main fabrick is immoveably supported.'—Johnson.

ESPECIALLY, PARTICULARLY, PRINCIPALLY, CHIEFLY.

Especially and particularly are exclusive or super lative in their import; they refer to one object out of many that is superiout to all: principally and chieffy are comparative in their import; they designate in general the superiority of some objects over others Especially is a term of stronger import than particularly, and principally expresses something less general than chieffy: we ought to have God before out eyes at all times, but especially in those moments when we present ourselves before him in prayer; 'All love has something of blindness in it, but the love of money especially.'—South. The heat is very oppressive in all countries under the torrid zone, but particularly in the deserts of Arabia, where there is a want of shade and moisture; 'Particularly let a man dread every gross act of sin.'—South. It is principally among the higher and lower orders of society that we find vices of every description to be prevalent; 'Neither Pythagoras nor any of his disciples were, properly speaking, practitioners of physick, since they applied themselves principally to the theory.'—James, Patriots who declaim so loudly against the measures of government do it chiefly (may I not say solely? with a view to their own interest; 'The reformer gained credit chiefly among persons in the lower and middle classes.'—Robbertson.

TO GOVERN, RULE, REGULATE.

Govern, in French gouverner, comes from the Latin guberne, Greek κυβερινάω, which properly signify to govern a ship, and are in all probability derived from the Hebrew 721 to prevail or be strong; rupe

and regulate signify to bring under a rule, or make | the heart of man, it is not of sufficient power to regu-

by ruli.
The exercise of authority enters more or less into the signification of these terms; but to govern implies the exercise likewise of judgement and knowledge.

To rule implies rather the unqualified exercise of power, the making the will the rule; a king governs his people by means of wise laws and an upright administration: a despot rules over a nation according to his arbitrary decision; if he have no principle his rule becomes an oppressive tyranny; of Robespierre it has been said, that if he did not know how to govern, he aimed at least at ruling.

These terms are applied either to persons or things:

persons govern or rule others; or they govern, rule, or

regulate things.

In regard to persons, govern is always in a good sense, but rule is sometimes taken in a had sense; it is naturally associated with an abuse of power; govern is so perfectly discretionary, that we speak of governing ourselves; but we speak only of ruling others; nothing can be more lamentable than to be ruled by one who does not know how to govern himself:

Slaves to our passions we become, and then It becomes impossible to govern men.—WALLER.

It is the business of a man to rule his house by keeping all its members in due subjection to his authority; it is the duty of a person to rule those who are under him in all matters wherein they are incompetent to govern themselves:

Marg'ret shall now be queen, and rule the king, But I will rule both her, the king, and realm.

SHAKSPEARE

To govern, necessarily supposes the adoption of judicious means; but ruling is confined to no means but such as will obtain the end of subjecting the will of one to that of another; a woman is said to rule by obeying; an artful and imperious woman will have recourse to various stratageins to elude the power to which she ought to submit, and render it subservient to her own purpose

In application to things, govern and rule admit of a similar distinction: a minister governs the state, and a pilot governs the vessel; the movements of the machine are in both cases directed by the exercise of the

judgement;

Whence can this very motion take its birth, Not sure from matter, from dull clods of earth? But from a living spirit lodg'd within, Which governs all the bodily machine. - JENYNS.

A person rules the times, seasons, fashions, and the like; it is an act of the individual will:

When I behold a factious band agree, 'o call it freedom when themselves are free; Each wanton judge new penal statutes draw; Laws grind the poor, and rich men rule the law; I fly from petty tyrants to the throne. - Goldsmith.

Regulate is a species of governing simply by judge-nent; the word is applicable to things of minor mo-ment, where the force of authority is not so requisite: one governs the affairs of a nation, or a large body where great interests are involved; we regulate the concerns of an individual, or we regulate in cases where good order or convenience only is consulted; Regulate the patient in his manner of living.'-WISE MAN. So likewise in regard to ourselves, we govern our passions, but we regulate our affections.

These terms are all properly used to denote the acts

of conscious agents, but by a figure of personification they may be applied to inanimate or moral objects: the price of one market governs the price of another, or governs the seller in his demand; 'The chief point which he is to carry always in his eye, and by which he is to govern all his counsels, designs, and actions."

—ATTERBURY. Fashion and caprice rule the majority,

or particular fashions rule;

Distracting thoughts by turns his bosom rul'd, Now fir'd by wrath, and now by reason cool'd.

One clock may regulate many others; 'Though a sense of moral good and evil be deeply impressed on

late his life.'-BLAIR.

GOVERNMENT, ADMINISTRATION.

Both these terms may be employed either to desig nate the act of governing and administering, or the persons governing and administering. In both cases government has a more extensive meaning than administration: the government includes every exercise of authority; the administration implies only that exercise of authority, which consists in putting the laws or will of another in force: hence, when we speak of or wind another in lotte: nemes, when we speak of the government, as it respects the persons, it implies the whole body of constituted authorities; and the administration, only that part which puts in execution the intentions of the whole: the government of a country, therefore, may remain unaltered, while the administration undergoes many changes; ment is an art above the attainment of an ordinary ment is an art above the attainment of an ordinary genius.'—South. It is the business of the government to make treaties of peace and war; and without a government it is impossible for any people to negociate; 'What are we to do if the government and the whole community are of the same description?'—BURKE. It is the business of the administration to administer justice, to regulate the finances, and to direct all the complicated concerns of a nation; without an admi-nistration all publick business would be at a stand; In treating of an invisible world, and the administration of government there carried on by the Father of spirits, particulars occur which appear incompre hensible. -Blair.

GOVERNMENT, CONSTITUTION.

Government is here as in the former article (v. Go vernment) the generick term; constitution the specifick. Government implies generally the act of governing or exercising authority under any form whatever; conexercising authority under any torm whatever, constitution implies any constituted or fixed form of government; we may have a government without a constitution; we cannot have a constitution without a government. In the first formation of society government was placed in the hands of individuals who exercised authority according to discretion rather than any fixed rule or law: here then was government without a constitution ; as time and experience proved the necessity of some established form, and the wisdom of enlightened men discovered the advantages and disadvantages of different forms, government in every country assumed a more definite shape, and became the constitution of the country; hence then the union of government and constitution. Governments are divided by political writers into three classes, monar-chical, aristocratick, and republican: but these three general forms have been adopted with such variations and modifications as to render the constitution of every country something peculiar to itself; 'Free govern-ments have committed more flagrant acts of tyranny than the most perfect despotick governments which we have ever known.'-Burke. 'The physician of the state who, not satisfied with the cure of distempers, undertakes to regenerate constitutions, ought to show uncommon powers.'-Burke.

Political squabblers have always chosen to consider government in its limited sense as including only the supreme or executive authority, and the constitution as that which is set up by the authority of the people; but this is only a forced application of a general term but this is only a forced application of a general term to serve the jurposes of party. Constitution, according to its real signification, does not convey the idea of the source of power any more than government; the constitution may with as much propriety be formed or constituted by the monarch as government is exercised by the monarch; and of this we may be assured, that what is to be formed specifically by any person or persons so as to become constituted must be framed by something more authoritative than a rabble. The constitution may, as I have before observed, be the work of time, for most of the constitutions in Europe, whether republican or monarchical, are indebted to time and the natural course of events for their establishment; but in our own country the case has been so far different that by the wisdom and humanity of those in government or power, a constitution has been expressly formed, which distinguishes the English

nation from all others Hence the word constitution is applied by distinction to the English form of government; and since this constitution has happily secured the rights and liberties of the people by salutary laws, a vulgar errour has arisen that the constitution is the work of the people, and by a natural consequence it is maintained that the people, if they are not satisfied with their constitution, have the right of introducing changes; a daugerous errour which cannot be combated with too much steadfastness. It must be obvious to all who reflect on this subject that the constitution, as far as it is assignable to the efforts of any man or best of men, was never the work of the people; but of the government or those who held the supreme power.

This view of the matter is calculated to lessen the jealousies of the people towards their government, and to abase that overweening complacency with which they are apt to look upon themselves, and their own imaginary work; for it is impossible but that they must regard with a more dispassionate eye the possessors of power, when they see themselves indebted to those in power for the most admirable constitution

ever framed.

The constitution is in danger, is the watchword of a party who want to increase the power of the people; but every one who is acquainted with history, and remembers that before the constitution was fully formed it was the people who overturned the government, will perceive that much more is to be apprehended by throwing any weight into the scale of the popular side of government, than by strengthening the hands of the executive government. The constitution of Eugland has afrived at the aeme of human perfection; it ensures to every man as much as he can wish; it deprives no man of what he can consistently with the publick peace expect; it has within itself adequate powers for correcting every evil and abuse as it may arise, and is fully competent to make such modifications of its own powers as the circumstances may require. Every good citizen therefore will be contented to leave the government of the country in the hands of those constituted authorities as they at present exist, fully assured that if they have not the wisdom and the power to meet every exigency, the evil will not be dimminished by making the people our legislators.

UNRULY, UNGOVERNABLE, REFRACTORY

Unruly marks the want of disposition to be ruled: ungovernable, an absolute incapacity to be governed: the former is a temporary or partial errour, the latter is an habitual defect in the temper: a volatile child will be occasionally unruly; any child of strong passions will become ungovernable by excessive indugence: we say that our wills are unruly, and our tempers are ungovernable; 'How hardly is the restive unruly will of man first tamed and broke to duty.'—South.

Heav'ns, how unlike their Belgic sires of old! Rough, poor, content, ungovernably bold.

GOLDSMITH.

The unruly respects that which is to be ruled or turned at the histant, and is applicable therefore to the management of children: ungovernable respects that which is to be put into a regular course, and is applicable therefore either to the management of children or the direction of those who are above the state of children is a child a unruly in his actions, and ungovernable in his conduct. Refractory, which from the Latin refringo to break open, marks the disposition to break every thing down before it, is the excess of the unruly with regard to children: the unruly is however negative; but the refractory is positive: an unruly child objects to be ruled, a refractory child sets up a positive resistance to all rule: an unruly child may be altogethersilent and passive; a refractory dild always commits himself by some act of intemperance in word or deed: he is unruly if in any degree he gives trouble in the ruling; he is refractory; in the refuses altogether to be ruled. This term refractory may also be applied to the brutes; 'I conceive (replied Nicholas) I stand here before you, my most equitable judges, for no worse a crime than cudgelling my refractory mules. Consequence.

TUMULTUOUS, TURBULENT, SEDITIOUS, MUTINOUS.

Tumultuous describes the disposition to make a noise; those who attend the play-houses, particularly the lower orders, are frequently tumultuous; Many civil broils and tumultuous rebellions, they fairly overcame, by reason of the continual presence of their king, whose only presence oftentimes constrains the unruly people from a thousand evil occasions.—

SPENNER (on Ireland). Turbulent marks a hostile spirit of resistance to authority; when prisoners are dissatisfied they are frequently turbulent; Men of ambitions and turbulent spirits, that were dissatisfied with privacy, were allowed to engage in matters of state.—BENTLEY. Seditious marks a spirit of resistance to government; during the French revolution the people were often disposed to be seditious; 'Very many of the nobility in Edinburgh, at that time, did not appear yet in this seditious behaviour."—CLARENDON.—Mutinous marks a spirit of resistance against officers either in the army or navy; a general will not fail to que!! the first risings of a mutinous spirit;

Lend me your guards, that if persuasion fail, Force may against the mutinous prevail.—WALLER

Electioneering mobs are always tumultunus; the young and the ignorant are so averse to control that they are easily led by the example of an individual to be turbulent; among the Romans the people were in the habit of holding seditious meetings, and sometimes the soldiery would be mutinous.

TUMULTUOUS, TUMULTUARY

Tunultuous signifies having tunult; tunultuary, disposed for tunult: the former is applied to object in general; the latter to persons only: in tunultuous meetings the voice of reason is the last thing that is heard;

But, O! beyond description happiest he Who ne'er must roll on life's tumultuous sea.

It is the natural tendency of large and promiscuous assemblies to become tumultuary; 'With tumultuary, but irresistible violence, the Scotch insurgents fell upon the churches in that city (Perth),'—ROBERT-SON.

INSURRECTION, SEDITION, REBELLION, REVOLT.

Insurrection, from surgo to rise up, signifies rising up, gainst any power that is; sedition, in Latin seditio, compounded of se and tito, signifies a going apart, that is, the people going apart from the government; rebellion, in Latin rebellio, from rebello, signifies turning upon or against in a hostile manner; revolt, in French revolter, is most probably compounded of re and volter, from volvo to roll, signifying to roll or turn back from, to turn against.

The term insurrection is general; it is used in a good or bad sense, according to the nature of the power against which one rises up; sedition and rebellion are more specifick; they are always taken in the bad sense of unallowed opposition to lawful authority. There may be an insurrection against usurped power, There may be an insurrection against using the power which is always justifiable; but sedition and rebeltion are levelled against power universally acknowledged to be legitimate. Insurrection is always open; it is a rising up of many in a mass; but it does not imply any concerted, or any specifically active measure; a united spirit of opposition, as the moving cause, is all that is comprehended in the meaning of the term; Elizabeth enjoyed a wonderful calm (excepting some short gusts of insurrection at the beginning) for near upon forty-five years together.'-Howell. Sedition is either secret or open, according to circumstances; in popular governments it will be open and determined; monarchical governments it is secretly organized; When the Roman people began to bring in plebeians to the office of chiefest power and dignity, then began those seditions which so long distempered, and at length ruined, the state.'-TEMPLE. Rebellion is the consummation of sedition; the scheme of opposition which has been digested in secrecy breaks out into open hostilities, and becomes rebellion;

ff that rebellion

Came like itself, in base and abject routs, You reverend father, and these noble lords, Had not been here to dress the ugly forms Of base and bloody insurrection .- SHAKSPEARE.

The insurrection which was headed by Wat Tyler, in the time of Richard II. was an unhappy instance widely extended delusion among the common people; the insurrection in Madrid, in the year 1808, against the infamous usurpation of Buonaparte, has led to the most important results that ever sprung from any commotion. Rome was the grand theatre of seditions, which were set on foot by the Tribunes: England has been disgraced by one rebellion, which ended in the death of its king.

Sediction is common to all forms of government, but Scatton is common of a forms government of fourishes most in republicks, since there it can scarcely be regarded as a political or moral offence: rebellion exists properly in none but monarchical states; in which the allegiance that men owe to their sovereign requires to be broken with the utmost violence, in order to be shaken off. Insurrections may be made by nations against a foreign dominion, or by subjects against their government: sedition and rebellion are carried on by subjects only against their government: revolt is carried on only by nations against a foreign dominion; upon the death of Alexander the Great most of his conquered countries revolted from his successors; 6 He was greatly strengthened, and the enemy as much enterbled by daily revolts."—Raleigh.

Revolt is also applied to moral objects in the same

sense; 'Our self-love is ever ready to revolt from our better judgement, and join the enemy within.'—

STEELE.

FACTION, PARTY.

* These two words equally suppose the union of many persons, and their opposition to certain views different from their own. But faction, from factio making, denotes an activity and secret machination against those whose views are opposed; and party, from the verb to part or split, expresses only a division

of opinion.

The term party has of itself nothing odious, that of faction is always so. Any man, without distinction of rank, may have a purty either at court or in the army, in the city or in literature, without being himself immediately implicated in raising it; but factions are always the result of active efforts; one may have a party for one's merit from the number and ardour of one's friends; but a faction is raised by busy and turbulent spirits for their own purposes. Rome was torn by the intestine factions of Cæsar and Pompey; France, from the commencement of the revolution to the period of Buonaparte's usurpation, was successively governed by some ruling faction which raised itself upon the ruins of that which it had destroyed. Factions are not so prevalent in England as parties, owing to the peculiar excellence of the constitution; but there are not wanting factious spirits who, if they could overturn the present balance of power which has been so happily obtained, would have an opportu-nity of practising their arts alternately on the high and low, and carrying on their schemes by the aid of both. Faction is the demon of discord, armed with the power to do endless mischief, and intent alone on destroying to do endless mischiel, and intern alone of destrying whatever opposes its progress. We to that state into which it has found an entrance; 'It is the resiless ambition of a few artful men that thus breaks a people into factions, and draws several well-meaning persons to their interest by a specious concern for their country.'-Addison. Party spirit may show itself in noisy debate; but while it keeps within the legitimate bounds of opposition, it is an evil that must be endured; 'As men formerly became eminent in learned societies by their parts and acquisitions, they now distinguish themselves by the warmth and violence with which they espouse their respective parties.'-Addison.

FACTIOUS, SEDITIOUS.

Factious, in Latin factiosus from facio to do, signifies the same as busy or intermeddling; ready to

* Vide Beauzée: " Faction, parti."

take an active part in matters of one sown immediate concern; seditions, in Laim seditiosus, signifies prone to sedition (v. Insurrection).

Factious is an epithet to characterize the tempers of men; sentious characterizes their conduct: the factious man attempts to raise himself into importance, he aims at authority, and seeks to interfere in the measures of government; the seditious man attempts to excite others, and to provoke their resistance to established authority: the first wants to be a law-giver, the second does not hesitate to be a law-breaker; the first wants to direct the state; the second to overturn it: the factious man is mostly in possession of either power, rank, or fortune; the settitious man is seldom elevated in station or circumstances above the mass of the people. The Roman tribunes were in general little better than factious demagogues; such, in fact, as abound in all republicks: Wat Tyler was a seditious disturber of the peace. Factious is mostly applied to individuals;

He is a traitor, let him to the Tower, And crop away that factious pate of his. SHAKSPEARE.

Seditious is employed for bodies of men; hence we speak of a factious nobleman, a seditious multitude; France is considered (by the ministry) as merely a foreign power, and the seditious English only as a domestick faction.'—BURKE.

OBSTINATE, CONTUMACIOUS, STUBBORN, HEADSTRONG, HEADY

Obstinate, in Latin obstinatus, participle of obstino, Obstinate, in Latin obstinates, participle of obstinate, from ob and stino, sto or sisto, signifies standing in the way of another; contunacious, prone to contunacy (s. Contunacy); stubburn, or stoutburn, stiff or immoveable by nature; headstrong, strong in the head or the mind; and heady, full of one's own head.

Obstinates in the best of the prints contunate is

Obstinacy is a habit of the mind; contumacy is either a particular state of feeling or a mode of action: obstinacy consists in an attachment to one's own mode of acting; contumacy consists in a swelling contempt of others: the obstinate man adheres tenaciously to his own ways, and opposes reason to reason: the contumacious man disputes the right of another to control his actions, and opposes force to force. Obstinacy interferes with a man's private conduct, and makes him blind to right reason; contumacy is a crime against lawful authority; the contumacious man sets himself against his superiours: when young people are obstinate they are bad subjects of education;

But man we find the only creature Who, led by folly, combats nature; Who, when she loudly cries, forbear With obstinacy fixes there.—Swift.

When people are contumacious they are troublesome subjects to the king; 'When an offender is cited to appear in any ecclesiastical court, and he neglects to do he is pronounced contumacious.'—Beveringe.
The stubborn and the headstrong are species of the

obstinate: the former lies altogether in the perversion of the will; the latter in the perversion of the judgement: the stubborn person wills what be wills; the headstrong person thinks what he thinks. Stubborn-ness is mostly inherent in the nature: a headstrong temper is commonly associated with violence and im petuosity of character. Obstinacy discovers itself in persons of all ages and stations; a stubborn and head-strong disposition betray themselves mostly in those who are bound to conform to the will of another.

The obstinate keep the opinions which they have once embraced in spite of all proof; but they are not hasty in forming their opinions, nor adopt them without a choice: the *headstrong* seize the first opinions that offer, and act upon them in spite of all remon strance:

We, blindly by our headstrong passions led, Are hot for action .- DRYDEN.

The stubborn follow the ruling will or bent of the mind, without regard to any opinions; they are not to be turned by force or persuasion;

From whence he brought them to these salvage parts, And with science mollified their stubborn hearts.

SPENSER

If an obstinate child be treated with some degree of indulgence, there may be hopes of correcting his failing; but a studborn and a headstrong child are troublesome subjects of education, who will builte the unnost skill and patience; the former is insensible to all reason; the latter has blinded the little reason which he possesses; the former is unconscious of every thing, but the simple will and determination to do what he does; the latter is no preoccupied with his own favourite ideas as to set every other at nought; force serves mostly to confirm both in their perverse resolution of persistance. Heady is applied as an epithet to the thing rather than the person; 'Heady confidence promises victory without contest.'—Johnson.

CONTUMACY, REBELLION.

Contumacy, from the Latin contumax, compounded of contra and tameo to swell, signifies the swelling che's self by way of resistance; rebellion, in Latin rebellio, from rebello, or re and bello to war in return, signifies carrying on war against those to whom we owe, and have before paid, a lawful subjection.

Resistance to lawful authority is the common idea included in the signification of both these terms, but contamacy does not express so nuch as rebellion: the contamacious resist only occasionally; the rebel resists systematically: the contamacious stand only on certain points, and oppose the individual; the rebel sets himself up against the authority itself: the contamacious thwart and contradict, they never resort to open violence; the rebel acts only by main force: contumacy shelmers itself under the plea of equity and justice; 'The censor told the criminal that he spoke in contempt of the court, and that he should be proceeded against for contumacy.'—Addison. Rebellion sets all law and order at defiance; 'The mother of Waller was the daughter of John Hampden of Hampden, in the same county, and sister to Hampden the zealot of rebellion."—Johnson.

DISAFFECTION, DISLOYALTY.

Disaffection is general; disloyalty is particular, being a species of disaffection. Men are disaffected to the government; disloyal to their prince.

Disaffection may be said with regard to any form of government; disloyalty only with regard to a monarchy. Although both terms are commonly employed in a bad sense, yet the former does not always convey the unfavourable meaning which is attached to the latter. A man may have reasons to think himself justified in disaffection; but he will never attem; to offer any thing m justification of desloyalty. A usurped government will have many disaffected subjects with whom it must deal leniently;

Yet, I protest, it is no salt desire Of seeing countries shifting for a religion! Nor any disaffection to the state Where I was bred, and unto which I owe My dearest plots, hath brought me out.

The best king may have disloyal subjects, upon whom he must exercise the rigour of the law; 'Milton being cleared from the effects of his disloyalty, had nothing required from him but the common duty of living in quiet.'—Jonnson. Many were disaffected to the usurpation of Oliver Cromwell, because they would not be disloyal to their king.

GUIDE, RULE.

Guide, signifies either the person that guides, or the thing that guides; rule is only the thing that rules or regulates; guide is to rule as the genus to the species; every rule is a guide to a certain extent; but the guide is often that which exceeds the rule. The guide, in the moral sense, as in the proper sense, goes with us, and points out the exact path; it does not permit us to err either to the right or left; the rule marks out a line, beyond which we may not go; but it leaves us to trace the line, and consequently to fail either on the one side or other.

The Bible is our best guide for moral practice; You must first apply to religion as the guide of life, before you can have recourse to it as the refuge of

sorrow.'—BLAIR. Its doctrines as interpreted in the a ticles of the established church are the best rule of faith for every Christian; 'There is something so wild and yet so solemn, in Shakspeare's speeches of his ghosts and fairies, and the like imaginary persons, that we cannot forbear thinking them natural, though we have no rule by which to judge them.'—Addison.

AXIOM, MAXIM, APHORISM, APOPHTHEGM, SAYING, ADAGE, PROVERB, BY-WORD SAW.

Aziom, in French axiome, Latin axioma, comes for nine Greek $\mathring{a}'_{\xi}l\omega$ to think worthy, signifying the thing valued; maxim, in French maxime, in Latin maximus the greatest, signifies that which is most important; apharism, from the Greek $\mathring{a}\phi\phi\rho apha g$ a short sentence, and $a\phi\phi\rho f'_{\xi}\omega$ to distinguish, signifies that which is set apart; apophthegm, in Greek $\mathring{a}\pi\phi\phi\theta b'_{\xi}\gamma\phi_{\mu}a$, to speak pointedly, signifies that which is set apart; apophthegm, in Greek $\mathring{a}\pi\phi\phi\theta b'_{\xi}\gamma\phi_{\mu}a$, to speak pointedly, signifies sa pointed saying; saying signifies literally what is said, that is, said habitually; adage, in Latin adagrium, probably compounded of ad and ago, signifies that which is fit to be acted upon; proverb, in French proverbe, Latin proverbium, compounded of pro and verbum, signifies that expression which stands for something particular; by-word signifies a word by the by, or by the way, in the course of conversation; saw is but a variation of say, put for saying.

A given sentiment conveyed in a specifick sentence, or form of expression, is the common idea included in the signification of these terms. The axiom is a truth of the first value; a self-evident proposition which is the basis of other truths. A maxim is a truth of the first moral importance for all practical purposes. An aphorism is a truth set apart for its pointedness and excellence. Apophthegm is, in respect to the ancients, what saying is in regard to the moderns; it is a pointed sentiment pronounced by an individual, and adopted by others. Adage and proverb are vulgar sayings, the former among the ancients, the latter among the moderns. A byword is a casual saying, originating in some local circumstance. The saw, which is a barbarous corruption of saying, is a saying formerly current annong the ignorant.

Azioms are in science what mazims are in morals; self-evidence is an essential characteristick in both; the axiom presents itself in so simple and undeniable a form to the understanding as to exclude doubt, and the necessity for reasoning. The mazim, though not so definite in its expression as the axiom, is at the same time equally parallel to the mind of man, and of such general application, that it is acknowledged by all moral agents who are susceptible of moral truth; it comes hone to the common sense of all mankind.

*"Things that are equal to one and the same thing are equal to each other,"—"Two bodies cannot occupy the same space at the same time, are axioms in mathematicks and metaphysicks. "Virtue is the true source of happiness,"—"The happiness of man is the end of civil government," are axioms in ethicks and politicks. "To err is human, to forgive divine,"—"When our vices leave us, we flatter ourselves that we leave them," are among the number of maxims. Between axioms and maxims there is this obvious difference to be observed; that the axiom is unchangeable both in matter and manner, and admits of little or no increase in number; the maxim may vary with the circumstances of human life, and admit of considerable extension; 'Those authors are to be read at schools, that supply most axioms of prudence, most principles of moral truth."—Johnson. "It was my grandiather's maxim, that a young man seldom makes much money, who is out of his time before two and twenty."—Johnson.

Aphorism is a speculative principle, either in science or morals, which is presented in a few words to the understanding: it is the substance of a doctrine, and many aphorisms may contain the abstract of a science. Of this description are the aphorisms of Hippocrates, and those of Lavater in physiognomy; 'As this one aphorism, Jesus Christ is the Son of God, is virtually and eminently the whole Gospel; so to confess or deny

* Vide Roubaud: "Axiome, maxime, apophthègme aphorisme."

it is virtually to embrace or reject the whole round and

series of Gospel truths.'—South.

Sayings and apophthegms differ from the preceding, in as much as they always carry the mind back to the In as finer as they arways carry the mind back to the person speaking; there is always one who says when there is a saying or an apophtheym, and both acquire a value as much from the person who utters them, as from the thing that is uttered: when Leonidas was asked why brave men prefer honour to life, his answer became an apophthegm; namely, that they hold life by fortune, and honour by virtue; 'It is remarkable that so near his time so much should be known of what Pope has written, and so little of what he has said. One apophthegm only stands upon record. Said. One apoputagm only stains upon record. When an objection raised against his inscription for Shakspeare was defended by the authority of Patrick, he replied, that he would allow the publisher of a dictionary to know the meaning of a single word, but not of two words together."—Johnson. Of this description also are the apophthegms comprised by Plus. tarch; so likewise in modern times, the sayings of Franklin's Old Richard, or those of Dr. Johnson: are happy effusions of the mind which men are fond of treasuring; 'The little and short sayings of wise and excellent men are of great value, like the dust of gold, or the least sparks of diamonds.'—Tillotson.

The adage and proverb are habitual, as well as ge neral sayings, not repeated as the sayings of one, but not adopted for the sake of the person, but for the sake of the thing; and they have been used in all ages for the purpose of conveying the sense of man-kind on ordinary subjects. The adage of former times is the proverb of the present times; if there be any difference between them, it lies in this, that the former are the fruit of knowledge and long experience, the are the truit of knowledge and long experience, the latter of vulgar observations; the adage is therefore more refined than the proverb. Adversity is our best teacher, according to the Greek adage, "What hurts us instructs us,"—"Old birds are not to be caught with chaff," is a vulgar proverb; 'It is in praise and commendation of men, as it is in gettings and gains; the proverb is true that light gains make heavy purses: for light gains come thick, whereas great come now and

Quoth Hudibras, thou offer'st much, But art not able to keep touch,
Mira de lente, as 't is I, the adage,
Id est, to make a leek a cabbage.—BUTLER.

By-words rarely contain any important sentiment; they mostly consist of familiar similes, nick-names, and the like, as the Cambridge by-word of Hobson's and the like, as the Cambridge by-word of Hobson's choice, signifying that or none: the name of Nazarene was a by-word among the Jews, for a Christian; 'I knew a pretty young girl in a country village, who, overfond of her own praise, became a property to a poor rogue in the parish, who was ignorant of all thiuss but fawning.—Thus Isaac extols her out of a quartern of cut and dry every day she lives, and though the young woman is really handsome, she and her beauty are become a by-word, and all the country round, she is called nothing but Isaac's best Virginia.'—Arbertmyor. A saw is vulgar in form, and vulgar -Arbuthnot. A saw is vulgar in form, and vulgar in matter: it is the partial saying of particular neighbourhoods, originating in ignorance and superstition: of this description are the sayings which attribute par-ticular properties to animals or to plants, termed old women's saws; 'If we meet this dreadful and portentous energy with poor commonplace proceedings, with trivial maxims, paltry old saws, with doubts, fears, and suspicions; down we go to the bottom of the abyss, and nothing short of omnipotence can save us.—BURKE.

MAXIM, PRECEPT, RULE, LAW.

Maxim (v. Axiom), is a moral truth that carries its own weight with itself; precept (v. Command), rule (v. Guide), and law, from lex and lego, signifying the thing specially chosen or marked out, all borrow their weight from some external circumstance: the precept derives its authority from the individual delivering it in this manner the precepts of our Saviour have a weight which gives them a decided superiority over every thing else: the *rule* acquires a worth from its fitness for guiding us in our proceeding: the *law*, which is a species of *rule*, derives its weight from the

sanction of power. Maxims are often precepts inasmuch as they are communicated to us by our parents; they are rules inasmuch as they serve as a rule for our conduct; they are laws inasmuch as they have the sanction of conscience. We respect the maxims of antiquity as containing the essence of human wisdom; 'I think I may lay it down as a maxim, that every man of good common sense may, if he pleases, most certainly be rich.'—Budgell. We reverence the precepts of religion as the foundation of all happiness; 'Philosophy has accumulated precept upon precept to warn us against the anticipation of future calami ties.'-Johnson. We regard the rules of prudence as preserving us from errours and misfortunes; 'I know not whether any rule has yet been fixed by which it may be decided when poetry can properly be called easy.'—Johnson. We respect the laws as they are the basis of civil society;

God is thy law, thou mine .- MILTON.

LAWFUL, LEGAL, LEGITIMATE, LICIT

Lawful, from law, and the F ence loi, comes from the Latin lex, in the same manner as legal or legitimate, all signifying in the proper sense belonging to law. They differ therefore according to the sense of the word law; lawful respects the law in general, defined or undefined; legal respects only civil law, which is defined; and legitimate respects the law or rules of science as well as civil matters in general. Licit, from the Latin licet to be allowed, is used only to characterize the moral quality of actions: the to characterize the moral quality of actions: the lawful property implies conformable to or enjoined by law; the legal what is in the form or after the manner of law, or binding by law: it is not lawful to coin with the king's stamp; a marriage is not legal in England which is not solemnized according to the rites of the established church: men's passions impel them to do many things which are unlawful or illicit; their ignorance leads them into many things which are illegal or illegitimate. As a good citizen and a true Christian, every man will be anxious to avoid every thing which is unlawful: it is the business of the lawyer to define what is legal or illegal; it is the business of the critick to define what is legitimate verse in poetry; it is the business of the linguist to define the *legitimate* use of words; it is the business of the moralist to point out what is lieft or illieft. As usurpers have no lawful authority, no one is under any obligation to obey them; 'According to this si iritual doctor of politicks, if his Majesty does not owe his crown to the choice of his people, he is no lawful king.'-BURKE. When a claim to property cannot be made out according to the established laws of the country it is not legal; 'Switt's mental powers declined till (1741) it was found necessary that legal guardians should be appointed to his person and fortune. Johnson. The cause of legitimate sovereigns is at length brought to a happy issue; it is to be hoped that men will never be so unwise as ever to revive the question; 'Upon the whole I have sent this my offspring into the world the whole I have sent this my dispring into the world in as decent a dress as I was able; a legitimate one, I am sure it is."—Moore. The first inclination to an illicit includence should be carefully suppressed; 'The King of Prussia charged some of the officers, his prisoners, with maintaining an illicit correspond ence '-Smollett.

JUDGE, UMPIRE, ARBITER, ARBITRATOR.

Judge, in Latin judico and judex, from jus right, signifies one pronouncing the law or determining right; umpire is most probably a corruption from empire, sig nifying one who has authority; arbiter and arbitrator, from arbitror to think or determine, signifying one who decides.

Judge is the generick term, the others are specifick terms. The judge determines in all matters disputed or undisputed; he pronounces, what is law now as well as what will be law for the future; the umpire and arbiter are only judges in particular cases that admit of dispute: there may be judges in literature, in arts, and civil matters:

Palæmon shall be judge how ill you rhyme.

Umpires and arbiters are only judges in civil or pri

vate matters. The judge pronounces, in matters of dispute, according to a written law or a prescribed rule; dispute, according to a writer law of a presented rule; 4 am not out of the reach of people who oblige me to act as their judge or their arbitrator.—Melmoth (Letters of Pliny). The umpire decides in all matters of contest; and the arbitre or arbitrator in all matters of litigation, according to his own judgement. The judge acts under the appointment of government; the ampire and arbitrator are appointed by individuals: the former is chosen for his skill; he adjudges the paim to the victor according to the merits of the case: the latter is chosen for his impartiality; he consults the interests of both by equalizing their claims.

The office of an English judge is one of the most honourable in the state; he is the voice of the legislator,

and the organ for dispensing justice; he holds the balance between the king and the subject: the characters of those who have filled this office have been every way fitted to raise it in the estimation of all the world. name to raise it in the estimation of an time world. An ampire has no particular moral duty to discharge, nor important office; but he is of use in deciding the contested merits of individuals; among the Romans and Greeks, the umpire at their games was held in high estimation; but the term may be used in poetry in a

To pray'r, repentance, and obedience due, Mine ear shall not be slow, mine eye not shut, And I will place within them as a guide, My umpire conscience.-MILTON.

The office of an arbiter, although not so elevated as that of a judge in its literal sense, has often the important duty of a Christian peace maker; and as the determinations of an arbiter are controlled by no external circumstances, the term is applied to monarchs, and even to the Creator as the sovereign Arbiter of the world:

You once have known me 'Twixt warring monarchs and contending states, The glorious arbiter .- LEWIS.

JUSTICE, EQUITY.

* Justice, from jus right, is founded on the laws of society: equity, from equitas fairness, rightness, and

equality, is founded on the laws of nature.

Justice is a written or prescribed law, to which one is bound to conform and make it the rule of one's decisions: equity is a law in our hearts; it conforms to no rule but to circumstances, and decides by the consciousness of right and wrong. The proper object of justice is to secure property; the proper object of quity is to secure the rights of humanity. Justice is exclusive, it assigns to every one his own: it preserves the subsisting inequality between men: equity is communicative; it seeks to equalize the condition of men by a fair distribution.

Justice forbids us doing wrong to any one; and requires us to repair the wrongs we have done to others: equity forbids us doing to others what we would not have them do to us; it requires us to do to others what in similar circumstances we would expect from them.

The obligations to justice are imperative: the observance of its laws is enforced by the civil power, and the breach of them is exposed to punishment: the obligations to equity are altogether moral; we are impelled to it by the dictates of conscience; we cannot violate it without exposing ourselves to the Divine displeasure. Justice is inflexible, it follows one invariable rule. which can seldom be deviated from consistently with the general good; equity, on the other hand, varies with the circumstances of the case, and is guided by discretion: justice may, therefore, sometimes run counter to equity, when the interests of the individual must be sacrificed to those of the community; and equity some-times tempers the rigour of justice, by admitting of rea-sonable deviations from the literal interpretations of its laws; 'We see in contracts, and other dealings, which daily pass between man and man, that, to the utter undaily pass between man and man, that, to the utter undoing of some, many things by strictness of law may be done, which equity and honest meaning forbiddeth. Not that the law is unjust, but imperfect, nor equity against but above law; binding men's consciences in things which law cannot reach unto.'—Hooker. The

Vide Roubaud: 'Justice, equité.'

tranquillity of society, and the security of the individual, are ensured by *justice*; the harmony and good-will of one man towards another are cherished by equity: When justice requires any sacrifices which are not absolutely necessary for the preservation of this tranquillity and security, it is a useless breach of equity; on the other hand, when a regard to equity leads to the off the other man, which a regard we quity man to the direct violation of any law, it ceases to be either equity or justice. The rights of property are alike to be preserved by both justice and equity; but the former respects only those general and fundamental principles which are universally admitted in the social compact, and comprehended under the laws; the latter respects those particular principles which belong to the case of individuals: justice is, therefore, properly a virtue be-longing only to a large and organized society: equity must exist wherever two individuals come in connexion When a father disinherits his son, with each other. he does not violate justice, although he does not act consistently with equity; the disposal of his property is a right which is guaranteed to him by the established laws of civil society; but the claims which a child has by nature over the property of his parent become the claims of equity, which the latter is not at liberty to set at nought without the most substantial reasons. On the other hand, when Cyrus adjudged the coat to each boy as it fitted him, without regard to the will of the younger from whom the large coat had been taken, it younger from whom the large cost and been taken, it is evident that he committed an act of injustice, without performing an act of equity; since all violence is positively unjust, and what is positively unjust, can never be equitable; whence it is clear that justice, which respects the absolute and unaltenable rights of mankind, can at no time be superseded by what is supposed to be equity; although equity may be conveniently made to interpose where the laws of justice are either too severe or altogether silent. On this ground, supposing I have received an injury, justice demands reparation; it listens to no palliation, excuse, or exception: but supposing the reparation which I have a right to demand involves the ruin of him who is more right to demand involves the run of him who is more unfortunate than guilty, can I in equity insist on the demand? Justice is that which publick law requires; equity is that which private law or the law of every man's conscience requires; 'They who supplicate for mercy from others, can never hope for justice through themselves.'-BURKE.

Ev'ry rule of equity demands That vice and virtue from the Almighty's hands Should due rewards and punishments receive.

INJUSTICE, INJURY, WRONG-

Injustice, signifying the abstract quality of unjust injury, from injuria, or in privative, and jus right, sig-nifying any act that is contrary to right; and wrong, signifying the thing that is wrong, are all opposed to the right; but the injustice lies in the principle, the injury in the action that injures. There may, therefore, be injustice where there is no specifick injury; and, on the other hand, there may be injury where there is no injustice. When we think worse of a person than we ought to think, we do him an act of injustice; but we do not, in the strict sense of the word, do him an in-jury: on the other hand, if we say any thing to the discredit of another, it will be an injury to his reputa-tion if it be believed; but it may not be an injustice, if it be strictly conformable to truth, and that which one is compelled to say.

The violation of justice, or a breach of the rule of right, constitutes the rigistice; but the quantum of All which falls on the person constitutes the injury. Sometimes a person is dispossessed of his property by fraud or violence, this is an act of injustice; but it is not an injury, if, in consequence of this act, he obtains friends who make it good to him beyond what he has lost: on the other hand, a person suffers very much through the inadvertence of another, which to him is a serious injury, although the offender has not been guilty of injustice; 'A lie is properly a species of injustice, and a violation of the right of that person to whom the false speech is directed.'—SOUTH.

Law suits I'd shun with as much studious care, As I would dens where hungry lions are;

And rather put up injuries than be A plague to him who'd be a plague to me. POMFRET.

A wrong partakes both of injustice and injury; it is in fact an *injury* done by one person to another, in express violation of justice. The man who seduces a woman from the path of virtue does her the greatest of all wrongs. One repents of injustice, repairs injuries and redresses wrongs;

The humble man when he receives a wrong, Refers revenge to whom it doth belong.—WALLER.

PRINCIPLE, MOTIVE.

The principle (v. Doctrine) may sometimes be the motive; but often there is a principle where there is no motive, and there is a motive where there is no prin-The principle lies in conscious and unconscious agents; the motive only in conscious agents; all nature is guided by certain principles; its movements go forward by certain principles; man is put into action by certain motives; the principle is the prime moving cause of every thing that is set in motion; the motive is the prime moving cause that sets the human machine into action. The principle in its restricted sense comes still nearer to the motive, when it refers to the opinions which we form: the principle in this case is that idea which we form of things, so as to regulate our conduct : The best legislators have been satisfied with the establishment of some sure, solid, and ruling principle in government.—BURKE. The motive is that idea which simply impels to action; 'The danger of betraying our weakness to our servants, and the impossibility of concealing it from them, may be justly considered as one motive to a regular life.'—Johnson. The former is therefore something permanent, and grounded upon the exercise of our reasoning powers; the latter is mo-mentary, and arises simply from our capacity of thinking: bad principles lead a man into a bad course of life bad motives lead him to the commission of actions bad or good.

DIRECTION, ORDER.

Direction (v. To direct) contains most of instruction in it: order (v. To command) most of authority. Directions should be followed; orders obeyed. It is necessary to direct those who are unable to act for themselves: it is necessary to order those whose business it is to execute the orders. To servants and children the is to execute the orders. To servants and ch directions must be clear, simple, and precise;

Then meet me forthwith at the notary's, Give him direction for this merry bond.

Shakspeare. To tradespeople the orders may be particular or gene-

ral; 'To execute laws is a royal office: to execute orders is not to be a king.'—BURKE. Directions extend to the moral conduct of others, as

well as the ordinary concerns of life; 'A general direction for scholastick disputers is never to dispute upon mere trifles.'—WATTS. Orders are confined to the personal convenience of the individual;

Give order to my servants, that they take No note of our being absent.—Shakspeare.

A parent directs a child as to his behaviour in company, or as to his conduct when he enters life; a teacher directs his pupil in the choice of books, or in the distribution of his studies: the master gives orders to his attendants to be in waiting for him at a certain hour; or he gives orders to his tradesmen to provide what is necessary.

DIRECTION, ADDRESS, SUPERSCRIPTION.

Direction marks that which directs; address is that which addresses: superscription, from super and scribe, signifies that which is written over something

Although these terms may be used promiscuously for each other, yet they have a peculiarity of signification by which their proper use is defined: the direction may serve to direct to places as well as to persons: the address is never used but in direct application to the person; the superscription has more respect to the thing han the person. The director may be written or

verbal; the address in this sense is always written; the superscription must not only be written, but either on or over some other thing: a direction is given to such as go in search of persons and places, it ought to be clear and particular; 'There could not be a greater chance than that which brought to light the powder treason, when Providence, as it were, snatched a king and a kingdom out of the very jaws of death only by the mistake of a word in the direction of a letter.'— South. An address is put either on a card, and a letter, or in a book; it ought to be suitable to the station and situation of the person addressed; 'We think you may be able to point out to him the evil of succeeding; if it be solicitation, you will tell him where to audress it.—Lord Chesterield. A superscription is placed at the head of other writings, or over tombs and pillars, it ought to be appropriate; 'Deceit and hypocrisy carry in them more of the express image and superscription of the devil than any bodily sins whatsoever.'—South

INSIGHT, INSPECTION.

The insight is what we receive; the inspection is what we give: one gets a view into a thing by the insight; one takes a view over a thing by an inspection. The insight serves to increase our own knowledge; the inspection enables us to instruct others. An inquisitive traveller tries to get an insight into the manners, customs, laws, and government of the countries which he visits; 'Angels both good and bad have a full insight into the activity and force of natural causes.'—South. By inspection a master discovers the errours which are committed by his scholars, and sets them right; 'Something no doubt is designed; but what that is, I will not presume to determine from an inspection of men's hearts.'-South.

INSPECTION, SUPERINTENDENCY, OVER-SIGHT.

The office of looking into the conduct of others is expressed by all these terms; but the former compre hends little more than the preservation of good order; the two latter include the arrangement of the whole.

The monitor of a school has the inspection of the conduct of his schoolfellows, but the master has the conduct of his schoolinelows, but the master has me superintendence of the school. The officers of an army inspect the men, to see that they observe all The rules that have been laid down to them; 'This author pro-poses that there should be examiners appointed to inspect the genius of every particular boy."—Budgett.

A general or superiour officer has the superintendence of any military operation; "When female minds are imbittered by age or solitude, their malignity is generally exerted by a spiteful superintendence of trifles exertice by a spiteful superintendence of trifles '-JOHN-son. Fidelity is peculiarly wanted in an inspector, judgement and experience in a superintendent. Inspec-tion is said of things as well as persons; oversight only of persons: one has the inspection of books in order to ascertain their accuracy: one has the oversight of per-sons to prevent irregularity; there are inspectors of the customs, and overseers of the poor.

TO INSTITUTE, ESTABLISH, FOUND, ERECT.

Institute, in Latin institutus, participle of instituo, Institute, in Latin Institute, particular of the property of t

to establish is to fix in a certain position what has been formed; to found is to lay the foundation; to erect is Laws, communities, and particular orders, are instituted, schools, colleges, and various societies, are established; in the former case something new is supposed to be framed; in the latter case it is supposed only to have a certain situation assigned to it. The order of the Jesuits was instituted by Ignatius de Loyola: schools were established by Alfred the Great in various parts of his dominions. The act of instiin various parts of his dominions. The act of insti-tuting comprehends design and method: that of establishing includes the idea of authority. The inquisition was instituted in the time of Ferdinand; the Church of England is established by authority. To institute is always the immediate act of some agent; to establish is sometimes the effect of circumstances. Men of pub-

lick spirit institute that which is for the publick good; AMBASSADOR, ENVOY, PLENIPOTENTIARY a communication or trade between certain places a communication or trade between certain places becomes established in course of time. An institution is properly of a publick nature, but establishments are as often private: there are charitable and literary institutions, but domestick establishments; 'The leap years were fixed to their due times according to Julius Casar's institution.'—PRIDEAUX. 'The French have outdone us in these particulars by the establishment of a society for the invention of proper inscriptions (for their medals)."—Addition. To found is a species of instituting which borrows its figurative meaning from the nature of buildings, and is applicable to that which is formed after the manner of a building: a publick school is founded when its pecuniary resources are formed into a fund or foundation; 'After the flood which depopulated Attica, it is generally supposed no king reigned over it till the time of Cecrops, the founder RIII FIGURATORY IN THE THE WATER AND TO CREEK IS A SPECIES OF JOURNAL OF THE ACT OF THE ments to students and professors.'-BERKELEY. thing can be founded without being erected; although some things may be erected without being expressly founded in the natural sense; a house is both founded jounces in the natural sense; a noise is both jounded and erected; a monument is erected but not jounded; so in the figurative sense, a college is founded and consequently erected; but a tribunal is erected, but not founded.

TO CONSTITUTE, APPOINT, DEPUTE.

To constitute, in Latin constitutus, participle of constituo, that is con and statuo to place together, signifies here to put or place for a specifick purpose, in which sense it is allied to appoint as explained under the head of allot, and also depute, which from the French deputer, Latin depute, compounded of de and pute to esteem or assign, signifies to assign a certain office to a

person.

The act of choosing some person or persons for an office, is comprehended under all these terms: to constitute is a more solemn act than appoint, and this than depute. To constitute is the act of a body; to appoint and depute, either of a body or an individual: a community constitutes any one their leader; a monarch appoints his ministers, an assembly deputes

some of its members. To constitute implies the act of making as well as choosing; the office as well as the person is new: in appointing, the person but not the office is new. A person may be constituted arbiter or judge as circumstances may require; a successor is appointed but not

constituted.

Whoever is constituted is invested with supreme authority derived from the highest sources of human Where there is no constituted judge, as between independent states there is not, the vicinage itself is the natural judge. Burke. Whoever is appointed derives his authority from the authority of others, and has consequently but limited power: no individual can appoint another with authority equal to his own. The conversions arginst Columbia, raised his own; 'The accusations against Columbus gained such credit in a jealous court, that a commissioner was appointed to repair to Hispaniola, and to inspect into his conduct.'—Robertson. Whoever is deputed has private and not publick authority; his office is partial, often confined to the particular transaction of an individual, or a body of individuals; 'If the Commons dis-agree to the amendments, a conference usually follows between members deputed from each house.'—Black-STONE. According to the Romish religion, the Pope is constituted supreme head of the Christian church throughout the whole world; governours are appointed to distant provinces, persons are deputed to present petitions or make representations to government.

It has been the fashion of the present day to speak contemptuously of all constituted authorities; the appointments made by government are a fruitful source of discontent for those who follow the trade of opposition: a busy multitude, when agitated by political discussions, are ever ready to form societies and send deputations, in order to communicate their wishes to

th ir rulers.

Ambassador is supposed to come from the low Latin ambasciator a waiter, although this does not accord with the high station which ambassadors have always held; envoy, from the French envoyer to send, signifies one sent; plenipotentiary, from the Latin plenus and potens, signifies one invested with full powers; deputy, signifies one deputed.

Ambassadors, envoys, and plenipotentiaries, speak and act in the name of their sovereigns, with this dif-ference, that the first are invested with the highest authority, acting in all cases as their representatives; the second appear only as simple authorized ministers acting for another, but not always representing him; the third are a species of envoy used by courts only on the occasion of concluding peace or making treaties: deputies are not deputed by sovereigns, although they may be deputed to sovereigns; they have no power to act or speak, but in the name of some subordinate com-munity, or particular body. The functions of the first three belong to the minister, those of the latter to the

agent.

An ambassador is a resident in a country during a state of peace; he must maintain the dignity of his court by a suitable degree of splendour; 'Prior continued to act without a title till the Duke of Shrewsbury returned next year to England, and then he assumed the style and dignity of an ambassador.'-Johnson. An envoy may be a resident, but he is more commonly employed on particular occasions; address in nego-tiating forms an essential in his character; 'We hear from Rome, by letters dated the 20th of April, that the count de Mellos, envoy from the king of Portugal, had made his publick entry into that city with much state and magnificence. — STEELE. A plenipotentiary is not so much connected with the court immediately, as with persons in the same capacity with himself; he requires to have integrity, coolness, penetration, loyalty, and patriotism; 'The conferences began at Utrecht on the 1st of January, 1711-12, and the English plenipotentiaist of January, triffig. and the Logistic Properties arrived on the filteenth.—Johnson. A deputy has little or no responsibility; and still less intercourse with those to whom he is deputed; he needs no more talent than is sufficient to maintain the respectability of his own character, and that of the body to which he be-longs; 'They add that the deputies of the Swiss cantons were returned from Soleure, where they were assembled at the instance of the French ambassador.'-STEELE.

DELEGATE, DEPUTY.

Delegate, in Latin delegatus, from delego, signifies one commissioned; deputy, in Latin deputatus, from deputo, signifies one to whom a business is assigned.

A delegate has a more active office than a deputy; he is appointed to execute some positive commission, and officiates in the place of another;

Elect by Jove, his delegate of sway With joyous pride the summons I'd ohey .- POPE.

A deputy may often serve only to supply the place or answer in the name of one who is absent; 'Every member (of parliament), though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned serves for the whole realm; and therefore he is not bound, like a deputy in the United Provinces, to consult with his constituents on any particular point.'-BLACKSTONE. Delegates are mostly appointed in publick transactions; deputies are chosen either in publick or private matters: delegates are chosen by particular bodies for purposes of negotia-tion either in regard to civil or political affairs; deputies are chosen either by individuals or small communities the Hans towns in Germany used formerly to send delegates to the Diet at Ratisbon;

Let chosen delegates this hour be sent, Myself will name them, to Pelides' tent .- Pope.

When Calais was going to surrender to Edward HI. King of England, deputies were sent from the towns-men to implore his mercy: 'The assembling of persons deputed from people at great distances is a tronole to them that are sent and a charge to them that send, TEMPLE. Delegate is sometimes also used figuratively in the same sense:

But this
And all the much transported muse can sing,
Are to thy beauty, dignity, and use,
Unequal far, great delegrated source
Of light, and life, and grace, and joy below.
Thomson.

Deputy is also extended in its application to other objects; He exerciseth dominion over them as the vice-gerent and deputy of Almighty God.—Hale.

TO NEGOTIATE, TREAT FOR OR ABOUT, TRANSACT.

The idea of conducting business with others is included in the signification of all these terms; but they differ in the mode of conducting it, and the nature of the business to be conducted. Negatiate, in the Latin negotiatus, participle of negotion, from negotium, is applied in the original mostly to merchandise or traffick, but it is now more commonly employed in the complicated concerns of governments and nations. Treat, from the Latin tracto, frequentative of traho to draw, signifies to turn over and over or set forth in all ways these two verbs, therefore, suppose deliberation: but transact, from transactus, participle of transago, to carry forward or bring to an end, supposes more direct agency than consultation or deliberation; this latter is therefore adapted to the more ordinary and less entangled concerns of commerce. Negotiations are com-ducted by many parties, and involve questions of peace or war, dominious, territories, rights of nations, and the like; 'I do not love to mingle speech with any about news or worldly negotiations in God's holy house.'—Howel. Treaties are often a part of negotiations; they are seldom conducted by more than two parties, and involve only partial questions, as in treaties about peace, about commerce, about the boundaries of any particular state, or between families about domestick concerns; 'You have a great work in hand, for you write to me that you are upon a treaty of marriage Howel. A congress carries on negotiations for the establishment of good order among the ruling powers of Europe; individual states treat with each other, to settle their particular differences. To negotiate mostly respects political concerns, except in the case of negotiating bills: to treat, as well as transact, is said of domestick and private concerns: we treat with a person about the purchase of a house; we transact business with a person either by paying or receiving money, or in any matter of mutual interest; 'We are permitted to know nothing of what is transacting in the regions above us.'-BLAIR.

As nouns, negotiation expresses rather the act of deliberating than the thing deliberated: treaty includes the ideas of the terms proposed, and the arrangement of those terms: transaction expresses the idea of something actually done and finished, and in that sense may often be the result of a negotiation or treaty; 'It is not the purpose of this discourse to set down the particular transactions of this treaty.'-CLARENDON. Negotiations are sometimes very long pending before the preliminary terms are even proposed, or any basis is defined; treaties of commerce are entered into by all civilized countries, in order to obviate misunderstandings, and enable them to preserve an amicable intercourse; the transactions which daily pass in a great metropolis, like that of London, are of so multifarious a nature, and so infinitely numerous, that the bare contemplation of them fills the mind with astonishment. Negotiations are long or short; treaties are advantageous or the contrary; transactions are honourable or dishonourable.

MISSION, MESSAGE, ERRAND.

Message, from the Latin missus, participle of mitto to send, signifies the thing for which one is sent; mission, signifies the state of being sent, or thing for which one is sent; errand, from erro to wander, or go to a distance, signifies the thing for which one goes to a distance.

Between mission and message the difference consists as much in the application as the sense. The mission is always a subject of importance, and the situation one oftrust and authority, whence it is with propriety apblied to our Saviour; Her son tracing the desert wild,
All his great work to come before him set,
How to begin, how to accomplish best,
His end of being on earth, and mission high.

The subject of a message is of inferiour importance, and is commonly intrusted to inferiour persons.

The message is properly any communication which is conveyed; the errand sent from one person to another is that which causes one to go: servants are the bearers of messages, and are sent on various errands. The message may be either verbal or written; the errand is limited to no form, and to no circumstance: one delivers the message, and goes the errand. Sometimes the message may be the errand, and the errand may include the message: when that which is sent consists of a notice or intimation to another, it is a message; and if that causes any one to go to a place, it is an errand: thus it is that the greater part of errands consist of sending messages from one person to another. Both the terms message and errand are employed by the poets in reference to higher objects, but they preserve the same distinction;

The scenes where ancient bards th' inspiring breath Ecstatick felt, and, from this world retir'd, Convers'd with angels and immortal forms, On gracious errands bent.—Thomson.

Sometimes, from her eyes, I did receive fair speechless mesgages. Shakspeare.

MINISTER, AGENT.

Minister comes from minus less, as magister comes from magis more; the one being less, and the other greater, than others: the minister, therefore, is literally one that acts in a subordinate capacity; and the agent, from ago to act, is the one that takes the acting part they both perform the will of another, but the minister gives his counsel, and exerts his intellectual powers in the service of another; but the agent executes the orders or commission given him: a minister is employed by government in political affairs; an agent is employed by dividuals in commercial and pecuniary affairs, or by government in a subordinate matters: a minister is received at court, and serves as a representative for his government; an agent generally acts under the directions of the minister or some officer of government: ambassadors or plenipotentiaries, or the first officers of the state, are ministers; but those who regulate the affairs respecting prisoners, the police, and the like, are termed agents.

FORERUNNER, PRECURSOR, MESSENGER, HARBINGER.

Forerunner and precursor signify literally the same thing, namely, one running before; but the term forerunner is properly applied only to one who runs before to any spot to communicate intelligence; and it is figuratively applied to things which in their nature, or from a natural connexion, precede others; precursor is only employed in this figurative sense: thus imprudent speculations are said to be the forerunners of a man's ruin; 'Loss of sight is the misery of life, and usually the forerunner of death.'—Sourh. The ferment which took place in men's minds was the precursor of the Prench revolution, 'Gospeller was a name of contempt given by the papists to the Lollards, the puritans of early times, and the precursors of protestantism.'—Johnsson.

Messenger signifies literally one bearing messages: and harbinger, from the Teutonick herbinger, signifies a provider of a herbege or inn for princes. Both terms are employed for persons: but the messenger states what has been or is; the harbinger an-

Both terms are employed for persons: but the messenger states what has been or is; the harbinger announces what is to be. Our Saviour was the messenger of glad tidings to all mankind; the prophets were the harbingers of the Messiah. A messenger may be employed on different offices: a harbinger is a messenger who acts in a specifick office. The angels are represented as messengers on different occasions;

His words are bonds, his oaths are oracles,
His tears pure messengers sent from his heart
SHAKSPEARE.

John the Baptist was the harbinger of our Saviour, | account, it becomes a question of some importance to who prepared the way of the Loui;

Sin, and her shadow death; and misery, Death's harbinger. - MILTON.

TO INTERCEDE, INTERPOSE, MEDIATE, IN-TERFERE, INTERMEDDLE.

Intercede signifies literally going between; interpose, placing one's self between; mediate, coming in the middle; interfere, setting one's self between; and intermeddle, meddling or mixing among.

One intercedes between parties that are unequal; one interposes between parties that are equal; one intercedes in favour of that party which is threatened with punishment; one interpasses between parties that threaten each other with evil: we intercede with the parent in favour of the child who has offended, in order to obtain pardon for him; one interposes between two friends who are disputing, to prevent them from going to extremities. One interedes by means of persuasion; it is an act of courtesy or kindness in the interceded party to comply: one interposes by an exercise of authority; it is a matter of propriety or necessity in the parties to conform. The favourite of a monarch intercedes in behalf of some criminal, that his punishment may be mitigated; 'Virgil recovered his estate by Maccenas's intercession.'—DRYDEN. The magistrates interpose with their authority, to prevent the broils of the disorderly from coming to serious acts of violence:

Those few you see escap'd the storm, and fear,

Unless you interpose, a shipwreck here. - DRYDEN. To mediate and intercede are both conciliatory acts; the intercessor and mediator are equals or even inferiours; to interpose is an act of authority, and belongs most commonly to a superiour: one intercedes or inter-poses for the removal of evil; one mediates for the attainment of good: Christ is our Intercessor, to avert from us the consequences of our guilt; he is our Mediator, to obtain for us the blessings of grace and salvation. An intercessor only pleads: a mediator guarantees; he takes upon himself a responsibility. Christ is our *Intercessor*, by virtue of his relationship with the Father: he is our *Mediator*, by virtue of his atonement; by which act he takes upon himself the sins of all who are truly penitent.

To intercede, and interpose are employed on the highest and lowest occasions; to mediate is never employed but in matters of the greatest moment. As earthly offenders we require the intercession of a fellow mortal; as offenders against the God of Heaven, we require the intercession of a Divine Being: without the timely interposition of a superiour, trifling disputes may grow into bloody quariels; without the inter-position of Divine Providence, we cannot conceive of any thing important as taking place; to settle the affairs of nations, mediators may afford a salutary assistance; 'It is generally better (in negotiating) to deal by speech than by letter, and by the mediation of a third than by a man's self.'—BACON. To bring about the redemption of a lost world, the Son of God condescended to be Mediator.

All these acts are performed for the good of others; but interfere and intermeddle are of a different description: one may interfere for the good of others, or to gratify one's self; one never intermedales but for selfish purposes: the first three terms are, therefore, always used in a good sense; the fourth in a good or bad sense, according to circumstances; the last always in a bad sense.

To interfere has nothing conciliating in it like intercede, nothing authoritative in it like interpose, nothing responsible in it like mediate; it may be useful, noningaresponsible in it like mediate; it may be useful, or it may be injurious; it may be authorized or unauthorized; it may be necessary, or altogether impertinent: when we interfere so as to make peace between men, it is useful: but when we interfere intersonably, it often occasions differences rather than removes them; 'Religion interferes not with any rational pleasure.'—South

Intercede, and the other terms, are used in cases where two or more parties are concerned; but interfere and intermeddle are said of what concerns only one individual; one interferes and intermeddles rather in

decide when we ought to interfere in the affairs of another: with regard to intermedule, it always is the unauthorized act of one who is busy in things that ought not to concern him; 'The sight intermeddles not with that which affects the smell.'-South.

INTERMEDIATE, INTERVENING.

Intermediate signifies being in the midst, between two objects; intervening signifies coming between, the former is applicable to space and time; the latter either to time or circumstances.

The intermediate time between the commencement and the termination of a truce is occupied with pre-parations for the renewal of hostilities; 'A right opinion is that which connects truth by the shortest train of intermediate propositions.'—Johnson. Intertrain of intermediate propositions.—Johnson. Intervening circumstances sometimes change the views of the beligerent parties, and dispose their minds to peace; 'Hardly would any transient gleams of intervening joy be able to force its way through the clouds, successive scenes of distress through which we are to pass were laid before our view.'-BLAIR

INTERVENTION, INTERPOSITION.

The intervention, from inter between, and vento to The intervention, from inter between, and veno to come, is said of inanimate objects; the interposition, from inter between, and pono to place, is said only of rational agents. The light of the moon is obstructed by the intervention of the clouds; the life of an individual is preserved by the interposition of a superiour: human life is so full of contingencies, that when we have formed our projects we can never say what may intervene to prevent their execution; 'Reflect also on the calamitous intervention of picture cleaners (to originals).—BARRY. When a man is engaged in an unequal combat, he has no chance of escaping but by the timely interposition of one who is able to rescue

Death ready stands to interpose his dart.'-MILTON.

TO BIND, OBLIGE, ENGAGE

Bind, through the medium of the northern languages, comes from the Latin vincio, and the Greek $\sigma\phi(\gamma\gamma\omega)$; to oblige, in French obliger, Latin obligo, compounded of ob and ligo, signifies to tie up; engage, in French engager, compounded of en or in and gage a pledge, signifies to bind by means of a pledge.

Bind is more forcible and coercive than obliges; oblige than engage. We are bound by an oath, obliged by circumstances, and engaged by promises.

Conscience binds, prudence or necessity obliges, honour and principle engage. A patent is bound no less by the law of his conscience, than by those of the community to which he belongs, to provide for his helpless offspring. Politeness obliges men of the world to preserve a friendly exteriour towards those for whom they have no regard. When we are engaged in the service of our king and country, we cannot shrink from our duty without exposing ourselves to the infamy oa all the world.

We bind a man by fear of what may befall him; we oblige him by some immediately urgent motive; we engage him by alluring offers, and the prospect of gain. A debtor is bound to pay by virtue of a written instrument in law

Who can be bound by any solemn vow, To do a n.urd'rous deed ?- SHAKSPEARE.

He is obliged to pay in consequence of the importu nate demands of the creditor; 'No man is commanded or obliged to obey beyond his power.'-South. He is of obtained to oney beyond his power.—South. We is engaged to pay in consequence of a pennise given; 'While the Israelites were appearing in Sou's house, Ged himself engages to keep and defend theirs'—South. A bond is the strickst deed in kaw; an abbit gation hinds under pain of a pecuniary lose; as engagement is mostly werbal, and rests entirely on the rectitude of the parties.

TO BIND, TIE.

Bind, in Saxon binden, German, &c binier, comes the concern, than between the persons; and, on that from the Latin vincio, Greek σψήγω, cut : 'the concern with the word wind: tie, in Saxon tian, is very propably connected with the low German tehen, high German ziehen to draw, the English tug or tow, and the

Latin duce to draw

The species of fastening denoted by these two words differ both in manner and degree. Binding is performed by circumvolution round a body; tying, by involution within itself. Some bodies are bound without being tied; others are tied without being bound: a wounded leg is bound but not tied;

Now are our brows bound with victorious wreaths, Our stern alarms are chang'd to merry meetings. SHAKSPEARE.

A string is tied but not bound;

A fluttering dove upon the top they tie, The living mark at which their arrows fly

A riband may sometimes be bound round the head, and tied under the chin. Binding therefore serves to keep several things in a compact form together; tying may serve to prevent one single body separating from another: a criminal is bound hand and foot; he is tied to a stake.

Binding and tying likewise differ in degree; binding serves to produce adhesion in all the parts of a hody; tying only to produce contact in a single part; thus when the hair is bound, it is almost enclosed in an envelope: when it is tied with a string, the ends are

left to hang loose.

A similar distinction is preserved in the figurative use of the terms. A bond of union is applicable to a large body with many component parts; a tie of affection marks an adhesion between individual minds;

As nature's ties decay : As duty, love, and honour fail to sway Fictitious bonds, the bonds of wealth and law, Still gather strength, and force unwilling awe. GOLDSMITH.

CHAIN, FETTER, BAND, SHACKLE.

Chain, in French chaine, Latin catena, probably Chain, In French chaine, Latin catena, probably contracted from captena, comes from capio, signifying that which takes or holds; fetter, in German fessel, comes from fassen to lay hold of; band, from bind, signifies that which binds; shackle, in Saxon seaeud, from shake, signifies that which makes a creature shake or move irregularly by confining the legs.

All these terms designed the legs.

All these terms designate the instrument by which animals or men are confined. Chain is general and indefinite; all the rest are species of chains; but there are many chains which do not come under the other names; a chain is indefinite as to its make; it other names; a chain is indefinite as or is made; it is made generally of iron rings, but of different sizes and shapes: fetters are larger, they consist of many stout chains: bands are in general any thing which confines the body or the limbs; they may be either chains or even cords: shackle is that species of chain. which goes on the legs to confine them; malefactors of the worst order have fetters on different parts of

their bodies, and shackles on their legs.

These terms may all be used figuratively. The substantive chain is applied to whatever hangs together like a chain, as a chain of events; but the verb to chain signifies to confine as with a chain: thus the mind is chained to rules, according to the opinions of the free-thinkers, when men adhere strictly to rule and order; and to represent the slavery of conforming to the establishment, they tell us we are fettered by

systems:

Almighty wisdom never acts in vain, Nor shall the soul, on which it has bestow'd Such powers, e'er perish like an earthly clod; But purg'd at length from foul corruption's stain, Freed from her prison and unbound her ch un, She shall her native strength and native skies regain.

'Legislators have no rule to bind them but the great principles of justice and equity. These they are bound to obey and follow; and rather to enlarge and enlighten law by the liberality of legislative reason than to fetter their higher capacity by the narrow constructions of subordinate artificial justice. Beerg Band in the figurative sense is applied, particularly in

poetry, to every thing which is supposed to serve the purpose of a band; thus love is said to have us silken

Break his bands of sleep asunder, And rouse him like a rattling peal of thunder.

Shackle, whether as a substantive or a verb, retains the idea of controlling the movements of the person, not in his body only, but also in his mind and in his moral conduct; thus, a man who commences life with a borrowed capital is shackled in his commercial concerns by the interest he has to pay, and the obligations he has to discharge; 'It is the freedom of the spirit that gives worth and life to the performance. But a servant commonly is less free in mind than in condition; his very will seems to be in bonds and shackles.'-SOUTH.

DEBT, DUE.

Debt and due are both derived from the same verb. Debt comes from debitus, participle of the Latin verb debeo: and due, in French du, participle of devoir comes likewise from debeo to owe.

Debt is used always as a substantive; due, either as a substantive or an adjective. A person contracts debts, and receives his due. The debt is both obligatory and compulsory; it is a return for something equivalent in value, and cannot be dispensed with: what is due is obligatory, but not always compulsory. A debtor may be compelled to discharge his debts; but A dector may be compelled to discharge his dects; but it is not always in the power of a man even to claim that which is his due. Debt is generally used in a mercantile sense; due either in a mercantile or moral sense. A debt is determined by law: what is due is fixed often by principles of equity and honour. He who receives the stipulated price of his goods receives his debt; he who receives a reasonable when the state of the sta his debt; he who receives praise and honour, as a reward of good actions, receives his due:

The ghosts rejected are th' unhappy crew, Depriv'd of sepulchres and fun'ral due.

Debt may sometimes be used figuratively, as, to pay the debt of nature; 'Though Christ was as pure and undefiled, without the least spot of sin, as purity and innocence itself; yet he was pleased to make himself the greatest, sinner in the world by imputation, and reader himself a surety responsible for any state. render himself a surety responsible for our debts SOUTH.

PROMISE, ENGAGEMENT, WORD.

Promise, in Latin promissus, from promitto, com pounded of pro before, and mitto to set or fix, that is, to fix beforehand; engagement is that which engages a person, or places him under an engagement; word, that is, the word given.

The promise is specifick, and consequently more binding than the engagement: we promise a thing in a set form of words, that are clearly and strictly understood; we engage in general terms, that may admit of alteration: a promise is mostly unconditional; an en gagement is frequently conditional. In promises the faith of an individual is admitted upon his word, and built upon as if it were a deed; in engagements the intentions of an individual for the future are all that are either implied or understood: on the fulfilment of promises often depend the most important interests of individuals; 'An acre of performance is worth the whole world of promise.'—Howel. An attention to engagements is a matter of mutual convenience in the engagements is a matter of indicate convenients. I had to ordinary concerns of life; 'The engagements I had to Dr. Swift were such as the actual services he had done me, in relation to the subscription for Homer, obliged me to.'-Pope. A man makes a promose of payment, and upon his promise it may happen that many others depend upon the fulfilment of their pro mises; when engagements are made to visit or meet others, an inattention to such engagements causes great trouble. As a promise and engagement can be made only by words, the word is often put for either, or for bo h, as the case requires the who breaks his word in small matters cannot be trusted when he gives his word in matters of consequence:

Æneas was our prince, a juster lord, Or nobler warriour, never drew a sword; Observant of the right, religious of his word. DRYDEN.

TO IMPLICATE, INVOLVE.

Implicate, from plico to fold, denotes to fold into a thing; and involve, from volvo to roll, signifies to roll into a thing: by which explanation we perceive, that to implicate marks something less entangled than to involve: for that which is folded may be folded only once, but that which is rolled, is rolled many times In application therefore to human affairs, people are said to be implicated who have taken ever so small a share in a transaction; but they are involved only when they are deeply concerned; the former is likewise especially applied to criminal transactions, the latter to those things which are in themselves troublesome: thus a man is implicated in the guilt of robbery, who should stand by and see it done, without interfering for its prevention; as law-suits are of all things the most intricate and harassing, he who is engaged in one is said to be involved in it, or he who is in debt in every direction is strictly said to be involved in debt;
'Those who cultivate the memory of our Revolution,
will take care how they are involved with persons who, under pretext of zeal towards the Revolution and constitution, frequently wander from their true princi-ples.'—BURKE. When implication is derived from the verb imply, signifying the act of implying, it de-parts altogether from the meaning of involve; 'That parts altogether from the meaning of involve; 'That which can exalt a wife only by degrading a husband, will appear on the whole not worth the acquisition, even though it could be made without provoking jealousy by the implication of contempt."—HAWKES-WORTH.

TO DISENGAGE, DISENTANGLE, EXTRICATE.

To disengage is to make free from an engagement; disentangle to get rid of an entanglement; extricate, in Latin extricatus, from ex and trica a hair, or noose, signifies to get as it were out of a noose. As to engage signifies simply to bind, and entangle signifies to bind in an involved manner; to disentangle is naturally applied to matters of greater difficulty and perplexity than to disenguge: and as the term extricate includes the idea of that which would hold fast and keep within a tight involvement, it is employed with re spect to matters of the greatest possible embarrassment and intricacy. We may be disengaged from an oath; disentangled from pecuniary difficulties; extricated from a suit at law: it is not right to expect to be disengaged from all the duties which attach to men as members of society; 'In old age the voice of nature calls you to leave to others the bustle and contest of the world, and gradually to disengage yourself from a burden which begins to exceed your strength.'—
BLAIR. He who enters into disputes about contested property must not expect to be soon disentangled from property must not expect to be soon attentanger from the law; 'Savage seldom appeared to be melancholy but when some sudden misfortune had fallen upon him, and even then in a few moments he would disentangle himself from his perpiexity.'—Johnson. When a general has committed himself by coming into too close a contact with a very superiour force, he may think himself fortunate if he can extricate himself from his awkward situation with the loss of half his army; 'Nature felt its inability to extricate itself from the consequences of guilt; the Gospel reveals the plan of Divine interposition and aid. BLAIR.

TO UNFOLD, UNRAVEL, DEVELOPE.

To unfold is to open that which has been folded; to unravel is to open that which has been ravelled or to unravee is to open that which has been wrapped in an ennelope. The application of these terms therefore to moral objects is obvious: what has been folded and kept secret is unfolded; in this manner a hidden transaction is unfolded, by being related circumstantially;

And to the sage-instructing eye unfold The various twine of light.—Thomson.

What has been entangled in any mystery or confusion is unravelled: in this manner a mysterious transaction is unravelled, if every circumstance is fully accounted for; You must be sure to unravel all your designs to a jealous man.—Addison. What has been wrapped up so as to be entirely shut out from view is developed; in this manner the plot of a play or novel, or the character and talent of a person, are developed; 'The character of Tiberius is extremely difficult to develope CUMBERLAND.

COMPLEXITY, COMPLICATION, INTRICACY.

Complexity and complication, in French complicacomplexity and complete tion, Latin complete tion, Latin complete tion, and complete a folding one within another; intricacy, in Latin intricatio and intrico, compounded of in and trice or trices, the small hairs which are used to ensare birds, signifies a state of entanglement by means of many involutions.

Complexity expresses the abstract quality or state; complication the act: they both convey less than intri-

complication the act: they both convey less than increacy; intricate is that which is very complicated.

Complexity arises from a multitude of objects, and the nature of these objects; complication from an involvement of objects; and intricacy from a winding and confused involution. What is complex must be decomposed; what is complicated must be developed; what is intricate must be unravelled. A proposition is complex; affairs are complicated; the law is intricate

Complexity puzzles; complication confounds; intra-cacy bewilders. A clear head is requisite for under-standing the complex; keenness and penetration are required to lay open that which is complicated; a comprehensive mind, coupled with coolness and per-severance of research, are essential to disentangle the A copmlex system may have every perfecintricate. tion but the one that is requisite, namely, a fitness to be reduced to practice. Complicated schemes of villany commonly frustrate themselves. They require unity of design among too many individuals of different stations, interests, and vices, to allow of frequent success with such heterogeneous combinations. of the law is but the natural attendant on human affairs; every question admits of different illustrations as to their causes, consequences, analogies, and bearings; it is likewise dependent on so many cases infi nigs, it is increase dependent on so many cases intimitely ramified as to impede the exercise of the judgement in the act of deciding.

The complexity of the subject often deters young persons from application to their business;

Through the disclosing deep Light my blind way; the mineral strata there Thrust blooming, thence the vegetable world; O'er that the rising system more complex Of animals, and higher still the mind.

There is nothing embarrasses a physician more than a complication of disorders, where the remedy for one impedes the cure for the other; 'Every living creature, considered in itself, has many very complicated parts that are exact copies of some other parts which it possesses, and which are complicated in the same manner.

-Addison. Some affairs are involved in such a degree of intricacy, as to exhaust the patience and perseverance of the most laborious; 'When the mind, by insensible degrees, has brought itself to attention and close thinking it will be able to see with 400 cm. close thinking, it will be able to cope with difficulties Every abstruse problem, every intricate question, will not baffle or break it.'—Locke.

COMPOUND, COMPLEX.

Compound comes from the present of compone, as compose (v. To compose) comes from composus the pretente of the same verb; complex (v. Complexity).

The compound consist of similar and whole bodies

put together; the complex consists of various parts linked together: adhesion is sufficient to constitute a compound; involution is requisite for the complex. We distinguish the wholes that form the compound; we separate the parts that form the compound; what is compound may consist only of two; what is complex consists always of several. Compound and complex are both commonly opposed to the simple, but the former may be opposed to the single, and the latter to the simple. Words are compound, sentences are complex; 'Inasmuch as man is a compound and a mixture of flesh as well as spirit, the soul during its abode in the body does all things by the mediation of these passions, and interiour affections.'—SOUTH.

With such perfection fram'd, Is this complex stupendous scheme of things. Thomson.

TO COMPOUND, COMPOSE

Compound (c. Compound) is used in the physical sense only; compose in the proper or the moral sense. Words are compounded by making two or more into one; sentences are composed by putting words together so as to make sense. A medicine is compounded of many ingredients; society is composed of various classes; 'The simple beauties of nature, if they cannot be multiplied, may be compounded.'—Batturst: 'The heathens, ignorant of the true source of moral evil, generally charged it on the obliquity of matter. This notion, as most others of theirs, is a composition of truth and errour.'—Grove.

TO COMPEL, FORCE, OBLIGE, NECESSITATE,

Compel, Latin compello or pello to drive, signifies to drive for a specifick purpose or to a point; force, in French force, comes from the Latin fortis strong; force being nothing but the exertion of strength; oblige, in French obliger, Latin obligo, compounded of ob and Ugo, signifies to bind down. These three terms mark an external action on the will, but compel expresses more than oblige, and less than force. Necessitate is to make necessary.

Compel and force act much more directly and positively than oblige or necessitate; and the latter indicates more of physical strength than the former. We are compelled by outward or inward motives; we are obliged more by motives than any thing else; we are forced sometimes by circumstances, though oftener by plain strength; we are necessitated solely by circumstances. An adversary is compelled to yield who resigns from despair of victory; he is forced to yield if he stand in fear of his life; he is obliged to yield if he cannot withstand the entreaties of his friends; he is necessitated to yield if he want the strength to continue the contest.

An obstinate person must be compelled to give up his point;

You will compel me then to read the will.

SHAKSPEARE.

A turbulent and disorderly man must be forced to go where the officers of justice choose to lead him;

With fates averse, the rout in arms resort
To force their monarch, and insult the court.

DRYDEN.

An unreasonable person must be obliged to satisfy a ust demand; 'He that once owes more than he can pay is often obliged to bribe his creditors to patience, by increasing his debt."—Johnson. We are all occasionally necessitated to do that which is not agreeable to us; 'I have sometimes fancied that women have not a retentive power, or the faculty of suppressing their thoughts, but that they are necessitated to speak every think they think."—Addison.

thing they think."—Addison.

Pecuniary want compels men to do many things inconsistent with their station;

He would the ghosts of slaughter'd soldiers call, These his dread wands did to short life compet, And forc'd the fate of battles to foretell.—DRYDEN.

Honour and religion oblige men scrupulously to observe their word one to another; 'The church hath been thought fit to be called Catholick, in reference to the universal obedience which it prescribeth; both in respect of the persons obliging men of all conditions; and in relation to the precepts requiring the performance of all the evangelical commands.'—PEARSON. Hunger forces men to eat that which is most loathsome to the patate. The ferr of a loss necessitates a man to give up a favourite project.

FORCE, VIOLENCE

Force signifies here the exertion of strength in a particular manner, which brings it very near to the meaning of violence, which, from the Latin violentia and visforce, comes from the Greek βia strength.

Force, which expresses a much less degree of exertion than violence, is ordinarily employed to supply the want of a proper will, violence is used to counteract an opposing will. The arm of justice must exercise force in order to bring offenders to a proper account; one nation exercises violence against another in the act of carrying on war. Force is mostly conformable to reason and equity, or employed in self defence;

Our host expell'd, what farther force can stay The victor troops from universal sway? DRYDEN

Fiolence is always resorted to for the attainment of that which is unattainable by law; 'He sees his dis tress to be the immediate effect of human violence or oppression; and is obliged at the same time to consider it as a Divine judgement."—BLAIR. All who are invested with authority have occasion to use force at certain times to subdue the unruly will of those who should submit: violence and rapine are inseparable companions; a robber could not subsist by the latter without exercising the former.

In an extended and figurative application to things, these terms convey the same general idea of exerting strength. That is said to have force that acts with force; and that to have violence that acts with violence. A word, an expression, or a remark, has force or is forcible; a disorder, a passion, a sentiment, has violence or is violent. Force is always something desirable; violence is always something desirable violence is always something hartful. We ought to listen to arguments which have force in them; we endeavour to correct the violence of all angry passions.

VIOLENT, FURIOUS, BOISTEROUS, VEHE MENT, IMPETUOUS.

Violent signifies having force; furious having fury, baisterous in all probability comes from bestir, signifying ready to bestir or come into motion; whement, in Latin nehemens, compounded of veho and mens, signifies carried away by the mind or the force of passion; impetuous, that is, having an impetus.

Violent is here the most general term, including the idea of force or violence, which is common to them all; it is as general in its application as in its meaning. When violent and furious are applied to the same objects, the latter expresses a higher degree of the former: thus a furious temper is violent to an excessive degree; a furious whirlwind is violent beyond measure;

The furious pard,
Cow'd and subdu'd, flies from the face of man.
Somerville.

Violent and boisterous are likewise applied to the same objects; but the boisterous refers only to the violence of the motion or noise; hence we say that a wind is violent, inasmuch as it acts with great force upon all bodies; it is boisterous, inasmuch as it causes the great motion of bodies: a violent person deals in violence of every kind; a boisterous person is full of violent action:

Ye too, ye winds! that now begin to blow With boisterous sweep, I raise my voice to you. Thomson.

Violent, vehement, and impetuous, are all applied to persons, or that which is personal: a man is violent in his opinions, violent in his neasures, violent in his resentments; 'This gentleman (Mr. Steele) among a thousand others, is a great instance of the fate of all who are carried away by party spirit of any side; I wish all violence may succeed as ill.'—Pore. He is vehement in his affections or passions, vehement in love, vehement in zeal, vehement in pursuing an object, vehement in zeal, vehement in pursuing an object, vehement in zeal, vehement in be any use of gesticu lation, it must be applied to the ignorant and rude, who will be more affected by vehemene than delighted by propriety.'—Johnson. Violence transfers itself to some external object on which it acts with force; but vehemence respects that species of vuolence which is con-

fined to the person himself: we may dread violence, because it is always liable to do mischief; we ought to suppress our vehemence, because it is injurious to oursuppress our veaemence, pecause it is injurious to our-selves; a violent partisan renders himself obnoxious to others; a man who is nehement in any cause puts it out of his own power to be of use. Impetuosity is rather the extreme of violence or vehemence; an im-petuous attack is an excessively violent attack; an impetuous character is an excessively vehement character:

The central waters round impetuous rush'd.

BUSTLE, TUMULT, UPROAR.

Bustle is probably a frequentative of busy; tumult, in French tumulte, Latin tumultus, compounded pro-bably of tumor multus, signifies much swelling and perturbation; uprour, compounded of up and rour, marks the act of setting up a roar or clamour, or the state of its being so set up.

Bustle has most of hurry in it; tumult most of dis-

order and confusion; uproar most of noise.

The hurried movements of one, or many, cause a bustle; disorderly struggles of many constitute a tumult; the loud elevation of many opposing voices pro-

duces an uproar.

Bustle is frequently not the effect of design, but the natural consequence of many persons coming together; 'They who live in the bustle of the world are not, perhaps, the most accurate observers of the progressive change of manners in that society in which they pass their time. — ABERCROMBY. Tumult commonly arises from a general effervescence in the minds of a multitude :

Outlaws of nature! yet the great must use 'em Sometimes as necessary tools of tumult.-DRYDEN. Uproar is the consequence either of general anger or mirth; 'Amid the uproar of other bad passions, conscience acts as a restraining power.'—BLAIR.

A crowded street will always be in a bustle. tested elections are always accompanied with great tumult. Drinking parties make a considerable uproar, in the indulgence of their intemperate mirth.

TO COERCE, RESTRAIN.

Coerce, in Latin coerceo, that is, con and arcco, signifies to drive into conformity with any portion or thing; restrain, in Latin restringo, i.e. re and stringo, signifies to bind hard.

Coercion is a species of restraint: we always restrain or intend to restrain when we coerce; but we do not always coerce when we restrain: coercion always comprehends the idea of force, restraint that of simply keeping under or back: coercion is always an external application; restraint either external or internal: a person is coerced by others only; he may be restrained by himself as well as others.

Coercion acts by a direct application, it opposes force to resistance; restraint acts indirectly to the preven-tion of an act; the law restrains all men in their actions more or less; it coerces those who attempt to violate it; the unruly will is coerced; the improper will is restrained; coercion is exercised; restraint is imposed; punishment, threats, or any actual exercise of authority, coerces; 'Without coercine power all government is but toothless and precarious, and does not so much command as beg obedience. —South. Fear, shame, or a remonstrance from others, restrains; The enmity of some men against goodness is so vio lent and implacable, that no innocency, no excellence of goodness, how great soever, can restrain their ma lice."—Tillotson 'The innovators of the present age are for having all coercion laid aside in the management of children, in lieu of which a system of reasoning is to be adopted; could they pessade the world to adopt their fanciful scheme, we may next expect to hear that all restraint on the inclinations ought to be laid aside as an infringement of personal liberty.

COGENT, FORCIBLE, STRONG.

Cogent, from the Latin cago to compel; and forcible, from the verb to force, have equally the sense of acting by force; strong is here figuratively employed

for that species of strength which is connected with the mind.

Cogency applies to reasons individually considered: force and strength to modes of reasoning or expression: cogent reasons impel to decisive conduct; strong conviction is produced by forcible reasoning conveyed tonviction is produced by procedures as soming conveyed in strong language: changes of any kind are so seldom attended with benefit to society, that a legislator will be cautious not to adopt them without the most cogent reasons; 'Upon men intent only upon truth, the art of an orator has little power; a credible testimony, or a cogent argument, will overcome all the art of modulation and all the violence of contortion.'-Johnson The important truths of Christianity cannot be presented from the pulpit too forcibly to the minds of men; 'The ingenious author just mentioned, assured me that the Turkish satires of Ruhi Bag dadi were very forcible.'—Sir W M. JONES.

Accuracy and strength are seldom associated in the same mind; those who accustom themselves to strong language are not very scannalisms shout the corrections.

language are not very scrupulous about the correctness of their assertions; 'Such is the censure of Dennis. There is, as Dryden expresses it, perhaps "too much horse-play in his raillery;" but if his jests are coarse his arguments are strong.'—Johnson.

CONSTRAINT, COMPULSION.

Constraint, from constrain, Latin constringo, compounded of con and stringo, signifies the act of straining or tying together; compulsion signifies the act of compelling.

There is much of binding in constraint; of vio-There is mount of obtaining in constraint; of violence in computation; constraint prevents from acting agreeably to the will: computation forces to act contrary to the will: a soldier in the ranks moves with much constraint, and is often subject to much computation to make him move as is desired. Constraint may arise from outward circumstances; compulsion is always produced by some active agent: the forms of civil society lay a proper constraint upon the behaviour of men so as to render them agreeable to each other:

Commands are no constraints. If I obey them I do it freely .- MILTON.

The arm of the civil power must ever be ready to compel those who will not submit without compulsion: 'Savage declared that it was not his design to fly from justice; that he intended to have appeared (to appear) at the bar without compulsion. Johnson. In the moments of relaxation, the actions of children should be as free from constraint as possible, which is one means of lessening the necessity for compulsion when they are called to the performance of their duty.

CONSTRAINT, RESTRAINT, RESTRICTION

The meaning of constraint is given in the preceding article; that of restraint as given under To coerce, restrain; restriction is but a variation of restraint. Constraint respects the movements of the body only; restraint those of the mind and the outward actions: when they both refer to the outward actions, we say a person's behaviour is constrained; his feel ings are restrained: he is constrained to act or not to act, or to act in a certain manner; he is restrained from acting at all, if not from feeling: the conduct is constrained by certain prescribed rules, by discipline and order; it is restrained by particular motives whoever learns a mechanical exercise is constrained to move his body in a certain direction; the fear of de tection often restrains persons from the commission of

vices more than any sense of their enormity.

The behaviour of children must be more constrained in the presence of their superiours than when they are by themselves the angry passions should at all times be restrained. A person who is in the slightest degree constrained to do a good action, does good only by halves; 'When from constraint only the offices of halves; 'When from constraint only the offices of seeming kundness are performed, little dependence can be placed on them.'—BLAIR. The incodinate passions and propensities of men are restrained by nothing so effectually as religion; 'What restraints do they lie under who have no regards beyond the grave!"—BERRELEY. Whoever is restrained by shame only may seek gratification under the shelter of conceal-

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Restrain and restrict, though but variations from the same verb, have acquired a distinct acceptation: the former applies to the desires, as well as the outward conduct; the latter only to the outward conduct. A preson restrains his inordinate appetite; or he is restrained by others from doing mischief; he is restricted in the use of his money. Restrain is an act of power; but restrict is an act of authority or law: the will or the actions of a child are restrained by the parent;

Tully, whose powerful eloquence awhile Restrain'd the rapid fate of rushing Rome.

THOMSON.

A patient is restricted in his diet by a physician, or any body of people may be restricted by laws; 'Though the Egyptians used flesh for food, yet they were under greater restrictions, in this particular, than most other nations.' JAMES.

STRAIN, SPRAIN, STRESS, FORCE.

Strain and sprain are without doubt variations of the same word, namely, the Latin strings to pull tight, or to stretch; they have now, however, a distinct application: to strain is to extend a thing beyond its ordinary length by some extraordinary effort; to sprain is to strain it so as to put out of its place, or extend to an injurious length: the ankle and the wrist are liable to be sprained by a contusion; the back and other parts of the body may be strained by over-exertion.

Strain and stress are kindred terms, as being both variations of stretch and strings; but they differ now very considerably in their application: figuratively we speak of straining a nerve, or straining a point, to express making great exertions, even beyond our ordinary powers; and morally we speak of laying a stress upon any particular measure or mode of action, sig-nifying to give a thing importance: the strain may be put for the course of sentiment which we express, and the manner of expressing it; the stress may be put for the efforts of the voice in uttering a word or syllable: a writer may proceed in a *strain* of panegyric or invective; a speaker or a reader lays a *stress* on certain words by way of distinguishing them from others To strain is properly a species of forcing; we may force in a variety of ways, that is, by the exercise of force upon different bodies, and in different word in the result to strain is to exercise force by stretching or probut to strain is to exercise force by stretching or pro-longing bodies; thus to strain a cord is to pull it to its full extent; but we may speak of forcing any hard substance in, or forcing it out, or forcing it through, or forcing it from a body; a door or a lock may be forced by violently breaking them; but a door or a forced by Violently breaking them: but a coor or a lock may be strained by putting the hinges or the spring out of its place. So likewise, a person may be said to force himself to speak, when by a violent exertion he gives utterance to his words; but he strains his throat or his voice when he exercises the force on the throat or lungs so as to extend them, or he strains his powers of thinking; 'There was then (before the fall) powers of thinking: There was then (before the ran) no poring, no struggling with memory, no straining for invention.—South. Force and stress as nouns are in like manner comparable when they are applied to the mode of utterance. we must use a certain force in the pronunciation of every word; this therefore is indefinite and general; but the stress is that particular and strong degree of force which is exerted in the pro-nunciation of certain words; 'Was ever any one ob-served to come out of a tavern fit for his study, or indeed for any thing requiring stress.'-SOUTH.

Oppose not rage, while rage is in its force.

SHAKSPEARE.

STRESS, STRAIN, EMPHASIS, ACCENT.

Stress and strain signify the same as in the preceding article; emphasis, from the Greek φαίνω to appear, signifies making to appear; accent, in Latin accentus, from cano to sing, signifies to suit the tune or tone of the voice.

Stress and strain are general both in sense and application: the former still more than the latter: emphasis and accent are modes of the stress. Stress is

applicable to all bodies, the powers of which may be tried by exertion; as the stress upon a rope, upon a shaft of a carriage, a wheel or spring in a machine: the strain is an excessive stress, by which a thing is thrown out of its course; there may be a strain in most cases where there is a stress: but stress and strain are to be compared with emphasis and accent, particularly in the exertion of the voice, in which case the stress is a strong and special exertion of the voice, on one word, or one part of a word, so as to distinguish it from another; but the strain is the undue ex ertion of the voice beyond its usual pitch, in the utter ance of one or more words; we lay a stress on our words for the convenience of others; but when we strain the voice it is as much to the annovance of others as it is hurtful to ourselves; 'Singing differs from vociferation in this, that it consists in a certain harmony; nor is it performed with so much straining of the voice.'—James. The stress may consist in an elevation of voice, or a prolonged utterance; 'Those English syllables which I call long ones receive a pecu-English synames which I can long ones receive a peculiar stress of voice from their acute or circumflex accent, as in quickly, downy.—Foster. The can phasis is that species of stress which is employed to distinguish one word or syllable from another; the stress may be accidental; but the emphasis is an intentional stress; ignorant people and children are often led to lay the stress on little and unimportant words in a sentence; speakers sometimes find it con venient to mark particular words, to which they at tach a value, by the emphasis with which they utter them; ' Emphasis not so much regards the time as a certain grandeur, whereby some letter, syllable, word, or sentence, is rendered more remarkable than the rest by a more vigorous pronunciation and a longer stay upon it."—Holder. The stress may be casual or regular, on words or syllables; the accent is that kind of regulated stress which is laid on one syllable to distinguish it from another: there are many words in our own language, such as subject, object, present, and the like, where, to distinguish the verb from the noun, the accent falls on the last syllable for the former, and on the first syllable for the latter; 'The correctness and harmony of English verse depends entirely upon its being composed of a certain number of syllables, and its having the accents of those syllables properly placed. —Tyrnyhitt.

In reference to the use of words, these terms may admit of a farther distinction: for we may lay a stress or emphasis on a particular point of our reasoning, in the first case, by enlarging upon it longer than on other points; or, in the second case, by the use of stronger expressions or epithets; 'After such a mighty stress, so irrationally laid upon two slight, empty words ('self-consciousness' and 'mutual consciousness') have they made any thing, but the author himself (Sherlock on the Trinity) better understood?—South. The idle, who are neither wise for this world nor the next, are emphatically called, by Dr. Tillotson, "Fools at large." "Spectator. The strain or accent may be employed to designate the tone or manner in which we express ourselves, that is, the spirit of our discourse: in familiar language we talk of a person's proceeding in a strain of panegyric, or of censure; 'An assured hope of future glory raises him to a pursuit of a more than ordinary strain of duty and perfection."—South. In poetry persons are said to pour forth their complaints in tender accents;

For thee my tuneful accents will I raise.—Dryngy

TO REPRESS, RESTRAIN, SUPPRESS.

To repress is to press back or down: to restrain is to strain back or down: the former is the general, the latter is the specifick term: we always repress when we restrain, but not vice versal. Repress is used mostly for pressing down, so as to keep that inward which wants to make its appearance: restrain is an habitual repression by which it is kept in a state of lowness: a person is said to repress his feelings when he does not give them vent either by his words or actions; he is said to restrain his feelings when he never lets them rise beyond a certain pitch: good morals, as well as good manners, call upon us to repress every unseemly expression of joy in the company of those who are not in a condition to partake of our joy; it is prudence as well as virtue to restrain our appetites by an habitual

forbearance, that they may not gain the ascendancy. One cannot too quickly repress a rising spirit of resistance in any community, large or small; 'Philosophy has often attempted to repress insolence by as serting that all conditions are levelled by death."

Johnson. One cannot too early restrain the irregularties of childhood; 'He that would keep the power of sin from running out into act, must restrain it from conversing with the object.—South. The innocent vivacity of youth should not be repressed; but their wildness and intemperance ought to be restrained

To repress is simply to keep down or to keep from rising to excess. To suppress is to keep from rising to excess. To suppress is to keep under or to keep from appearing in publick or coming into notice. A judicious parent represses every tumultuous passion in a child; 'Her forwardness was repressed with a frown by her mother or aunt.'—Jonnson. A judicious commander suppresses a rebellion by a timely and resolute exercise of authority. 'Every rehillion when resolute exercise of authority; 'Every rebellion, when it is suppressed, makes the subject weaker and the prince stronger.'—DAVIES. To repress a feeling is to keep it down so that it may not increase in force; so likewise to repress violence either of feeling or conduct:

Such kings Favour the innocent, repress the bold, And, while they flourish, make an age of gold,

'Some, taking dangers to be the only remedy against dangers, endeavoured to set up the sedition again, but they were speedily repressed, and thereby the sedition suppressed wholly. HAYWARD. To suppress a feeling is not to give it expression, to suppress a work, &c. is not to give it publication, or withdraw it from farther publication; With him Palemon kept the watch at night,

In whose sad bosom many a sigh supprest Some painful secret of the soul confest. FALCONER.

You may depend upon the suppression of these

TO STIFLE, SUPPRESS, SMOTHER.

Stifle is a frequentative of stuff, in Latin stipo, and

Greek ζύφω to make tight or close; suppress signifies the same as in the preceding article; smother, as a frequentative of smut or smoke, signifies to cover with

smut or smoke.

verses.'-Pope.

Stiffe and smother in their literal sense will be more properly considered under the article of Suffocate, &c. (v. To suffocate); they are here taken in a moral application.

The leading idea of all these terms is that of keeping out of view: stifle is applicable to the feelings only; suppress to the feelings or to outward circumstances; smother to outward circumstances only: we stifle resentment; we suppress anger: the former is an act of some continuance; the latter is the act of the moment: we stifle our resentment by abstaining to take any measures of retaliation; 'You excel in the art of stifling and concealing your resentment.'— We suppress the rising emotion of anger, so SWIFT. as not to give it utterance or even the expression of a look; 'They foresaw the violence with which this indignation would burst out after being so long suppressed.'—ROBERTSON. It requires time and powerful motives to stiffe, but only a single effort to suppres. nothing but a long course of vice can enable a man to stiffe the admonitions and reproaches of conscience;

Art, brainless art! our furious charioteer (For nature's voice unstifled would recall)
Drives headlong to the precipice of death. YOUNG.

A sense of prudence may sometimes lead a man to suppress the joy which an occurrence produces in his

Well did'st thou, Richard, to suppress thy voice; For had the passions of thy heart burst out, I fear we should have seen decipher'd there More rancorous spight, more furious raging broils.

SHAKSPEARE.

In regard to outward circumstances, we say that a book is suppressed by the authority of government that vice is suppressed by the exertions of those who

have power: an affair is smothered so that it shall not become generally known, or that the fire is smothered under the embers; 'Great and generous principles not being kept up and cherished, but smothered in sensual delights, God suffers them to sink into low and inglorious satisfaction.'-South.

TO SUFFOCATE, STIFLE, SMOTHER. CHOKE.

Suffocate, in Latin suffocatus, participle of suffoco, is compounded of sub and faux, signifying to stop up the throat; stifle is a frequentative of stuff, that is, to stuff excessively; smother is a frequentative of smoke; choke is probably a variation of cheek, in Saxon ceac, because strangulation is effected by a compression of the throat under the cheek-bone.

These terms express the act of stopping the breath; but under various circumstances and by various means; suffication is produced by every kind of means, ex-ternal or internal, and is therefore the most general of

these terms:

A suffocating wind the pilgrim smites With instant death.—Thomson

Stifling proceeds by internal means, that is, by the ac mission of foreign bodies into the passages which lead to the respiratory organs, and in this sense is employed

When my heart was ready with a sigh to cleave, I have, with mighty anguish of my soul, Just at the birth stifled this still-born sigh.

SHAKSPEARE.

We may be suffocated by excluding the air externally, as by gagging, confining closely, or pressing violently: we may be suffocated or stifled by means of vapours, close air, or smoke. To smother is to suffocate by the exclusion of air externally, as by covering a person entirely with bedelothes: to choke is a mode of stifting by means of bodies disproportionately large, as a piece of food lodging in the throat or the larynx, in which sense they may both be used figuratively; 'The love of jealous men breaks out furiously (when the object of their loves is taken from them) and throws off all mixture of suspicion which choked and smothered it before.'—Addison.

TO CHECK, CURB, CONTROL.

All these terms express a species of restraining,

Check and curb are figurative expressions borrowed from natural objects. Check, from check or check-mate in the game of chess, signifies as a verb to exert a restrictive power; curb, from the curb, by which horses are kept in, signifies in like manner, accercive restraining; control is probably contracted from counter-roll, that is, to turn against an object, to act against it.

To check is to throw obstacles in the way, to impede the course; to curb is to bear down by the direct exercise of force, to prevent from action; to control is to direct and turn the course: the actions of men are checked; their feelings are curbed; their actions or

feelings are controlled.

External means are employed in checking or con-trolling; external or internal means are employed in trotting; externa or internal means are employed in curbing; men check and control others; they curb themselves or others; young people ought always to be checked whenever they discover a too forward temper in the presence of their superiours or elders; 'Devotion, when it does not lie under the check of reason, is apt to degenerate into enthusiasm.'-Apprson. necessary to curb those who are of an impetuous temper:

The point of honour has been deem'd of use, To teach good manners, and to curb abuse; Admit it true, the consequence is clear, Our polished manners are a mask we wear.

It is necessary to keep youth under control, until they have within themselves the restrictive power of judgement to curb their passions, and control their inordinate appetites:

Whatever private views and passions plead, No cause can justify so black a deed; These, when the angry tempest clouds the soul, May darken reason and her course control. THOMSON

Unlimited power cannot with propriety be intrusted to any body of individuals; there ought in every state to be a legitimate means of checking those who show a disposition to exercise an undur authority; but to invest the people with this office is in fact giving back, into the hands of the community, that which for the wisest purposes was taken from them by the institution of government: it is giving a restraining power to those who themselves are most m want of being restrained; whose ungovernable passions require to be carbed by the non arm of power, whose untily wills require all the influence of wisdom and authority to control them.

TO FORBID, PROHIBIT, INTERDICT, PROSCRIBE.

The for in forbid, from the German ver, is negative. signifying to bid not to do; the pro in prohibit, and inter in interdict, have both a similarly negative sense: the former verb, from habeo to have, signifies to have or hold that a thing shall not be done, to restrain from doing; the latter, from dice to say, signifies to say that a thing shall not be done.

Forbid is the ordinary term; prohibit is the judicial

Forms is the ordinary product is the posterior term; interdict the moral term.

To forbid is a direct and personal act; to prohibit is an indurect action that operates by means of extended influence: both imply the exercise of power or authority of an individual; but the former is more applicable to the power of an individual, and the latter to the authority of government. A parent forbids his child marrying when he thinks proper; 'The futher of Constantia was so incensed at the father of Theodosins that he forbide the son his house.'—Additionally the government prohibits the use of spirituous liquors; 'I think that all persons (that is, quacks) should be prohibited from curing their incurable patients by act of parliament.—Hawkesworth Interdict is a species of forbidding applied to more serious concerns; we may be interdicted the use of wine by a physician; 'It is not to be desired that morality should be considered as interdicted to all future writers.'—Jornson.

A thing is forbidden by a command: it is prohibited the power of an individual, and the latter to the autho-

A thing is forbidden by a command; it is prohibited by a law: hence that which is immoral is forbidden by the express word of God; that which is illegal is pro-hibited by the laws of man. We are furbiden in the Scripture from even indulging a thought of committing scripture from even hodging a mongh of community evil; it is the policy of every government to prohibit the importation and exportation of such commodities as are likely to affect the internal trade of the country.* To forbid or interdict are opposed to command: To fortud or interdict are opposed to command; to pro-hibit, to allow. As nothing is forbidden to Christians which is good and just in itself, so nothing is com-manded that is hurtful and unjust; the same cannot be said of the Mahometan or any other religion. As no one is prohibited in our own country from writing that which can tend to the improvement of mankind; so on the other hand he is not allowed to indulge his private malignity by the publication of injurious personalities.

Forbid and interdict, as personal acts, are properly applicable to persons only, but by an improper application are extended to things; prohibit, however, in the general sense of restraining, is applied with equal propriety to things as to persons; shame forbids us doing

a thing ;

Life's span forbids us to extend our cares, And stretch our hopes beyond our years

Law, authority, and the like, prohibit; 'Fear prohibits endeavours by infusing despair of success.'—Johnson. Nature interdicts :

Other ambition nature interdicts .- Young.

Proscribe, in Latin proscribe, signified originally to offer for sale, and also to outlaw a person, but is now employed either in the political or moral sense of conemployed effect in the pointed or moral sense of con-demning capitally or utterly, whence it has been ex-tended in its application to signify the absolutely for-bidding to be used or held as to proscribe a name or a doctrine; 'Some utterly proscribe the name of chance, as a word of impious and profane signification.'

* Vide Trusler: "To forbid, prohibit."

TO DECIDE, DETERMINE, CONCLUDE UPON.

The idea of bringing a thing to an end is common to the signification of all these words; but decide expresses more than determine, and determine more than conclude upon; to decide, from the Latin decido, compounded of de and cædo, signifying to cut off or cut short a busi-ness; and determine, from the Latin determino, com-pounded of de and terminus a term or boundary, signifying to fix the boundary, are both employed in matters relating to ourselves or others; conclude, from the Latin concludo, signifying to make the mind up to a thing, is employed in matters that respect the parties only who conclude. As it respects to thers, to decide is an act of greater authority than to determine: a parent decides for his child; a subordinate person may determine sometimes for those who are under him in the absence of his superiours. In all cases, to decide is an act of greater importance than to determine. The nature and character of a thing is decided upon: its limits or extent are determined on. A judge decides on the law and equity of the case; the jury determine as to the guilt or innocence of the person. An individual decides in his own mind on any measure, and the propriety of adopting it; he determines in his own mind, as to how, when, and where it shall be commenced.

One decides in all matters of question or dispute; one One decides in all matters of fact. We decide in order to have an opinion; we determine in order to act. In complicated cases, where arguments of apparently equal weight are offered by men of equal authority, it

is difficult to decide;

With mutual blood th' Ausonian soil is dyed, While on its borders each their claim dec

When equally feasible plans are offered for our choice, we are often led to determine upon one of them from trifling motives; 'Revolutions of state, many times make way for new institutions and forms; and often determine in either setting up some tyranny at home, or bringing in some conquest from abroad."—TEMPLE

To determine and conclude are equally practical: hut determine seems to be more peculiarly the act of an individual; conclude may be the act of one or of many. individual; conclude may be the act of the will: we con-We determine by an immediate act of the will: we conmay often influence in determining; but nothing is concluded on without deliberation and judgement. Many things may be determined on which are either never put into execution, or remain long unexecuted;

Eve! now expect great tidings, which perhaps Of us will soon determine, or impose New laws to be observ'd.—Milton.

What is concluded on is mostly followed by immediate action. To conclude on is properly to come to a final determination ;

Is it concluded he shall be protector? It is determined, not concluded yet; But so it must be, if the king miscarry. SHAKSPEARE.

TO DETERMINE, RESOLVE.

To determine $(v.\ To\ decide)$ is more especially an act of the judgement; *to resolve $(v.\ Courage)$ is an act of the will: the former requires examination and choice; we determine how or what we shall do: the latter requires a firm spirit; we resolve that we will do what we have determined upon. Our determinations should be prudent, that they may not cause repentance; our resolutions should be fixed, in order to prevent variation. There can be no co-operation with a man who is undetermined; it will be dangerous to co-operate with a man who is irresolute

In the ordinary concerns of life we have frequent occasion to determine without resolving; in the discharge of our moral duties, or the performance of any office, we have occasion to resolve without determining. A master determines to dismiss his servant; the servant resolves on becoming more diligent. Personal convenience or necessity gives rise to the determination; a sense of duty, honour, fidelity, and the like, gives bith to the resolution. A traveller determines to take a certain route; a learner resolves to conquer every

^{*} Vide Abbe Girard: "Decision, resolution."

difficulty in the acquirement of learning. Humour or change of circumstances occasions a person to alter his determination; tunidity, fear, or defect in principle, occasions the resolution to waver. Children are not capable of determining; and their best resolutions fall before the gratification of the moment. Those who determine hastily are frequently under the necessity of aftering their determinations; 'When the mind hovers among such a variety of allurements, one had better settle on a way of life that is not the very best we might have chosen, than grow old without determining our choice.'-ADDISON. There are no resolutions so as those that are made on a sick bed; the return of health is quickly succeeded by a recurrence to our former course of life; 'The resolution of dying to end our miseries does not show such a degree of magnamimity, as a resolution to bear them, and submit to the

dispensations of Providence."—Addison.
In matters of science, determine is to fix the mind, or to cause it to rest in a certain opinion; to resolve is to lay open what is obscure, to clear the mind from doubt We determine points of question; we and hesitation. resolve difficulties. It is more difficult to determine in matters of rank or precedence than in cases where the solid and real interests of men are concerned; 'We pray against nothing but sin, and against evil in general (in the Lord's prayer), leaving it with Omniscience to determine what is really such.'—Addison. It is the business of the teacher to resolve the difficulties which are proposed by the scholar; 'I think there is no great difficulty in resolving your doubts. The reasons for which you are inclined to visit London are, I think, not of sufficient strength to answer the objections.'-John-20N. Every point is not proved which is determined; nor is every difficulty resolved which is answered.

TO SOLVE, RESOLVE.

Solve and resolve both come from the Latin solvo, in

Greek λέω, in Hebrew 727 to loosen.

Between solve and resolve there is no considerable difference either in sense or application: the former seems merely to speak of unfolding, in a general manner, that which is wrapped up in obscurity: to resolve is rather to unfold it by the particular method of carrying one back to first principles; we solve a problem, and resolve a difficulty;

Something yet of doubt remains, Which only thy solution can resolve.—MILTON.

DECIDED, DETERMINED, RESOLUTE.

A man who is decided (v. To decide) remains in no doubt: he who is determined is uninfluenced by the doubts or questions of others: he who is resolute (v. To determine, resolve) is uninfluenced by the consequences of his actions. A decided character is at all times essential for a prince or a minister, but particularly so in an unsettled period like the present; a determined character is essential for a commander, or any one who has to exercise authority; a resolute character is essential for one who has engaged in dangerous enterprises. Pericles was a man of a decided temper, which was well fitted to direct the affairs of government in a season of turbulence and disquietude; Almost all the high-bred republicans of my time have, after a short space, become the most decided thorough-paced courters'—Burke. Titus Mailius Torquatus displayed himself to be a man of a determined character, when he put to death his victorious son for a breach of military discipline;

, A race determined, that to death contend; So fierce these Greeks their last retreats defend. POPE.

Brutus, the murderer of Cæsar, was a man of a resolute temper; 'Most of the propositions we think, reason, discourse, nay, act upon, are such as we cannot have undoubted knowledge of their truth; yet some of them border so near upon certainty that we make no doubt at all about them; but assent to them as firmly, and act according to that assent as resolutely, as if they were infallibly demonstrated.—Locke.

DECIDED, DECISIVE.

Decided marks that which is actually decided: decisive that which appertains to decision.

Decided is employed for persons or things; accisive only for things. A person's aversion or attachment is decided; a sentence, a judgement, or a victory, is decisive. A man of a decided character always adopts decisive measures. It is right to be decidedly averse to every thing which is immoral: we should be cau tious not to pronounce decisively on any point where we are not perfectly clear and well grounded in our opinion. In every popular commotion it is the duty of a good subject to take a decided part in favour of law and order; 'A politick caution, a guarded circum spection, were among the ruling principles of our forefathers in their most decided conduct.'—BURKE. Such is the nature of law, that, if it were not decisive, it would be of no value; 'The sentences of superiour judges are final, decisive, and irrevocable.'—Black-

DECISION, JUDGEMENT, SENTENCE.

Decision signifies literally the act of deciding, or the thing decided upon (v. To decide); judgement signifies the act of judging or determining in general (v. To decide); sentence, in Latin sententia, signifies the opinion held or maintained.

These terms, though very different in their original meaning, are now employed so that the two latter are species of the former; a final conclusion of any business is comprehended in them all: but the decision conveys none of the collateral ideas which are expressed to the agent; it may be said of one or many; it may be the decision has no respect to the agent; it may be said of one or many; it may be the decision of a court of law, of the nation, of the publick, of a particular body of men, or of a private individual: but a judgement is given in a publick court, or among private individuals: a sentence is passed in a court of law, or at the bar of the publick. A decision specifies none of the circumstances of the action; it may be a legal or an arbitrary decision;

it may be a decision according to one's caprice, or attern many be a accession according to one's capitice, or after mature deliberation: a judgement is always passed either in a court of law, and consequently by virtue of authority; or it is passed by an individual by the authority of his own judgement: a sentence is always passed by the authority of law, or the will of the million.

the publick.

A decision respects matters of dispute or litigation: it puts an end to all question; 'The decisions of the judges, in the several courts of justice, are the principal and most authoritative evidence that can be given the existence of such a custom as shall form a part of the common law."—BLACESTONE. A judgement respects the guilt or innocence, the moral excellence or defects, of a person; 'It is the greatest folly to seek of affects of a person, it is the greatest bry a to sea the praise or approbation of any being besides the Supreme Being; because no other being can make a right judgement of us.—Addison. A sentence respects the punishment or consequent fate of the object: The guilty man has an honour for the judge, who with justice pronounces against him the sentence of death itself.'—Streele. Some questions are of so complicated a nature, that it is not possible to bring them to a decision: men are forbidden by the Christian religion to be severe in their judgements on one another; the works of an author must sometimes await the sen tence of impartial posterity before their value can be duly appreciated.

FINAL, CONCLUSIVE.

Final, in French final, Latin finalis, from finis the end, signifies having an end; conclusive, as in the preceding article, signifies shutting up, or coming to a conclusion.

Final designates simply the circumstance of being the last: conclusive the mode of finishing or coming to the last: a determination is final which is to be succeeded by no other; 'Neither with us in England hath there been (till very lately) any final determina-tion upon the right of authors at the common law.'-BLACKSTONE. A reasoning is conclusive that puts a stop to farther question; 'I hardly think the example of Abraham's complaining, that, unless he had some of Advanams complaining, and, unless he had some children of his body, his steward Eliezer of Damascus would be his heir, is quite conclusive to show that he made him so by will.—BLACKSTONE. The final is arbitrary; it depends upon the will to make it so or

not; the conclusive is relative; it depends upon the circumstances and the understanding: a person gives a final answer at option; but, in order to make an answer conclusive, it must be satisfactory to all parties.

CONCLUSIVE, DECISIVE, CONVINCING.

Conclusive applies either to practical or argumentative matters; decisive to what is practical only; con-

vincing to what is argumentative only.

It is necessary to be conclusive when we deliberate, and decisive when we command. What is conclusive puts an end to all discussion, and determines the judgement: 'I will not disguise that Dr. Bentley, whose criticism is so conclusive for the forgery of those tragedies quoted by Plutarch, is of opinion "Thespis himself published nothing in writing." —CUMBERLAND. What is decisive puts an end to all wavering, and determines the will; 'Is it not somewhat singular that Young preserved, without any palliation, this preface (to his Satire on Women) so bluntly decisive in favour of laughing at the world, in the same collection of his works which contains the mournful, angry, gloomy, Night Thoughts?'—CROFT. Negotiators have sometimes an interest in not speaking conclusively; commanders can never retain their authority without speaking decisively; conclusive, when compared to convincing, is general; the latter is particular; an argument is convincing, a chain of reasoning conclusive. There may be much that is convincing, where there is nothing conclusive; a proof may be convincing of a particular circumstance; but conclusive evidence will bear upon the main question; 'That religion is essential to the welfare of man, can be proved by the most convincing arguments.'-BLAIR.

CRITERION, STANDARD.

Criterion, in Greek κοιτήσιου, from κοίνω to judge, signifies the mark or rule by which one may judge; standard, from the verb to stand, signifies the point at which one must stand, or beyond which one must

not go.

The criterion is employed only in matters of judgement; the standard is used in the ordinary concerns of life. The former serves for determining the characters and qualities of things; the latter for defining quantity and measure. The language and manners of a person is the best criterion for forming an estimate his station and education;

But have we then no law besides our will, No just criterion fix'd to good or ill?

As well at noon we may obstruct our sight, Then doubt if such a thing exists as light.

In order to produce a uniformity in the mercantile transactions of mankind, one with another, it is the custom of government to set up a certain standard for

custom of government to set up a certain standard for the regulation of coins, weights, and measures.

The word standard may likewise be used figuratively in the same sense. The Bible is a standard of excellence, both in morals and religion, which cannot be too closely followed. It is impossible to have the same standard in the arts and sciences, because all our performances fall short of perfection, and will admit of improvement;

Rate not th' extension of the human mind, By the plebeian standard of mankind.-Jenyns.

TO CONFIRM, CORROBORATE.

Confirm, in French confirmer, Latin confirmo, which Is compounded of con and firmo or firmus, signifying to make additionally firm; correborate, in Latin corre-boratus, participle of correbore, compounded of cor or con and roboro to strengthen, signifies to add to the strength.

The idea of strengthening is common to these terms, but under different circumstances: confirm is used generally; corroborate only in particular instances.

What confirms serves to confirm the minds of others: 'There is an Abyssinian here who knew Mr. Bruce Interes is an Abyssiman here who knew Mr. Doues at Givender. I have examined him, and he confirms Mr. Bruce's account.'—Six W. Joxes. What corroborates strengthens one's self; 'The secrecy of this conference very much favours my conjecture, that

Augustus made an attempt to persuade I berius from holding on the empire; and the length of time it took up corroborates the probability of that conjecture.'-CUMBERLAND. A testimony may be confirmed or cor roborated; but all doubt is removed by a confirmation; the persuasion is strengthened by a corroboration when the truth of a person's assertions is called in question, it is fortunate for him when circumstances present themselves that confirm the truth of what he has said, or, if he have respectable friends, to corroborate his testimony.

TO CONFIRM, ESTABLISH.

Confirm (v. To confirm, corroborate); establish, from the word stable, signifies to make stable or able to stand.

The idea of strengthening is common to these as to former terms, but with a different application; confirm respects the state of a person's mind, and whatever acts upon the mind; establish is employed with regard to whatever is external: a report is confirmed; a reputation is established: a person is confirmed in the persuasion or belief of any truth or cir cumstance:

> Trifles, light as air, Are to the jealous, confirmations strong As proofs of Holy Writ.—Shakspeare.

A thing is established in the publick estimation, or a principle is established in the mind; 'The silk-worm, after having spun her task, lays her eggs and dies; but a man can never have taken in his full measure of knowledge, has not time to subdue his pas-sions, or establish his soul in virtue, and come up to the perfection of his nature, before he is hurried off the stage.'-Addison.

The mind seeks its own means of confirming itself; things are established either by time or authority: no person should be hasty in giving credit to reports that are not fully confirmed, nor in giving support to measures that are not established upon the surest grounds: a reciprocity of good offices serves to confirm an alliance, or a good understanding between people and nations; interest or reciprocal affection serve to establish an intercourse between individuals, which has perhaps, been casually commenced.

UNDETERMINED, UNSETTLED, UNSTEADY, WAVERING.

Undetermined (v. To determine,) is a temporary state of the mind; unsettled is commonly more lasting; we are undetermined in the ordinary concerns of life; we are unsettled in matters of opinion: we may be undetermined whether we shall go or stay; we are unsettled in our faith or religious profession; 'Uncer tain and unsettled as Cicero was, he seems fired with the contemplation of immortality.'—PEARSE.

Undetermined and unsettled are applied to particular objects; unsteady and wavering are habits of the mind: to be unsteady is, in fact, to be habitually unsettled in regard to all objects. An unsettled character is one that has no settled principles; an unsteady cha racter has an unfitness in himself to settle: 'You will find soberness and truth in the proper teachers of religion, and much unsteadiness and vanity in others.'-EARL WENTWORTH. Undetermined describes one uniform state of mind, namely, the want of determination: wavering describes a changeable state, namely, the state of determining variously at different times. Undetermined is always taken in an indifferent, wavering mostly in a bad, sense: we may frequently be undetermined from the nature of the case. which does not present motives for determining; which does not present mouves for determining, we suffer the last part of life to steal from us in weak hopes of some fortuitous occurrence or drowsy equilibrations of undetermined counsel.'—Johnson. A person is mostly wavering from a defect in his character, in cases where he might determine;

Yet such, we find, they are as can control The servile actions of our wav ring soul.

A parent may with reason be undetermined as to the line of life which he shall choose for his son : men of soft and timid characters are always wanering in the most trivial, as well as the most important, concerns

CONSTANCY, STABILITY, STEADINESS, FIRMNESS.

Constancy, in French constance, Latin constantia, from constans and consto, compounded of con and sto to stand by or close to a thing, signifies the quality of adhering to the thing that has been once chosen; stability, in French stability, in stabilities, from stabilits and sto to stand, signifies the abstract quality of heing able to stand; steadiness, from steady or staid, Saxon stetig, high German stätig, Greek σταθος and ετημι to stand, signifies a capacity for standing; firmness, signifies the abstract quality of firm.

Constancy respects the affections; stability the opinions; steadiness the action or the motives of action;

firmness the purpose or resolution. * Constancy prevents from changing, and furnishes the mind with resources against weariness or disgust of the same object; it preserves and supports an attachment under every change of circumstances; 'Without constancy there is neither love, friendship, nor virtue in the world.'—Addison. Stability prevents from varying, it bears up the mind against wents from varying, it lears up the movements of levity or curiosity, which a diversity of objects might produce; 'With God there is no variableness with man there is no stability. Virtue and bleness, with man there is no stability. Virtue and vice divide the empire of his mind, and wisdom and folly alternately rule him.'—BLAIR. Steadiness prevents from deviating; it enables the mind to bear up against the influence of humour, which temperament or outward circumstances might produce; it fixes on one course and keeps to it; 'A manly steadiness of conduct is the object we are always to keep in view. -BLAIR. Firmness prevents from yielding; it gives the mind strength against all the attacks to which it may be exposed; it makes a resistance, and comes off triumphant; 'A corrupted and guilty man can possess no true firmness of heart.'-Blair.

Constancy, among lovers and friends, is the favourite theme of poets; the world has, however, afforded but few originals from which they could copy their pictures: they have mostly described what is desirable rather than what is real. Stability of character is essential for those who are to command; for how can they govern others who cannot govern their own thoughts? Steadiness of deportment is a great recommendation to those who have to obey: how can any one perform his part well who suffers himself to be perpetually interrupted? Firmness of character is indispensable in the support of principles: there are many occasions in which this part of a man's cha-

racter is likely to be put to a severe test.

Constancy is opposed to fickleness; stability to changeableness; steadmess to flightiness; firmness to pliancy.

FIRM, FIXED, SOLID, STABLE.

Firm, in French férme, Latin firmus, comes from Firm, in French ferme, Latin firmus, comes from fero to bear, signifying the quality of bearing, up-holding, or keeping; fixed denotes the state of being fixed: solid, in Latin solidus, comes from solum the ground, which is the most solid thing existing; stable, in Latin stabilis, from sto, signifies the quality of being able to stand.

That is firm which is not easily shaken; that is fixed which is fastened to something else, and not easily torn; that is solid which is able to bear, and does not easily give way; that is stable which is able to make a stand against resistance, or the effects of to make a stand against resistance, or the effects of time. A pillar which is firm on its base, fixed to a wall made of solid oak, is likely to be stable. A man stands firm in battle who does not flinch from the at-tack: he is fixed to a spot by the order of his com-mander. An army of firm men form a solid mass, and, by their heroism, may deserve the most stable monument that can be erected:

In one firm orb the bands were rang'd around, A cloud of heroes blacken'd all the ground

POPE.

* Girard: "Stabilité, constance, fermeté."

Unmov'd and silent, the whole war they wait, Serenely dreadful, and as fix'd as fate .-

In the moral sense, firmness respects the purpose, or such actions as depend on the purpose; fixed it ased either for the mind, or for outward circums.ances; solid is applicable to things in general, in an absolute sense; stable is applicable to things in a relative sense. Decrees are more or less firm, according to the source from which they spring; none are firm, compared with those which arise from the will of the Almighty;

The man that's resolute and just Firm to his principles and trust, Nor hopes nor fears can bind.—WALSH.

Laws are fixed in proportion as they are connected with a constitution in which it is difficult to innovate; 'One loves fixed laws, and the other arbitrary power. -TEMPLE. That which is solid is so of its own nature, but does not admit of degrees: a solid reason has within itself an independent property, which can not be increased or diminished;

But these fantastick errours of our dream Lead us to solid wrong .- COWLEY.

That which is stable is so by comparison with that which is of less duration; the characters of some men are more stable than those of others; youth will not have so stable a character as manhood; 'The prosperity of no man on earth is stable and assured.'— BLAIR.

A friendship is firm when it does not depend upon the opinion of others: it is fixed when the choice is made and grounded in the mind; it is solid when it rests on the only solid basis of accordancy in virtue and religion; it is stable when it is not liable to de crease or die away with time.

HARD, FIRM, SOLID.

The close adherence of the component parts of a hody constitutes hardness. The close adherence of different bodies to each other constitutes firmness (v. That is hard which will not yield to a closer compression; that is firm which will not yield so as to compression. Lee is hard, as far as it respects itself, when it resists every pressure; it is firm, with regard to the water which it covers, when it is so closely bound as to resist every weight without breaking.

Hard and solid respect the internal constitution of bodies, and the adherence of the component parts; but hard denotes a much closer degree of adherence than solid: the hard is opposed to the soft; the solid to the fluid; every hard body is by nature solid; although every solid body is not hard. Wood is always a solid body, but it is sometimes hard, and sometimes

soft; water, when congealed, is a solid body, and admits of different degrees of hardness.

In the improper application, hardness is allied to insensibility: firmness to fixedness; solidity to substantiality: a hard man is not to be acted upon by any tender motives; a *firm* man is not to be turned from his purpose; a *solid* man holds no purposes that are not well founded. A man is hardened in that which is bad, by being made insensible to that which is good: a man is confirmed in any thing good or bad, by being rendered less disposed to lay it aside; his mind is consolidated by acquiring fresh motives for action.

TO FIX, FASTEN, STICK.

Fix (v. To fix, settle); fasten is to make fast; stick is to make to stick.

Fix is a generick term; fasten and stick are but modes of fixing. we fix whatever we make to remain in a given situation; we fasten if we fix it firmly: we stick when we fix a thing by means of sticking. A post is fixed in the ground; it is fastened to a wall by a nail; it is stuck to another board by means of glue, Shelves are fixed; a horse is fastened to a gate: bills are stuck up. What is fixed may be removed in various water. various ways;

On mules and dogs the infection first began, And fast the vengeful arrows fix'd in man.-Pops What is fastened is removed by main force:

As the bold hound that gives the lion chase, With beating bosom, and with eager pace, Hangs on his haunch, or fasters on his heels, Guards as he turns, and circles as he wheels.

POPE

What is stuck must be separated by contrivance; Some lines more moving than the rest, Stuck to the point that piere'd her breast.—Swift.

TO FIX, SETTLE, ESTABLISH.

To fix, in Latin fixum, perfect of figo, and in Greek $\pi\hbar\gamma\omega$, signifies simply to make to keep its place; settle, which is a frequentative of set, signifies to make to sit or be at rest; establish, from the Latin stabilis, signifies to make stable or keep its ground.

signifies to make stable or keep its ground.

Fix is the general and indefinite term; to settle and establish are to fix strongly. Fix and settle are applied either to material or spiritual objects, establish only to moral objects. A post may be fixed in the ground in any manner, but it requires time for it to

settle; Hell heard the insufferable noise, hell saw Heaven running from heavin, and would have fled Affrighted, but that fate had fix'd too deep Her dark toundations.—MLTON.

Warm'd in the brain the brazen weapon lies, And shades eternal settle o'er his eyes.—Pope.

A person may either fix himself, settle himself, or establish himself: the first case refers simply to his taking up his abode, or choosing a certain spot; the second refers to his permanency of stay; and the third to the business which he raises or renders permanent.

The same distinction exists between these words in their farther application to the conduct of men. We may fx one or many points, important or unimportant, it is a mere act of the will; we settle many points of importance; it is an act of deliberation: thus we fx the day and hour of doing a thing; we settle the affairs of our family;

While wavering councils thus his mind engage, Fluctuates in doubtful thought the Pylian sage, To join the host or to the gen'ral haste, Debating long, he fixes on the last.—Pope.

Justice submitted to what Abra pleas'd, Her will alone could settle or revoke,

And law was fixed by what she latest spoke.
Prior.

So likewise to fix is properly the act of one; to settle may be the joint act of many: thus a parent fixes on a business for his child, or he settles the marriage contract with another parent. To fix and settle are personal acts, and the objects are mostly of a private nature, but to establish is an indirect action, and the object mostly of a public nature thus we fix our opinions; we settle our minds; or we are instrumental in establishing laws, institutions, and the like. It is much to be lamented that any one should remain unsettled in his faith; and still more so, that the best form of faith is not universally established; 'A pamphiet that talks of slavery, France, and the pretender; they desire no more; it will settle the wavering and confirm the doubtful."—Swift. 'I would establish but one general rule to be observed in all conversation, which is this, that men should not talk to please themselves, but those that hear them."—Steele.

TO FIX, DETERMINE, SETTLE, LIMIT.

To fix, as in the preceding article, is here the general term; to determine (v. To decide); to settle (v. To fix); to limit (v. To bound); are here modes of fixing. They all denote the acts of conscious agents, but differ in the object and circumstances of the action: we may fix any object by any means, and to any point, we may fix material objects or spiritual objects, we may either fix by means of our senses, or our thoughts; but we can determine only by means of our thoughts. To fix, in distinction from the rest, is said in regard to a single point or a line; but to determine is always said of one or more points, or a whole: we fix where a thing shall begin; but we determine where it shall begin, and where it shall end, which way, and how

far it shall go, and the like: thus, we may fix our eye upon a star, or we fix our minds upon a particular branch of astronomy; 'In a rotund, whether it be a building or a plantation, you can no where fix a boundary.'—BURKE. We determine the distance of the heavenly bodies, or the specific gravity of bodies, and the like, upon philosophical principles. So in morals we may fix our minds on an object; but we determine the mode of accomplishing it; 'Your first care must be to acquire the power of fixing your thoughts.'—BLAIR. 'More particularly to determine the proper season for grammar, I do not see how it can be made a study, but as an introduction to rhetorick.'—Lockx.

Determine is to settle as a means to the end; we commonly determine all subordinate matters, in order to settle a matter finally: thus, the determination of a single cause will serve to settle all other differences. One had better settle on a way of life that is not the very best we might have chosen, than grow old without determining our choice.—Additionally the determination respects the act of the individual who fixes certain points and brings them to a term; the settlement respects simply the conclusion of the affair, or the termination of all dispute and question; 'Religion settles the pretensions and otherwise interfering interests of mortal men."—Addition.

How can we bind or limit his decree

But what our ear has heard or eye may see?

PRIOR.

To determine and limit both signify to fix boundaries; but the former respects, for the most part, such boundaries or terms as are formed by the nature of things; 'No sooner have they climbed that hill, which thus determines their view at a distance, but a new prospect is opened.'—ATTERBURY.

No mystic dreams could make their fates appear, Though now determin'd by 'Tydides' spear.—Pope.

Limit, on the other hand, is the act of a conscious agent employed upon visible objects, and the process of the action itself is rendered visible, as when we limit a price, or limit our time, &c.

TO COMPOSE, SETTLE.

Compose, in Latin composui, perfect of compone to put together, signifies to put in due order; in which sense it is allied to settle.

We compose that which has been disjointed and separated, by bringing it together again; we settle that which has been disturbed and put in motion, by making it rest: we compose the thoughts which have been deranged and thrown into confusion;

Thy presence did each doubtful heart compose, And factions wonder'd that they once arose.

TICKELL.

We settle the mird which has been fluctuating and distracted by contending desires;

Perhaps my reason may but ill defend My settled faith, my mind with age impair'd.

SHENSTONE.

The mind must be composed before we can think justly; it must be settled before we can act consistently.

We compose the differences of others: we settle our own differences with others: it is difficult to compose the quarrels of angry opponents, or to settle the disputes of obstinate partisans.

COMPOSED, SEDATE.

Composed expresses the state of being composed (v. To compose); sedate, in Latin sedatus, participle of sedo to settle, signifies the quality of being settled.

Composed respects the air and looks externally, and the spirits internally; sedate relates to the deportment or carriage externally, and the fixedness of the purpose internally: composed is opposed to ruffled or hurried, sedate to buoyant or volatile.

Composure is a particular state of the mind; sedateness is an habitual frame of mind; a part of the character: a composed mine is very becoming in the season of devotion; 'Upon her nearer approach to Her cules she stepped before the other lady, who came for ward with a regular composed carriage.'—Addison,

A sedate carriage is becoming in youth who are en- | widely spread, may be allowed to demand some secession gaged in serious concerns

Let me associate with the serious night, And contemplation, her sedate compeen

THOMSON.

TO ASK, OR ASK FOR, CLAIM, DEMAND.

To ask, is here taken for something more than a simple expression of wishes, as denoted in the article under To ask, beg; claim, in Latin clamo to cry after, signifies to express an imperious wish for; demand, in French demander, Latin demando, compounded of de and mando, signifies to call for imperatively.

as an manae, signifies to call of imperatively.

Ask, in the sense of beg, is confined to the expression
of wishes on the part of the asker, without involving
any obligation on the part of the person asked; all
granted in this case is voluntary, or complied with as a
favour: but ask for in the sense here taken is involuntary, and springs from the forms and distinctions of Ask is here, as before, generick or specifick; claim and demand are specifick; in its specifick sense it conveys a less peremptory sense than either claim or demand. To ask for denotes simply the expressed wish to have what is considered as due;

Virtue, with them, is only to abstain

From all that nature asks, and covet pain. JENYNS.

To claim is to assert a right, or to make it known; My country claims me all, claims ev'ry passion.

To aemand is to insist on having without the liberty of a refusal;

Even mountains, vales, And forests, seem impatient to demand The promis'd sweetness. Thomson.

Asking respects obligation in general, great or small; claim respects obligations of importance. Asking for supposes a right, not questionable; claim supposes a right hitherto unacknowledged; demand sup-poses either a disputed right, or the absence of all right, and the simple determination to have: a tradesman asks for what is owing to him as circumstances may require; a person claims the property he has lost; may require; a person claims the property he has lost; people are sometimes pleased to make demands, the legality of which cannot be proved. What is lent must be asked for when it is wanted; whatever has been lost and is found must be recovered by a claim; whatever a selfish person wants, he strives to obtain by a demand, whether just or unjust.

TO DEMAND, REQUIRE.

To demand, is here taken in the same sense as in the preceding article; require, in Latin require, compounded of re and quare, signifies to seek for, or to

seek to get back

We demand that which is owing and ought to be given; we require that which we wish and expect to have done. A demand is more positive than a requisition; the former admits of no question; the latter is liable to be both questioned and refused; the reditor makes a demand on the debtor; the master requires a certain portion of duty from his servant; it is urjust to demand of a person what he has no right to give;

Hear, all ye Trojans! all ye Grecian bands, What Paris, author of the war, demands.

It is unreasonable to require of a person what it is not in his power to do;

Now, by my sov'reign and his fate I swear, Renown'd for faith in peace, and force in war, Oft our alliance other lands desir'd, And what we seek of you, of us requir'd. DRYDEN.

A thing is commonly demanded in express words; it is required by implication: a person demands admit-tance when it is not voluntarily granted; he requires respectful deportment from those who are subordinate

In the figurative application the same sense is preserved: things of urgency and momen demand immediate attention; 'Surely the retrospect of life and the extirpation of lusts and appetites, deeply rooted and

from business and folly.'-Johnson. Difficult matters require a steady attention;

Oh then how blind to all that truth requires, Who think it freedom when a part aspires GOLDSMITH

RIGHT, CLAIM, PRIVILEGE.

Right signifies in this sense what it is right for one to possess, which is in fact a word of large meaning; for since the right and the wrong depend upon indeterminable questions, the right of having is equally indeterminable in some cases with every other species of right. A claim (v. To ask for) is a species of right to have that which is in the hands of another; the right to ask another for it. The privilege is a species of right peculiar to particular individuals or bodies.

Right, in its full sense, is altogether an abstract thing which is independent of human laws and regulations; claims and privileges are altogether connected with the

establishments of civil society.

Liberty, in the general sense, is an unalienable right which belongs to man as a rational and responsible agent; it is not a claim, for it is set above all question, and all condition; nor is it a privilege, for it cannot be exclusively granted to one being, nor unconditionally be

taken away from another.

Between the right and the power there is often as wide a distinction as between truth and falsehood; we have often a right to do that which we have no power to do, and the power to do that which we have no right to do; slaves have a right to the freedom which is enjoyed by all other creatures of the same species with themselves, but they have not the power to use this freedom as others do. In England men have the power of thinking for themselves as they please: but, by the abuse which they make of this power, we see that, in many cases, they have not the right, unless we admit the contradiction that men have a right to do what is wrong; they have the power therefore of exercising this right only, because no other person has the legal right of controlling them;

In ev'ry street a city bard Rules, like an alderman, his ward: His undisputed rights extend Through all the lane from end to end .- Swift.

We have often a claim to a thing, which it is not in our power to substantiate; and, on the other hand, claims are set up in cases which are totally unfounded on any right :

Whence is this pow'r, this fondness of all arts, Serving, adorning life through all its parts; Which names impos'd, by letters mark'd those names, Adjusted properly by legal claims?—Jenyns.

Privileges are rights granted to individuals, depending either upon the will of the granter, or the circumstances of the receiver, or both; privileges are therefore partial rights, transferable at the discretion of persons indivi dually or collectively;

A thousand bards thy rights disown, And with rebellious arm pretend An equal privilege to descend .- Swift

PRIVILEGE, PREROGATIVE, EXEMPTION, IMMUNITY.

Privilege, in Latin privilegium, compounded of privus and lex, signifies a law made in favour of any individual or set of individuals; prerogative, comes from the Latin prærogativi, so called from præ and rogo to ask, because certain Roman tribes, so called, were first asked whom they would have to be consuls: hence applied in our language to the right of determining or choosing first in many particulars; exemption, from the verb to exempt, and immunity, from the Latin immunis free, are both employed for the object from which one is exempt or free.

Privilege and prerogative consist of positive advan-tages; exemption and immunity of those which are negative: by the former we obtain an actual good, by

the latter the removal of an evil

Privilege, in its most extended sense, comprehends all the rest: for every prerogative, exemption, and immunity, are privileges, inasmuch as they rest upon certain laws or customs, which are made for the benefit

of certain individuals; but in the restricted sense the printlege is used only for the subordinate parts of society, and the prerogative for the superiour orders; as they respect the publick, printleges belong to, or are granted to, the subject: prerogatives belong, to the crown. It is the privilege of a member of parliament to escape arrest for debt; it is the prerogative of the crown to be irresponsible for the conduct of its ministers: as respects private cases it is the privilege of females to have the best places assigned to them; it is the prerogative of the male to address the female.

Privileges are applied to every object which it is desirable to have; 'As the aged depart from the dignity, so they forfeit the privileges of gray hairs.'—BLAR. Prerogative is confined to the case of making one's election, or exercising any special power; 'By the worst of usurpations, a usurpation on the prerogatives of nature, you attempt to force tailors and carpenters into the state.'—BURKE. Exemption is applicable to cases in which one is exempted from any tribute, or payment; 'Neither nobility nor clergy (in France) enjoyed any exemption from the duty on consumable commodities.'—BURKE. Immunity, from the Latin munus an office, is peculiarly applicable to cases in which one is freed from a service: but it is figuratively applied to a privileged freedom from any thing painful; 'You claim an immunity from evil which belongs not to the lot of man.'—BLAR. All chartered towns or corporations have privileges, exemptions, and immunities: it is the privilege of the city of London to shut its gates against the king.

PRETENSION, CLAIM.

Pretension (v. To affect) and claim (v. To ask for) both signify an assertion of rights, but they differ in the nature of the rights. The first refers only to the rights which are calculated as such by an individual; the latter to those which exist independently of his supposition: there cannot therefore be a pretension without one to pretend, but there may be a claim without any immediate claimant: thus we say a person rests his pretension to the crown upon the ground of being descended from the former king; in hereditary monarchies there is no one who has any claim to the crown except the next heir in succession. The pretension is commonly built upon one's personal merits, or the views of one's own merits:

But if to unjust things thou dost pretend, Ere they begin, let thy pretensions end.

The claim rests upon the laws of civil society; 'Will he not therefore, of the two evils, choose the least, by submitting to a master who lath no immediate claim upon him, rather than to another who hath already revived several claims upon him?"—Swift. A person makes high pretensions who estimates his merits and consequent deserts at a high rate; he judges of his claims according as they are supported by the laws of his country or the circumstances of the case: the pretension, when denied, can never be proved; the claim, when proved, can always be enforced. One is in general willing to dispute the pretensions of men who make themselves judges in their own cause; but one is not unwilling to listen to any claims which are modestly preferred. Those who make a pretension to the greatest learning are commonly men of shallow information; 'It is often charged upon writers, that, with all their pretensions to genius and discoveries, they do little more than copy one another.'—Johnson. Those who have the most substantial claims to the gratitude and respect of mankind are commonly found to be men of the fewest pretensions;

Poets have undoubted right to claim,
If not the greatest, the most lasting name.

CONGREVE.

PRETENCE, PRETENSION, PRETEXT, EXCUSE.

Pretence comes from pretend (n. To affect) in the sense of setting forth any thing independent of ourselves. Pretension comes from the same verb in the sense of setting forth any thing that depends upon ourselves. The pretence is commonly a misrepresentation; the pretension is frequently a miscalculation; the pre-

tence is set forth to conceal what is bad in one s self; the pretension is set forth to display what is good; the former betrays one's falsehood, the latter one's conceit or self-importance; the former can never be employed in a good sense, the latter may sometimes be employed in an indifferent sense; a man of bad character may make a pretence of religion by adopting an outward profession;

Ovid had warn'd her to beware
Of strolling gods, whose usual trade is,
Under pretence of taking air,
To pick up sublunary ladies.—Swift.

Men of the least merit often make the highest preten sions;

Each thinks his own the best pretension .- GAY.

The pretence and pretext alike consist of what is unreal; but the former is not so great a violation of truth as the latter: the pretence may consist of truth and falsehood blended; the pretext, from pratego to cloak or cover over, consists altogether of falsehood: the pretence may sometimes serve only to conceal or palliate a fault; the pretext serves to hide something seriously culpable or wicked: a child may make indisposition a pretence for idleness;

Let not the Trojans, with a feigned pretence Of proffer'd peace, delude the Latian prince.

DRYDEN,

A thief makes his acquaintance with the servants a pretext for getting admittance into houses; 'Justifying perfidy and murder for publick benefit, publick benefit would soon become the pretext, and perfidy and murder the end'—BURKE.

The pretence and excuse (v. To apologise) are both set forth to justify one's conduct in the eyes of others; but the pretence aiways conceals something more or less culpable, and by a greater or less violation of truth; the excuse may sometimes justify that which is justifiable, and with strict regard to truth. To oblige one's self, under the pretence of obliging another, is a despicable trick; 'I should have dressed the whole with greater care; but I had little time, which I am sure you know to be more than pretence.'—Wake. Ill-ness is an allowable excuse to justify any omission in busines;

Nothing but love this patience could produce, And I allow your rage that kind excuse.

DRYDEN.

Although the excuse for the most part supposes what is groundless, yet it is moreover distinguished from the pretence, that it never implies an intentional falsehood; 'The last refuge of a guilty person is to take shelter under an excuse.'—South.

TO AFFECT, PRETEND TO.

Affect is here taken in the same sense as in the following article; pretend, in Latin pratendo, that is, pra and tendo, signifies to hold or stretch one thing before another by way of a blind.

These terms are synonymous only in the bud sense of setting forth to others what is not real "we affect by putting on a false air; we pretend by making a false declaration. Art is employed in affecting; assurance and self-complacency in pretending. A person affects not to hear what it is convenient for him not to answer; he pretends to have forgotten what it is convenient for him not to recollect. One affects the manners of a gentleman, and pretends to gentility of birth. One affects the character and habits of a scholar; one pretends to learning.

To affect the qualities which we have not spoils those which we have;

Self, quite put off, affects with too much art
To put on Woodward in each mangled part.
Churchill

To pretend to attainments which we have not made, obliges us to have recourse to falsehoods in order to escape detection; 'There is something so natively great and good in a person that is truly devout, that an awkward man may as well pretend to be genteel as a hypocrite to be pious.'—Steele

* Vide Trussler, "To affect, pretend to."

TO AFFECT, ASSUME.

Affect, in this sense, derives its origin immediately from the Latin affecto to desire after eagerly, signifying to aim at or aspire after; assume, in Latin assumo, compounded of as or ad and sumo to take, signifies to take to one's self.

To affect is to use forced efforts to appear to have some quality; to assume is to appropriate something to one's self. One affects to have fine feelings, and as-

sumes great importance.

Affectation springs from the desire of appearing better than we really are; assumption from the thinkng ourselves better than we really are. We affect the irtues which we have not: 'It has been from age to age an affectation to love the pleasures of solitude, among those who cannot possibly be supposed qualified for passing life in that manner.'—SPECTATOR. We assume the character which does not belong to us;

Laughs not the heart when giants, big with pride Assume the pompous port, the martial part

CHURCHILL.

An affected person is always thinking of others; an assuming person thinks only of himself. The affected man strives to gain applause by appearing to be what he is not; the assuming man demands respect upon the ground of what he supposes himself to be. Hypocrisy is often the companion of affectation; self-conceit always that of assumption.

To affect is mostly taken in a bad sense, but sometimes in an indifferent sense; to assume may be some-times an indifferent action at least, if not justifiable. Men always affect that which is admired by others, in order to gain their applause; 'In conversation the medium is neither to affect silence nor eloquence.'—Sterne. Men sometimes assume an appearance, a name, or an authority, which is no more than their just right;

This when the various god had urg'd in vain, He strait assum'd his native form again .- POPE.

TO APPROPRIATE, USURP, ARROGATE, ASSUME, ASCRIBE.

Appropriate, in French approprier, compounded of Appropriate, in French appropriare, componented of ap or ad and propriates, participle of proprio, an old verb, from proprius proper or own, signifies to make one's own: usurp, in French usurper, Latin usurpo, from usus use, is a frequentative of utor, signifying to make use of as if it were one's own; arrogate, in Tatin processing the properties by a first properties to ask Latin arrogatus, participle of arrogo, signifies to ask or claim to for one's self; assume, in French assumer, Latin assumo, compounded of as or ad and sumo to take, signifies to take to one's self; ascribe, in Latin ascribo, compounded of as or ad and scribo to write, signifies here to write down to one's own account.

The idea of taking something to one's self by an act

of one's own, is common to all these terms

To appropriate is to take to one's self either with or without right; to usurp is to take to one's self by violence, or in violation of right. Appropriating is appiled in its proper sense to goods or possessions;

'To themselves appropriating
The spirit of God, promis'd alike, and giv'n
To all believers.—Milton.

Usurping is properly applied to power, publick or private; a usurper exercises the functions of government without a legitimate sanction; 'Not having the natural superiority of fathers, their power must be usurped, and hen unlawful; or if lawful, then granted or consented unto by them over whom they exercise the same, or else given them extraordinarily from God.'—HOOKER.
Appropriation is a matter of convenience; it springs from a selfish concern for ourselves, and a total unconcern for others: usurpation is a matter of self-indulgence; it springs from an inordinate ambition that is gratified only at the expense of others. Appropriation seldom requires an effort: a person appropriate that which casually falls into his hands. "Jsurpation mostly takes place in a disorganized state of society; when the strongest prevail, the most artful and the most vicious individual invests himself with the supreme authority. Appropriation is generally an act of injustice: usurpation is always an act of violence. To usurp is applied figuratively in the same sense; 'If any passion has so much usurped our understanding, as not to suffer

us to enjoy advantages with the moderation prescribed by reason, it is not too late to apply this remedy: when we find ourselves sinking under sorrow, we may then usefully revolve the uncertainty of our condition, and the folly of lamenting that from which, if it had staid a the folly of lamenting that from which, if it had stan a little longer, we should ourselves have been taken away.'—Jonnson. To appropriate may be applied in the sense of assigning to others their own, as well as taking to one's self; Things sanctified were thereby in such sort appropriated unto God, as that they might never afterward be made common."—Hooker. But in this sense it has nothing in common with the word

awrp, assume, and ascribe, denote the taking to one's self, but do not, like appropriate and usurp, liuply taking from another. Arrogate is a more violent action than assume, and assume than ascribe. Arrogate and assume are employed either in the proper or figurative sense. we arrosense, ascribe only in the figurative sense. We arrogate distinctions, honours, and titles; we assume

names, rights, privileges.

In the moral sense we arrogate pre-eminence, assume aportance, ascribe merit. To arrogate is a species importance, ascribe merit. To arrogate is a species of moral usurpation; it is always accompanied with haughtiness and contempt for others: that is arrogated to one's self to which one has not the smallest title: an arrogant temper is one of the most odious features in human character; it is a compound of folly and insolence; 'After having thus ascribed due honour to birth and parentage, I must however take notice of those who arroyate to themselves more honours than are due to them on this account.'—Appison. To assume is a species of moral appropriation; its objects are of a less serious nature than those of arrogating; and it does less violence to moral propriety: We assume in trifles, we arrogate only in important matters; 'It very seldom happens that a man is slow enough in assuming the character of a husband, or a woman quick enough in condescending to that of a wife."—Addison. To ascribe is oftener an act of vanity than of injustice many men are entitled to the merit which they ascribe to themselves; but by this very act they lessen the merit of their best actions; 'Sometimes we ascribe to ourselves the merit of good qualities, which, if justly considered, should cover us with shame.'-CRAIG. conscientious man will appropriate nothing to himself which he cannot unquestionably claim as his own; 'A voice was heard from the clouds declaring the inten tion of this visit, which was to restore and appropriats to every one what was his due.'—Addison.

Usurpers, who violate the laws both of God and man, are as much to be pitied as dreaded: they gene rally pay the price of their crimes in a miserable life, and a still more miserable death. Nothing exposes a man to greater ridicule than arrogating to himself titles and distinctions which do not belong to him. Although a man may sometimes innocently assume to himself the right of judging for others, yet he can never, with any degree of justice, assume the right of oppressing them. Self-complacence leads many to ascribe great merit to themselves for things which are gene-

rally regarded as trifling.

Arrogating as an action, or arrogance as a disposi-tion, is always taken in a bad sense: the former is always dictated by the most preposterous pride; the latter is associated with every unworthy quality. sumption, as an action, varies in its character according to circumstances; it may be either good, bad, or indifferent: it is justifiable in certain exigencies to assume a command where there is no one else able to direct: it is often a matter of indifference what name a person assumes who does so only in conformity to the will of another; but it is always bad to assume a name as a mask to impose upon others.

As a disposition assumption is always had, but still As a disposition assumption is always hear out start not to the same degree as arragance. An arragant man renders himself intolerable to society, an assuming man makes himself offensive: arragance is the characteristick of men; assumption is peculiar to youths: an arragant man can be numbled only by silent contempt; 'Humility is expressed by the stooping and bending of the head; arrogance when it is lifted up, or, as we say, tossed up.'—DRYDEN. An as suming youth must be checked by the voice of authority; 'This makes him over-forward in business, assuming in conversation, and peremptory in answers. -Collier.

ARROGANCE, PRESUMPTION.

Arrogance signifies either the act of arrogating or the disposition to arrogate; presumption, from presume. Latin prassumo, compounded of probefore, and sumo to take or put, signifies the disposition to put one's self 'orwant'.

Arrogance is the act of the great; presumption that of the little: the arrogant man takes upon himself to be above others; 'I must coniess I was very much surprised to see so great a body of editors, criticks, commentators, and grammarians, meet with so very ill a reception. They had formed themselves into a body, and with a great deal of arrogance demanded the first station in the column of knowledge; but the goddess, instead of complying with their request, clapped them into liveries.'—Aponson. The presumption as a tivites to be on a level with those who are above him; 'In the vanity and presumption of youth, it is common to allege the consciousness of immoence as a reason for the contempt of censure.'—HAWKESWORTH. Arrogance is commonly coupled with haughtiness; presumption with meanness: men arrogantly demand as a right the homage which has perhaps before been voluntarily granted; the creature presumptuously arraigns the conduct of the Creator, and murnurs against the dispensations of his providence.

TO APPROPRIATE, IMPROPRIATE.

To appropriate (v. To appropriate) is to consign to some particular use;

Some they appropriated to the gods,
And some to publick, some to private ends.

Roscommon.

But in a more particular manner to take to one's own private use; 'Why should people engross and appropriate the common benefits of fire, air, and water to themselves.'—L'ESTRANGE. To impropriate is in some cases used in this latter sense; 'For the pardon of the rest, the king thought it not fit it should pass by Parliament; the better, being matter of grace, to impropriate the thanks to himself.'—Bacon. But for the most part this word has been employed to denote the lawless appropriation of the church lands by the laity, which took place at the Reformation; 'Those impropriated livings, which have now no settled endowment, and are therefore called not vicarages, but prepetual or sometimes arbitrary curacies; they are such, as belonged formerly to those orders who could serve the cure of them in their own persons.'—Wharton.

PRELUDE, PREFACE.

Prelude, from the Latin præ before and ludo to play, signifies the game that precedes another; preface, from the Latin for to speak, signifies the speech that pre-

The idea of a preparatory introduction is included in both these terms, but the former consists of actions; the latter of words; the throwing of stones and breaking of windows is the prelude on the part of a mob to a general roit; 'At this time there was a general peace all over the world, which was a proper prelude for ushering in his coming who was the Prince of peace.'

—PRIDEAUX. An apology for one's ill behaviour is sometimes the preface to soliciting a remission of punishment:

As no delay
Of preface brooking through his zeal of right.

The prelude is mostly preparatory to that which is in itself actually bad: the preface is mostly preparatory to something supposed to be objectionable. Intemperance in liquor is the prelude to every other extravagance; when one wishes to ensure compliance with a request that may possibly be unreasonable, it is necessary to pave the way by some suitable preface.

TO PREMISE, PRESUME.

Premise, from præ and mitta, signifies set down pefur-hand: presume, from præ and sumo to take, signifies to take beforehand.

Both these terms are employed in regard to our previous assertions or admissions of any circumstance; the former is used for what is theoretical or belongs to opinions; the latter is used for what is practical or belongs to facts: we premise that the existence of a Deity is unquestionable when we argue respecting his attributes; 'Here we must first premise what it is to enter into temptation.'—SOUTH. We presume that a person has a firm belief in divine revelation when we exhort him to follow the precepts of the Gospel; 'In the long famble metre, it does not appear that Chaucea ever composed at all; for I presume no one can imagine that he was the author of Gamelyn.'—Tyrwhitt. No argument can be pursued until we have premised those points upon which both parties are to agree: we must be careful not to presume upon more than what we are fully authorized to take for certain.

PECULIAR, APPROPRIATE, PARTICULAR,

Peculiar, in Latin peculiaris, comes from pecus cattle, that is, the cattle which belonged to the slave or servant, in distinction from the master; and the epithet, therefore, designates in a strong manner private property, belonging exclusively to one's self; appropriate signifies appropriated (v. To ascribe); particular (v. Particular).

Peculiar is said of that which belongs to persons or things; appropriate is said of that which belongs to things only: the faculty of speech is peculiar to man, in distinction from all other animals; 'I agree with Sir William Temple, but not that the thing itself is peculiar to the English, because the contrary may be found in many Spanish, Italian, and French productions.'— Swift. An address may be appropriate to the circumstances of the individual who makes it; 'Modesty and diffidence, gentleness and meekness, were looked upon as the appropriate virtues of the sex.'—Johnson. Peculiar designates simple property; appropriate designates the right of propriety; there are advantages and disadvantages peculiar to every situation; the excellence of a discourse depends often on its being appropriate to the season Peculiar and particular are both employed to distinguish objects; but the former distinguishes the object by showing its connexion with, or alliance to, others; particular distinguishes it by a reference to some acknowledged circumstance; hence we may say that a person enjoys peculiar signifies such as are confined to him, and enjoyed by none else;

Great father Bacchus, to my song repair,
For clust ring grapes are thy peculiar care.
DRYDEN.

Particular signifies such as are distinguished in degree and quality from others of the kind; 'This is true of actions considered in their general nature or kind, but not considered in their particular individual instances.'—Sourm.

TO ASCRIBE, ATTRIBUTE, IMPUTE.

Ascribe signifies the same as in the article under To Appropriate, Usurp; attribute, in Latin attributus, participle of attribuo, compounded of ad and tribuo, signifies to bestow upon, or attach to a thing what belongs to it; impute, compounded of im or in and pute, Latin puto to think, signifies to think or judge what is in a thing.

To ascribe is to assign any thing to a person as his property, his possession, or the fruit of his labour, &c.; to attribute is to assign things to others as their causes; to impute is to assign qualities to persons. Milton ascribes the first use of artillery to the rebel angels; the loss of a vessel is attributed to the violence of the storm; the conduct of the captain is imputed to his want of firmness. The letters of Junius have been falsely ascribed to many persons in succession, as the author to this day remains concealed, and out of the reach of even probable conjecture; the oracles of the heathens are ascribed by some theologians to the devil; 'Holiness is ascribed to the pope; majesty to kings; serenity or mildness to princes; excellence or perfection to ambassadors; grace to archibishops; honour to peers.'—Additionally in the impurement of the Great is attributed to his intemperance; generosity has been imputed to him from his conduct on certain occasions, but particularly in his treatment of the Persian princesses, the relatives of Darius; 'Perhaps it may appear

upon examination that the most polite ages are the least This may be attributed to the folly of admitting wit and learning as merit in themselves, without in their innovations should follow the example of time, which innovateth, but quietly, and by degrees scarce to be perceived, for otherwise what is new and unlooked for, ever mends some and impairs others; and he that is hurt for a wrong imputeth it to the author.'-BACON.

Ascribe is mostly used in a favourable or indifferent Ascribe is mostly used in a lavourable or indinerent sense; impute is either favourable or unfavourable. In the doxology of the church ritual, all honour, might, majesty, dominion, and power, are ascribed to the three persons in the Holy Trinity; the actions of men are often so equivocal that it is difficult to decide whether praise or blame ought to be imputed to them; whether praise of blame ought to be imputed to them;
'I made it by your persuasion, to satisfy those who
imputed it to folly.'—Temple. 'We who are adepts
in astrology can impute it to several causes in the
planets, that this quarter of our great city is the region
of such as either never had, or have lost, the use of
reason.'—Steele.

QUALITY, PROPERTY, ATTRIBUTE.

Quality, in Latin qualitas, from qualis such, signifies such as a thing really is; property, which is changed from propriety and proprius proper or one's own, signifies belonging to a thing as an essential ingredient; attribute, in Latin attributus, participle of attribuo to bestow upon, signifies the things bestowed upon or assigned to another.

The quality is that which is inherent in the object and co-existent; 'Humility and patience, industry and amt to existent, intuining and pattered, intuitive and temperance, are very often the good qualities of a poor man.—Addition.—Additional into the time being; 'No man can have sunk so far into stupidity, as not to consider the properties of the ground on which he walks, of the plants on which he feeds, or of the animals that delight his ear.'—Johnson. The attribute is the quality which is assigned to any object;

Man o'er a wider field extends his views, God through the wonder of his works pursues, Exploring thence his attributes and laws, Adores, loves, imitates, th' Eternal Cause

JENYNS.

We cannot alter the quality of a thing without altering the whole thing; but we may give or take away pro-perties from bodies at pleasure, without entirely destroying their identity; and we may ascribe attributes at discretion.

PRESUMPTIVE, PRESUMPTUOUS, PRE-SUMING.

Presumptive comes from presume, in the sense of supposing or taking for granted; presumptuous, presuming (v. Arrogance), come from the same verb in the sense of taking upon one's self, or taking to one's self any importance: the former is therefore employed in an indifferent, the latter in a bad acceptation: a presumptive heir is one presumed or expected to be heir; presumptive evidence is evidence founded on some pre sumption or supposition; so likewise presumptive rea-soning; 'There is no qualification for government but virtue and wisdom, actual or presumptive.'—Burke. A presumptuous man, a presumptuous thought, a pre-sumptuous behaviour, all indicate an unauthorized presumption in one's own favour; 'See what is got by those presumptuous principles which have brought your leaders (of the revolution) to despise all their predecessors '--BURKE. Presumptuous is a stronger term than presuming, because it has a more definite use; the former designates the express quality of presumption, the latter the inclination; a man is presumptuous when his conduct partakes of the nature of presumption; he is presuming inasmuch as he shows himself disposed to presume; hence we speak of a presumptuous language, not a presumpt language; a presumpt to us single guage, not a presumpt language; a presumpt saw temper. In like manner when one says it is presumpt us in a man to do any thing, this expresses the idea of presumption much more forcibly than to say it is presuming in him to do it. It would be presumptuous in a man to address a monarch in the an juage of familiarity and disrespect; it is presuming

in a common person to address any one who is superlour in station with familiarity and disrespect.

TO DENY, REFUSE.

Deny, in Latin denego, or nego, that is, ne or non and ago, signifies to say no to a thing; refuse, in Latin refusus, from re and fundo to pour, signifies to throw back that which is presented.

To deny respects matters of fact or knowledge; to fact matters of wish or request. We deny what refuse matters of wish or request. refuse matters of wish or request. We deny what immediately belongs to ourselves; we refuse what belongs to another. We deny as to the past; we refuse as to the future: we deny our participation in that which has been; we refuse our participation in that which may be: to deny must always be expressly verbal; a refusal may sometimes be signified by actions or looks as well as words. A denial affects our

veracity; a refusal affects our good-nature.

To deny is likewise sometimes used in regard to one's own gratifications as well as to one's knowledge, in which case it is still more analogous to refuse which regards the gratifications of another. In this case we say we deny a person a thing, but we refuse his request, or refuse to do a thing;

Jove to his Thetis nothing could deny,
Nor was the signal vain that shook the sky.
POPE.

O sire of Gods and men! Thy suppliant hear; Refuse or grant; for what has Jove to fear?

Some Christians think it very meritorious to deny themselves their usual quantity of food at certain times; they are however but sorry professors of Christianity if they refuse at the same time to give of their substance to the poor. Instances are not rare of misers who have denied themselves the common necessaries of life, and yet have never refused to relieve those who were in distress, or assist those who were in trouble.

Deny is sometimes the act of unconscious agents; refuse is always a personal and intentional act. are sometimes denied by circumstances the consolation of seeing our friends before they die;

Inquire you how these pow'rs we shall attain? 'T is not for us to know; our search is vain; Can any one remember or relate How he existed in the embryo state? That light's deny'd to him which others see, He knows perhaps you 'll say-and so do we

TO REFUSE, DECLINE, REJECT, REPEL, REBUFF.

Refuse signifies, as in the preceding article, simply to pour, that is, to send back, which is the common idea of all these terms; to decline, in Latin decline, is literally to turn aside; to reject, from jacio to throw, is to cast back; repel, from pello to drive, to drive back; to rebuff, from buff or puff, signifies to puff one back, send off with a puff.

Refuse is an unqualified action, it is accompanied with no expression of opinion; decline is a gentle and indirect mode of refusal; reject is a direct mode, and conveys a positive sentiment of disapprobation; we refuse what is asked of us, for want of inclination to comply;

But all her arts are still employ'd in vain; Again she comes, and is refus'd again.

We decline what is proposed from motives of discre 'Melissa, though she could not boast the apathy of Cato, wanted not the more prudent virtue of Scipio, and gained the victory by declining the contest.'— Johnson. We reject what is offered to us, because it does not fall in with our views;

Why should he then reject a suit so just ?- DRYDEN. We refuse to listen to the suggestions of our friends; Having most affectionately set life and death before them, and conjured them to choose one and avoid the other, he still leaves unto them, as to free and rational agents, a liberty to refuse all his calls, to let his talents lie by them unprofitable."—Hammond We decline ap

offer of service; 'Could Caroline have been captivated : with the glories of this world, she had them all laid be fore her; but she generously declined them, because she fore her; but she generously declaned them, because she saw the acceptance of them was inconsistent with religion.'—Addison. We reject the insinuations of the interested and evil-minded; 'Whether it be a divine revelation or no, reason must judge, which can never permit the mind to reject a greater evidence, to embrace what is less evident.'—Lockk. To refuse is properly the act of an individual; to reject is said of that which comes from any quarter: requests and petitions are refused by those who are solicited; opinions. tions are refused by those who are solicited; opinions, propositions, and counsels, are rejected by particular communities: the king refuses to give his assent to a bill; 'If he should choose the right casket, you should refuse to perform his father's will, if you should refuse to accept him.'—Shakspeare. The parliament rejects a bill; 'The House was then so far from being possessed with that spirit, that the utmost that could be obtained, upon a long debate upon that petition (for the total extirpation of episcopacy) was, that it should not be rejected.'-CLARENDON.

To repel is to reject with violence; to rebuff is to refuse with contempt. We refuse and reject that which is either offered, or simply presents itself, for accept ance: but we repel and rebuff that which forces itself into our presence, contrary to our inclination: we repel the attack of an enemy, or we repel the advances of one who is not agreeable;

Th' unwearied watch their listening leaders keep, And, couching close, repel invading sleep .- Pork We rebuff those who put that in our way that is offen-

sive. Importunate persons must necessarily expect to meet with rebuffs, and are in general less susceptible of them than others; delicate minds feel a refusal as a rebuff;

At length rebuff'd, they leave their mangled prey

TO TAKE, RECEIVE, ACCEPT.

To take, which in all probability comes from the Latin tactum, participle of tango to touch, is a general term; receive, from re and capio to take back, and accept, from ac or ad and capio to take to one's self,

To take signifies to make one's own by coming in exclusive contact with it: to receive is to take under peculiar circumstances. We take either from things or persons; we receive from persons only: we take a book from the table; we receive a parcel which is sent us: we take either with or without the consent of the person; we receive it with his consent, or according to his wishes;

Each takes his seat, and each receives his share.

A robber takes money when he can find it; a friend receives the gift of a friend.

To receive is an act of right, we receive what is our own; to accept is an act of courtesy, we accept what is offered by another. To receive simply excludes the idea of refusal; to accept includes the idea of consent: we may receive with indifference or reluctance; but we accept with willingness: the idea of receiving is included in that of accepting, but not vice versa: what we receive may either involve an obligation or not; what we accept always involves the return of like courtesy at least: he who receives a debt is under no obligation, but he who receives a favour is bound by gratitude;

> The sweetest cordial we receive at last Is conscience of our virtuous actions past. DENHAM.

He who accepts a present will feel himself called upon to make some return:

Unransom'd here receive the spotless fair, Accept the hecatomb the Greeks prepare. - Pope.

RECEIPT, RECEPTION.

Receipt comes from receive, in its application to inanimate objects, which are taken into possession; reception comes from the same verb, in the sense of treating persons at their first arrival: in the commer-

cial intercourse of men, the receipt of goods or money must be acknowledged in writing; 'If a man will keep but of even hand, his ordinary expenses ought to be but to half of his receipts.'—BACON. In the friendly intercourse of men, their reception of each other will be polite or cold, according to the sentiments entertained towards the individual; '1 thank you and Mrs. Pope for my kind reception.'—Atter

TO CHOOSE, PREFER

Choose, in French choisir, German kiesen, from the French cher, Celtick choe dear or good, signifies to hold

French cher, Celtick choe dear or good, signifies to hold good; prefer, in French preferer, Latin præfero, compounded of præ and fero to take before, signifies to take one thing rather than another.

* To choose is to prefer as the genus to the species: we always choose in preferring, but we do not always prefer in choosing. To choose is to take one thing from among others; to prefer is to take one thing before or rather than another. We sometimes choose from the hare necessity of chaptering; but we never from the bare necessity of choosing; but we never prefer without making a positive and voluntary choice.

When we choose from a specifick motive, the acts of choosing and preferring differ in the nature of the motive. The former is absolute, the latter relative. We choose a thing for what it is, or what we esteem it to be of itself; we prefer a thing for what it has, or what we suppose it has, superiour to another; 'Judgement was wearied with the perplexity of choice where there was no motive for preference.'—JOHNSON.

Utility and convenience are grounds for choosing;

comparative merit occasions the preference: we choose something that is good, and are contented with it until we see something better which we prefer.

We calculate and pause in *choosing*; we decide in preferring; the judgement determines in making the choice; the will determines in giving the preference. We choose things from an estimate of their merits or their fitness for the purpose proposed; we prefer them from their accordance with our tastes, habits, and pursuits. Books are chosen by those who wish to read; romances and works of fiction are preferred by general readers; learned works by the scholar.

One who wants instruction chooses a master, but he will mostly prefer a teacher whom he knows to a perfect stranger. Our choice is good or bad according to our knowledge; our preference is just or unjust, according as it is sanctioned by reason.

Our choice may be directed by our own experience or that of others; our preference must be guided by our own feelings. We make our choice; we give our preference: the first is the settled purpose of the mind, it fixes on the object; the latter is the inclining of the

will, it yields to the object.

Choosing must be employed in all the important concerns of life; 'There is nothing of so great importance to us, as the good qualities of one to whom we join ourselves for life. When the *choice* is left to friends, the chief point under consideration is an estate: where the parties choose for themselves, their thoughts turn most upon the person.—Addison. Preferring is admissible in subordinate matters only; 'When a is admissible in subordinate matters only; when a man has a mind to venture his money in a lottery, every figure of it appears equally alluring; and no manner of reason can be given why a man should prefer one to the other before the lottery is drawn.—
ADDISON. There is but one thing that is right, and that ought to be chosen when it is discovered: there are many indifferent things that may suit our tastes and inclinations; these we are at liberty to prefer. But to prefer what we ought not to choose is to make our reason bend to our will. Our Saviour said of Mary that she chose the better part; had she consulted her feelings she would have preferred the part she had rejected. The path of life should be chosen; but the path to be taken in a walk may be preferred. It is advisable for a youth in the choice of a profession to consult what he prefers, as he has the greatest chance

* The Abbe Girard, under the article choisir, preferer, has reversed this rule; but as I conceive, from a confusion of thought, which pervades the whole of his illustration on these words. The Abbe Roubaud has controverted his positions with some degree of accuracy. I have, however, given my own view of the matter in distinction from either. of succeeding when he can combine his pleasure with his duty. A friend should be *chosen*; a companion may be *preferred*. A wife should be *chosen*; but unfortunately lovers are most apt to give a preference in a matter where a good or bad choice may determine one's happiness or misery for life. A wise prince is careful in the choice of his ministers; but a weak prince has mostly favourites whom he prefers.

TO CHOOSE, PICK, SELECT.

Choose signifies the same as in the preceding article; pick, in German picken, or bicken, French bicquer, Dutch becken, Icelandick picka, Swedish piacka, comes very probably from the old German bag, bich, to stick, very probably from the old German bag, bich, to stick, corresponding to the Latin figo to fix, signifying to fix upon; select, Latin selectus, participle of seligo, that is, lego to gather or put, and se apart.

Choose is as in the former case the generick; the others are specifick terms: pick and select are expressly different modes of choosing. We always choose when we pick and select; but we do not always pick and select when we choose.

select when we choose.

To choose may be applied to two or more things; to pick and select can be used only for several things. We may choose one book out of two, but we pick and

select out of a library or a parcel; pick may be said of one or many; select only of many.

To choose does not always spring from any particular design or preference; 'My friend, Sir Roger, being a good churchman, has beautified the inside of his church with several texts of his own choosing.'—
Addison. To pick and select signify to choose with care. What is picked and selected is always the best of its kind, but the former is commonly something of a physical nature; the latter of a moral or intellectual a physical nature; the latter of a more description. Soldiers are sometimes picked to form a particular regiment; '1 know, by several experiments, that those little animals (the ants) take great care to provide themselves with wheat when they can find it, and always pick out the best.'-ADDISON. Pieces are and anways pite out the selected in prose or verse for general purposes; 'The chief advantage which these fictions have over real life is, that their authors are at liberty, though not to invent, yet to select objects.'-- Johnson

TO CHOOSE, ELECT.

Both these terms are employed in regard to persons appointed to an office; the former in a general, the latter in a particular sense.

latter in a particular sense, prefer) is either the act of one man or of many; election, from eligo, or e and lego, signifying to take or gather out of or from, is always that of a number; it is performed by the coucurrence of many voices

A prince chooses his ministers; the constituents elect members of parliament. A person is chosen to serve the office of sheriff; he is elected by the corporation to

be mayor.

Choosing is an act of authority; it binds the person chosen: election is a voluntary act; the elected have the power of refusal. People are obliged to serve in some offices when they are chosen, although they would gladly be exempt;

Wise were the kings who never chose a friend Till with full cups they had unmask'd his soul, And seen the bottom of his deepest thoughts.

ROSCOMMON

The circumstance of being elected is an honour after which men eagerly aspire; and for the attainment of which they risk their property, and use the most strenuous exertions; 'This prince, in gratitude to the people, by whose consent he was chosen, elected a hundred senators out of the commoners.'-Swift.

ELIGIBLE, PREFERABLE.

Eligible, or fit to be elected, and preferable, fit to be preferred, serve as epithets in the sense of choose and prefer (v. To choose, prefer); what is eligible is desirable in itself, what is preferable is more desirable than another. There may be many eligible situations, out of which perhaps there is but one preferable. Of persons however we say rather that they are eligible to an office than preferable; 'The middle condition is

the most eligible to the man who would improve himself in virtue.'—Addison. The saying of Plato is, that labour is as preferable to idleness as brightness to rust!'-HUGHES.

OPTION, CHOICE.

Option is immediately of Latin derivation, and is consequently a term of less frequent use than the word choice, which has been shown (v. To choose) to be of Celtick origin. The former term, from the Greek όπτόμαι to see or consider, implies an uncontrolled act of the mind; the latter a simple leaning of the will. We speak of option only as regards one's freedom from external constraint in the act of choosing; one speaks of choice only as the simple act itself. The option or of choice only as the simple act itself. The option or the power of choosing is given; the choice itself is made: hence we say a thing is at a person's option, or it is his sown option, or the option is left to him, in order to designate his freedom of choice more strongly than is expressed by the word choice itself; 'While they talk we must make our choice, they or the jacobins. We have no other option.'-BURKE.

TO GATHER, COLLECT.

To gather, in Saxon gatherian, probably contracted from get here, signifies simply to bring to one spot. To collect, from colligo or col. cum, and lego to gather into one place, annexes also the idea of binding or forming into a whole; we gather that which is scat tered in different parts: thus stones are gathered into a heap; vessels are collected so as to form a fleet. thering is a mere act of necessity or convenience;

As the small ant (for she instructs the man, And preaches labour) gathers all she can. CREECH.

Collecting is an act of design or choice;

The royal bee, queen of the rosy bower,
Collects her precious sweets from every flower
C. Johnson.

We gather apples from a tree, or a servant gathers the books from the table; the antiquarian collects coins, or the bibliomaniac collects rare books.

ACCEPTABLE, GRATEFUL, WELCOME.

Acceptable signifies worthy to be accepted; grateful, from the Latin gratus pleasing, signifies altogether pleasing; it is that which recommends itself. The acceptable is a relative good; the grateful is positive: the former depends upon our external condition, the latter on our feelings and taste: a gift is acceptable to a poor man, which would be refused by one less needy than himself; 'I cannot but think the following letter from the Emperor of China to the Pope of Rome, proposing a coalition of the Chinese and Roman Churches, will be acceptable to the curious."—STELLE. Harmonious sounds are always grateful to a musical ear:

The kids with pleasure browze the bushy plain: The showers are grateful to the swelling grain.

Acceptable and welcome both apply to external circumstances, and are therefore relatively employed; but acceptable is confined to such things as are offered for our choice; but welcome, signifying come well or in season, refers to whatever happens according to our wishes: we may not always accept that which is ueceptable, but we shall never reject that which is welcome: it is an insult to offer any thing by way of a gift to another which is not acceptable; it is a grateful task to be the bearer of welcome intelligence to our friends; 'Whatever is remote from common appearances is always welcome to vulgar as to childish credulity.'--Johnson

ACCEPTANCE, ACCEPTATION.

Though both derived from the verb accept, have this Though both derived from the very accept, have find difference, that the former is employed to express the abstract action generally; the latter only in regard to particular objects. A book, or whatever else is offered to us, may be worthy of our acceptance or not; '1 is not necessary to refuse benefits from a bad man, when the acceptance implies no appropation of his crimes.'-Joinson. A word acquires its acceptation from the manner in which it is generally accepted by the learned; 'On the subject of dress I may add by way of caution that the ladies would do well not to forget themselves. I do not mean this in the common acceptation of the phrase, which it may be sometimes convenient and proper to do.'—MACKENZIE.

TO ADMIT,* RECEIVE.

Admit, in French admettre, Latin admitto, com-pounded of ad and mitto, signifies to send or suffer to pass into; receive, in French recevoir, Latin recipio, compounded of re and capio, signifies to take back or to one's se'f.

To admit is a general term, the sense of which depends upon what follows; to receive has a complete sense in itself: we cannot speak of admitting, without associating with it an idea of the object to which one is admitted; but receive includes no relative idea of the receiver or the received.

Admitting is an act of relative import; receiving is always a positive measure: a person may be admitted into a house, who is not prevented from entering;

Somewhat is sure design'd by fraud or force; Trust not their presents, nor admit the horse DRYDEN.

A person is received only by the actual consent of

some individual; He star'd and roll'd his haggard eyes around;

Then said, 'Alas! what earth remains, what sea Is open to receive unhappy me ?- DRYDEN. We may be admitted in various capacities; we are

received only as guests, friends, or inmates. Persons are admitted to the tables, and into the familiarity or confidence of others;

The Tyrian train, admitted to the feast, Approach, and on the painted couches rest. DRYDEN.

Persons are hospitably received by those who wish to be their entertainers

Pretending to consult About the great reception of their king Thither to come.—MILTON.

We admit willingly or reluctantly; we receive politely or rudely. Foreign ambassadors are admitted to an audience, and received at court. It is necessary to be cautious not to admit any one into our society, who may not be agreeable and suitable companions; but still more necessary not to receive any one into our houses whose character may reflect disgrace on our-

Whoever is admitted as a member of any community should consider himself as bound to conform to its regulations: whoever is received into the service of another should study to make himself valued and esteemed. A winning address, and agreeable manners, gain a person admittance into the genteelest circles: the talent for affording amusement, procures a person a good reception among the mass of mankind.

When applied to unconscious agents there is a similar distinction between these terms: ideas are admitted ar unstruction between these terms; neas are admitted into the mind by means of association and the like; 'There are some ideas which have admittance only through one sense, which is peculiarly adapted to receive them.'—Locke. Things are received by others in consequence of their adaptation to each other;

The thin-leav'd arbute hazel-grafts receives, And planes huge apples bare, that bore but leaves.

ADMITTANCE, ACCESS, APPROACH.

Admittance marks the act or liberty of admitting (v. To admit, receive); access, from accedo to approach or come up to, marks the act or liberty of approaching; approach, from ap or ad and proximus nearest, signifies coming near or drawing near.

We get admittance into a place or a society; we have access to a person; and make an approach either

towards a person or a thing.

* Girard: " Amettre, recevoir."

Admittance may be open or excluded; access and

approach may be free or difficult.

We have admittance when we enter; we have access to him whom we address. There can be no access where there is no admittance; but there may be admittance. mittance without access. Servants or officers may grant us admittance into the palaces of princes; 'As my pleasures are almost wholly confined to those of the sight, I take it for a peculiar happiness that I have always had an easy and familiar admittance to the fair sex."—Steele. The favourites of princes have access to their persons; 'Do not be surprised, most holy father, at seeing, instead of a coxcomb to laugh at, your old friend who has taken this way of access to admonish you of your own folly.'—Steele.

Access and admittance are here considered as the acts of conscious agents; approach is as properly the act of unconscious as conscious agents. We may speak of the approach of an army, or the approach of

a war;

'T is with our souls

As with our eyes, that after a long darkness Are dazzled at th' approach of sudden light.

Admittance may likewise sometimes be taken figura lively, as when we speak of the admittance of ideas into the mind.

ADMITTANCE, ADMISSION.

These words differ according to the different acceptations of the primitive from which they are both derived; the former being taken in the proper sense or familiar style, and the latter in the figurative sense or in the grave style.

The admittance to publick places of entertainment is on particular occasions difficult; 'Assurance never failed to get admittance into the houses of the great.'

—Moore. The admission of irregularities, however trifling in the commencement, is mostly attended with serious consequences; 'The gospel has then only a free admission into the assent of the understanding when it brings a passport from a rightly disposed will' -South.

IMPERVIOUS, IMPASSABLE, INACCESSIBLE

Impervious, from the Latin in, per, and via, significs not having a way through; impassable, not to be approached. A wood is impercious when the trees, branches, and leaves are entangled to such a degree as to admit of no passage at all :

The monster, Cacus, more than half a beast. This hold impervious to the sun possess'd.

DRYDEN. A river is impassable that is so deep that it cannot be forded.

But lest the difficulty of passing back Stay his return perhaps over this gulf Impassable, impervious, let us try Advent'rous work .- MILTON.

A rock or a mountain is inaccessible the summit of which is not to be reached by any path whatever;

At least our envious foe hath fail'd who thought All like himself rebellious, by whose aid This inaccessible high strength, the seat

Of Deity Supreme, us dispossess'd, He trusted to have seiz'd .- MILTON.

What is impervious is for a permanency; what is im passable is commonly so only for a time: roads are frequently impassable in the winter that are passable in the summer, while a thicket is impervious during the whole of the year: impassable is likewise said only of that which is to be passed by living creatures, but impervious may be extended to inanimate objects; a wood may be impervious to the rays of the sun.

TO APPROACH, APPROXIMATE.

Approach, in French approcher, compound of ap or ad and proche, or in Latin prope near, signifies to come near; approximate, compounded of ap and proximus to come nearest or next, signifies either to draw near or bring near.

To approach is intransitive only; a person approaches an object; 'Lambs push at those that approach them with their heads before the first budding of a horn appears.'—Addison. To approximate is both transitive and intransitive; a person approximates two objects; 'Shakspeare approximates the remote and far.'— JOHNSON.

To approach denotes simply the moving of an object towards another, but to approximate denotes the gradual moving of two objects towards each other: that which approaches may come into immediate conjunction; 'Comets, in their approaches towards the earth, are imagined to cause diseases, famines, and other such like judgements of God.'—Derham. But bodies may approximate for some time before they form a junction, or may never form a junction; 'The approximations and recesses of some of the little stars I speak of, suit not with the observations of some very ancient astronomers. "Derham. An equivocation approaches to a lie. Minds approximate by long intercourse.

TO HOLD, KEEP, DETAIN, RETAIN.

Hold, in Saxon healden, Teutonick holden; is probably connected with the verb to have, in Latin habeo, &c.; keep in all probability comes from capio to lay hold of; detain and retain both come from the Latin teneo to hold; the first signifies, by virtue of the par-ticle de, to hold from another; the second, by virtue of the particle re, signifies to hold back for one's self.

To hold is a physical act; it requires a degree of bodily strength, or at least the use of the limbs; to keep is simply to have by one at one's pleasure. The mode of the action is the leading idea in the signifimode of the action is the leading that it is to leading idea in the word keep; we may kold a thing only for a moment: but what we keep we keep for a time. On the other hand, we may keep a thing by holding, although we may keep it by various other means: we may therefore hold without keeping, and we may keep without holding. A servant holds a thing in his hand for it to be seen, but he does not keep it; he gives it to his master who puts it into his pocket, and consequently keeps, but does not hold it. A thing may be keld in the hand, or kept in the hand; in the former case, the pressure of the hand is an essential part of the action, but in the latter case it is simply a continzent part of the action: the hand holds, but the person

keeps it.
What is held is fixed in position, but what is kept is left loose or otherwise, at the will of the individual. Things are held by human beings in their hands, by beasts in their claws or mouths, by birds in their beaks; things are kept by human beings either about their persons or in their houses, according to convenience:

France, thou mayst hold a serpent by the tongue, A fasting tiger safer by the tooth,

Than keep in peace that hand which thou dost hold. SHAKSPEARE.

Detain and retain are modes of keeping: the former signifies keeping back what belongs to another; the latter signifies keeping a long time for one's own purpose. A person may be either held, kept, detained, or retained : when he is held he is held contrary to his will by the hand of another; as suspected persons are held by the officers of justice, that they may not make their escape: he is kept, if he stops in any place, by the desire of another; as a man is kept in prison until his innocence is proved; or a child is kept at school, until he has finished his education; he is detained if he be kept away from any place to which he is going, or from any person to whom he belongs; as the servant of scathering details detailed by the letter of complete in t of another is detained to take back a letter; or one is detained by business, so as to be prevented attending to an appointment: a person is retained, who is kept for a continuance in the service, the favour, or the power of another; as some servants are said to be retained while others are dismissed;

Too late it was for satyr to be told. Or ever hope recover her again;

In vain he seeks, that having, cannot hold.

SPENSER.

That I may know what keeps you here with me. DRYDEN

'He has described the passion of Calypso, and the indecent advances she made to detain him from his

country."—Broome. 'Having the address to retata the conquest she (Roxalana) had made, she kept pos-session of his (Solyman's) love without any rival for many years."—Robertson.

These words bear a similar analogy to each other in an extended application. A money-lender holds the property of others in pledge; the idea of a temporary and partial action is here expressed by hold, in distinction from keep, which is used to express something definition nite and permanent; 'Assuredly it is more shame for a man to lose that which he holdeth, than to fail in getting that which he never had.'—HAYWARD. The moneylender keeps the property as his own, if the borrower forfeits it by breach of contract;

> This charge I keep until my appointed day Of rendering up.-MILTON.

When a person purchases any thing, he is expected to keep it, or pay the value of the thing ordered, if the tradesman fulfil his part of the engagement. What is detained is kept either contrary to the will, or without the consent, of the possessor: when things are suspected to be stolen, the officers of justice have the right of detaining them until inquiry be instituted;

Haste! goddess, haste! the flying host detain Nor let one sail be hoisted on the main.—POPE

What is retained is continued to be kept; it supposes, however, some alteration in the terms or circumstances under which it is kept; a person retains his seat in a coach, notwithstanding he finds it disagreeable; or a lady retains some of the articles of millinery, which are sent for her choice, but she returns the rest;

> Let me retain The name, and all th' addition to a king, SHAKSPEARE.

All are used in a moral application except detain; ir. Artare used in a moral application except actual; in this case they are marked by a similar distinction. A person is said to hold an office, by which simple pos session is implied; he may hold it for a long or a short time, at the will of others, or by his own will, which are not marked; he keeps a situation, or he keeps his post, by which his continuance in the situation, or at the Lost, are denoted: he retains his office, by which is signified that he might have given it up, or lost it, had he not been led to continue in it. In like manner, with regard to one's sentiments, feelings, or external circum stances, a man is said to hold certain opinions, which are ascribed to him as a part of his creed; 'It is a cerare asserted to that as a part of its creed; "It is a certain sign of a wise government, when it can hold men's hearts by hopes."—BACON. A person keeps his opinions when no one can induce him to give them up; 'The proof is best when men keep their authority towards their children, but not their purse.'—BACON. He retains his old attachments, notwithstanding the lapse of years, and change of circumstances, which have intervened, and were naturally calculated to wean him; 'Ideas are retained by renovation of that impression which time is always wearing away.'-Johnson.

TO HOLD, OCCUPY, POSSESS.

Hold has the same general meaning as in the pre ceding article; occupy, in Latin occupo, or oc and capio to hold or keep, signifies to keep so that it cannot be held by others; possess, in Latin possideo, or potis and

we hold a thing for a long or a short time; we occupy it for a permanence: we hold it for ourselves or others: we occupy it only for ourselves: we hold it for various purposes; we occupy only for the purpose of converting it to our private use. Thus a person may hold an estate, or, which is the same thing, the title deeds to an estate pro tempore, for another person's benefit: but he occupies an estate if he enjoys the fruit of it. On the other hand, to occupy is only to hold under a certain compact; but to possess is to hold as one's own. tenant occupies the farm when he holds it by a certain lease, and cultivates it for his subsistence; but the landlord possesses the farm who possesses the right to let it, and to receive the rent.

We may hold by force, or fraud, or right;

He (the eagle) drives them from his fort the towering

Seat,
For ages of his empire which in peace
Unstain'd he holds.'—Thomson

We occupy either by force or right; 'If the title of accupiers be good in a land unpeopled, why should it be bad accounted in a country peopled thinly. — RALEIGH.

We possess only by right;

But now the feather'd youth their former bounds Ardent disdain, and weighing oft their wings,
Demand the free possession of the sky.

Thomson.

Hence we say figuratively, to hold a person in esteem or contempt, to occupy a person's attention, to occupy a place, &c. or to possess one's affection;

I, as a stranger to my heart and me, Hold thee from this for ever.—SHAKSPEARE.

'He must assert infinite generations before that first deluge, and then the earth could not receive them, but the infinite bodies of men must occupy an infinite space.'--BENTLEY.

Of fortune's favour long possess'd, He was with one fair daughter only bless'd.

DRYDEN.

TO HOLD, SUPPORT, MAINTAIN.

Hold is here, as in the former article, a term of very general import; to support, from sub and porto to carry, signifying to bear the weight of a thing; and to maintain, from the French maintenir, and the Latin manus a hand, and teneo to hold, signifying to hold firmly, are

particular modes of holding.

Hold and support are employed in the proper sense, maintain in the improper sense. To hold is a term unqualified by any circumstance; we may hold a thing in any direction, hold up or down, straight or crooked: support is a species of holding up; to hold up, however, is a personal act, or a direct effort of the individual; to support may be an indirect and a passive act; he who holds any thing up keeps it in an upright posture, by the exertion of his strength; he who supports a thing only bears its weight, or suffers it to rest upon himself; persons or voluntary agents can hold up; inanimate objects may support; a servant holds up a child that it may a pillar supports a building.

Hold, maintain, and support are likewise employed still farther in a moral application, as it respects the still tartner in a moral application, as it respects the different opinions and circumstances of men; opinions are held and maintained as one's own; they are supported when they are another's. We hold and maintain when we believe; we support the belief or doctrine when we believe; we support the belief of doctrine of another, or what we ourselves have asserted and maintained at a former time. What is held is held by the act of the mind within one's self; what is maintained and supported is openly declared to be held. To hold marks simply the state of one's own mind; 'It was a notable observation of a wise father, that those which held and persuaded pressure of consciences were commonly interested therein themselves for their own ends.'-Bacon. To maintain indicates the effort which one makes to inform others of this state; 'If any man of quality will maintain upon Edward, Earl of Gloucester, that he is a manifold traitor, let him appear.'—Shakspeare. To support indicates the efforts which one makes to justify that state. We hold an opinion only as it regards ourselves; we maintain and support it as it regards others; that is, we maintain it either with others, for others, or against others: we support it in an especial manner against others: we maintain it by assertion; we support it by argument. Bad principles do harm only to the individual when they are held; they will do harm to all over whom our influence extends when we maintain them; they may do harm to all the world, when we undertake to support them. Good principles need only be held, or at most maintained, unless where adversaries set themselves up against them, and render it necessary to support them. Infidel principles have been held occasionally by individuals in all ages, but they were never maintained with so much openness and effrontery at any time, as at the close of the eighteenth century, when supporters of such principles were to be found in every tap-room.

Hold is applied not only to principles and opinions, but also to sentiments; maintain and support are confined either to abstract and speculative opinions, or to the whole mind: we hold a thing dear or cheap, we hold itin abhorrence, or we hold it sacred, 'As Chaucer

is the father of English poetry, so I hold him in the same degree of veneration as the Grecians held Homer, or the Romans Virgil.'—DRYDEN. We maintain or support truth or errour; we maintain an influence over ourselves, or maintain a cause;

Who then is free? The wise, who well maintains An empire o'er himself .-- Francis

We support our resolution or our minds; 'Nothing can support the minds of the guilty from drooping. SOUTH.

TO HAVE, POSSESS.

Have, in German haben, Latin habeo, not improbably from the Hebrew אבר to desire, or אבר he loved, because those who have most, desire most, or because men love worldly possessions above every thing else; possess has the same meaning as in the preceding article; have is the general, possess is the particular term: have designates no circumstance of the action; possess

expresses a particular species of having.

To have is sometimes to have in one's hand or within one's reach; but to possess is to have as one's own: a clerk has the money which he has fetched for his employer; the latter possesses the money, which he has the power of turning to his use. To have is sometimes to have the right to, to belong; to possess is to have by one and at one's command; a debtor has the property which he has surrendered to his creditor; but he cannot be said to possess it, because he has it not within his reach, and at his disposal: * we are not necessarily masters of that which we have; although we always are of that which we possess: to have is sometimes only temporary; to possess is mostly permanent: we have money which we are perpetually disposing of; we possess lands which we keep for a permanency: a person has the good graces of those whom he pleases; he possesses the confidence of those who put every thing in his power: the stoutest heart may have occasional alarms, but will never lose its self-possession: a husband has continual torments who is possessed by the demon of jealousy; a miser has goods in his coffers, but he is not master of them; they possess his heart and affections: we have things by halves when we share them with others; we possess them only when they are exclusively ours and we enjoy them undividedly. videdly;

> That I spent, that I had; That I gave, that I have; That I left, that I lost. EPITAPH ON A CHARITABLE MAN

A lover has the affections of his mistress by whom he is beloved; he possesses her whole heart when she loves him only: one has an interest in a mercantile concern in which he is a partner; the lord of a manor possesses all the rights annexed to that manor; 'The various objects that compose the world were by nature formed to delight our senses; and as it is this alone that makes them desirable to an uncorrupted taste, a man may be said naturally to possess them when he possesseth those enjoyments which they are fitted by nature to yield.'—Berkeley.

TO LAY OR TAKE HOLD OF, CATCH, SEIZE, SNATCH, GRASP, GRIPE.

To lay or take hold of is here the generick expression; it denotes simply getting into the possession, which is the common idea in the signification of all these terms, the common idea in the signification of all these terms, which differ chiefly in regard to the motion in which the action is performed. To catch is to lay hold of with violence. To snatch is to lay hold of by a sudden and violent effort. One is said to lay hold of that on which he places his hand; he takes hold of that which he secures in his hand. We lay hold of any thing when we see it in this hand. We tay and of any thing when we wish to lift it up; 'Sometimes it happens that a corn slips out of their paws when they (the ants) are climbing up; they take hold of it again when they can find it, otherwise they look for another.'—ADDISON. We catch the thing which attempts to escape; 'One great genius

^{*} Vide Abbe Girard: "Avoir, posséder

often catches the flame from another.'—Addison. We of possessing a thing, over which we have actually no seize a thing when it makes resistance; power of control: in this case, we are nominally pos-

Furious he said, and tow'rd the Grecian crew, (Seiz'd by the crest) th' unhappy warriour drew.

We snatch that which we are particularly afraid of not getting otherwise;

The hungry harpies fly,
They snatch the meat, defiling all they find.
DRYDEN.

A person, who is fainting, lays hold of the first thing which comes in his way; a sick person or one that wants support takes hold of another's arm in walking; various artifices are employed to catch animals; the wild beasts of the forest seize their prey the moment they come within their reach; it is the rude sport of a schoolboy to snatch out of the hand of another that which he is not willing to let go.

To lay hold of is to get in the possession. To grasp and to gripe signify to have or keep in the possession: an eagerness to keep or not to let go is expressed by that of grasping;

Like a miser 'midst his store,
Who grasps and grasps 'till he can hold no more.
DRYDEN.

A fearful anxiety of losing and an earnest desire of keeping is expressed by the act of griping;

They gripe their oaks; and every panting breast Is rais'd by turns with hope, by turns with fear depress'd.

When a famished man lays hold of food, he grasps it, from a convulsive kind of fear lest it should leave him; when a miser lays hold of money he gripes it from the love he bears to it; and the fear he has that it will be taken from him.

OCCUPANCY, OCCUPATION,

Are words which derive their meaning from the different acceptations of the primitive verb occupy; the former being used to express the state of holding or possessing any object; the latter to express the act of taking possession of, or keeping in possession. He who has the occupancy of land enjoys the fruits of it; 'As occupancy gave the right to the temporary use of the soil; so it is agreed on all hands, that occupancy gave also the original right to the permanent property in the substance of the earth itself.'—BLACKSTONE. The occupation of a country by force of arms is of little avail, unless one has an adequate force to maintain one's ground; 'The unhappy consequences of this temperament is, that my attachment to any occupation seldom outlives its novelty.'—Cowper.

POSSESSOR, PROPRIETOR, OWNER, MASTER.

The possessor has the full power, if not the right, of the present disposal over the object of possession; 'I am convinced that a possick talent is a blessing to its possessor.'—Seward. The proprietor and owner has the unlimited right of transfer, but not always the power of immediate disposal. The proprietor and the owner are the same in signification, though not in application; the first term being used principally in regard to matters of importance; the latter on familiar occasions: the proprietor of an estate is a more suitable expression than the owner of an estate;

Death! great proprietor of all! 'T is thine
To tread out empire and to quench the state.

Young

The owner of a book is a more becoming expression than the proprietor; 'One cause of the insufficiency of riches (to produce happiness) is, that they very seldon make their owner rich.'—Johnson. The possessor and the master are commonly the same person, when those things are in question which are subject to possession; but the terms are otherwise so different in their original meaning, that they can scarcely admit of comparison: the possessor of a house is naturally the master of the house; and, in general, whatever a man possesses, that he has in his power, and is consecurity master of; but we may have, legally, the right

of possessing a thing, over which we have actually no power of control: in this case, we are nominally possessor, but virtually not master. A minor, or insane person, may be both possessor and proprietor of that over which he has no control; a man is, therefore, on the other hand, appropriately denominated master, not possessor of his actions;

There, Cæsar, grac'd with both Minervas, shone, Cæsar, the world's great master, and his own.

TO SUSTAIN, SUPPORT; MAINTAIN.

The idea of exerting one's self to keep an object from sinking is common to all these terms, which vary einher in the mode or the object of the action. To sustain, from the Latin sustineo, i. e. sus or sub and tense to hold, signifying to hold from underneath; and support, from sub and porto to bear signifying to bear from underneath, are passive actions, and imply that we bear the weight of something pressing upon us; maintain (v. To assert) is active, and implies that we exert ourselves so as to keep it from pressing upon us. We sustain a load; we support a burden; we maintain a contest. The principal difficulty in an engagement is often to sustain the first shock of the attack;

With labour spent, no longer can he wield The heavy falchion, or sustain the shield, O'erwhelm'd with darts.—DRYDEN.

A soldier has not merely to support the weight of hts arms, but to maintain his post; 'Let this support and comfort you, that you are the father of ten children, among whom there seems to be but one soul of love and obedience."—LYTLETON. What is sustained is often temporary, what is supported is mostly permanent: a loss or an injury is sustained; pain, distress, and misfortunes, are supported: maintain, on the other hand, is mostly something of importance or advantage; credit must always be maintained;

As compass'd with a wood of spears around, The lordly lion still maintains his ground, So Turnus fares.—DRYDEN.

We must sustain a loss with tranquillity; we must support an affliction with equanimity; we must maintain our own honour, and that of the community to which we belong, by the rectitude of our conduct.

STAFF, STAY, PROP, SUPPORT.

From staff in the literal sense (v. Staff) comes staff in the figurative application: any thing may be demominated a staff which holds up after the manner of a staff, particularly as it respects persons; bread is said to be the staff of life; one persons is pread is said to be the staff of life; one persons may serve as a staff to another. The staff serves in a state of motion; 'Let shame and confusion then cover me if I do not abhor the intolerable anxiety I well understand to wait inseparably upon that staff of going about beguilefully to supplant any man.'—LORD WENTWORTH. The stay and prop are employed for objects in a state of rest: the stay makes a thing stay for the time being, it keeps it from falling; it is equally applied to persons and things; we may be a stay to a person who is falling by letting his body rest against us; in the same manner buttresses against a wall, and shores against a building, serve the purpose of a stay, while it is under repair. For the same reason that part of a female's dress which serves as a stay to the body is denominated stays; the prop keeps a thing up for a permanency; every pillar on which a building rests is a prop; whatever therefore requires to be raised from the ground, and kept in that state, may be set upon props; between the stay and the prop there is this obvious distinction, that as the stay does not receive the whole weight, it is put so as to receive it indirectly, by leaning against the object; but the prop, for a contary reason, is put upright underneath the object so as to receive the weight directly: the derivation of this word prop, from the Dutch proppe a plug, and the German pfropfen a cork, does not seem to account very clearly for its present use in English.

Stay and prop may be figuratively extended in their application with the same distinction in their sense; a crust of bread may serve as a stay to the stomach;

If hope precarious, and of things when gain'd Of little moment, and as little stay, Can sweeten toils and dangers into joys, When then that hope which nothing can defeat?

A person's money may serve as a prop for the credit of another. Support is altogether taken in the moral and abstract sense. whatever supports, that is, bears the weight of an object, is a support, whether in a state of motion like a staff, or in a state of rest like a stay; whether to hear the weight in part like a stay, or alto whether to near the weight in part like a stay, or altogether like a prop, it is still a support: but the term is likewise employed on all occasions in which the other terms are not admissible. Whatever supports existence, whether directly or indirectly, is a support; food is the support of the animal body; labour or any particular employment is likewise one's support, or the indirect means of gaining the support; hope is the support of the mind under the most trying circumstances; religion, as the foundation of all our hopes, is the best and surest support under affliction;

Whate'er thy many fingers can entwine, Proves thy *support* and all its strength is thine, Tho' nature gave not legs, it gave thee hands, By which thy prop, thy prouder cedar stands. DENHAM.

STAFF, STICK, CRUTCH Staff, in Low German staff, &c., in Latin stipes, in Greek $\varsigma \acute{v} \pi \eta$, comes from $\varsigma \acute{v} \acute{v} \omega$ stipo to fix; stick signifies that which can be stuck in the ground; crutch, eschanged from cross, is a staff or stick which has a

cross bar at the top.

The ruling idea in a staff is that of firmness and fixedness; it is employed for leaning upon: the ruling idea in the stick is that of sharpness with which it can penetrate, it is used for walking and ordinary purposes; the ruling idea in the cratch is its form, which serves the specifick purpose of support in case of lameness; a stuff can never be small, but a stick may be large; a crutch is in size more of a staff than a common stick.

LIVELIHOOD, LIVING, SUBSISTENCE, MAINTENANCE, SUPPORT, SUSTENANCE.

The means of living or supporting life is the idea common to all these terms, which vary according to the circumstances of the individual and the nature of the object which constitutes the means: the livelihood is the thing sought after by the day; a labourer earns a livelihood by the sweat of his brow: living is obtained by more respectable and less severe efforts than the two former; tradesmen obtain a good living by keeping shops; artists procure a living by the exercise heir talents; 'A man may as easily know where to find one to teach to debauch, whore, game, and blaspheme, as to teach him to write or cast accounts; blashiette, as treath into Wife of east account t is the very profession and livelihood of such people, getting their living by those practices for which they deserve to forfeit their lives."—South. A subsistence is obtained by irregular efforts of various descriptions; beggars meet with so much that they obtain something better than a precarious and scanty subsistence: 'Just the necessities of a bare subsistence are not to be the only measure of a parent's care for his children.'— South Maintenance, support, and sustenance, differ from the other three masmuch as they do not comprehend what one gains by one's own efforts, but by the efforts of others: the maintenance is that which is permanent; it supplies the place of a living: the support may be casual, and vary in degree: the object of most publick charities is to afford a maintenance to such as cannot obtain a livelihood or living for themselves; 'The Jews, in Babylonia, honoured Hyrcanus their the control of the may be casual, and vary in degree: the object of most king, and supplied him with a maintenance suitable thereto.'-PRIDEAUX. It is the business of the parish to give support, in time of sickness and distress, to all who are legal parishioners; 'If it be a curse to be forced to toil for the necessary support of lite, how does he heighten the curse who toils for superfluities.' —South. The maintenance and support are always granted; but the sustenance is that which is taken or received the former comprehends the means of obtaining food; the sustenance comprehends that which sustains the body which supplies the place of food; 'Besides, man has a claim also to a promise for his support and sustenance which none have ever missed of who come up to the conditions of it.'-South.

LIVING, BENEFICE.

Living signifies literally the pecuniary resource by which one lives; benefice, from benefacio, signifies whatever one obtains as a benefit: the former is applicable to any situation of life, but particularly to that resource which a parish affords to the clergyman; the latter is applicable to no other object: we speak of the living as a resource immediately derived from the parish, in distinction from a curacy, which is derived from an individual; 'In consequence of the Pope's interference, the best livings were filled by Italian, and other foreign, clergy. —BLACKSTONE. We speak of a benefice in respect to the terms by which it is held, according to the ecclesiastical law: there are many livings which are not benefices, although not vice versa; 'Estates held by feudal tenure, being originally gratuitous donations, were at that time denominated beneficia; their very name, as well as constitution, was borrowed, and the care of the souls of a parish thence came to be denominated a benefice.'-BLACKSTONE.

TO BE, EXIST, SUBSIST.

Be, with its inflections, is to be traced through the northern and Oriental languages to the Hebrew 77 the name of God, and Nin to be. From the derivation of exist, as given under the article To Exist, Live, arises the distinction in the use of the two words. To be is applicable either to the accidents of things, or to the substances or things themselves; to exist only to substances or things that stand or exist of themselves.

*We say of qualities, of forms, of actions, of arrangement, of movement, and of every different relation, whether real, ideal, or qualificative, that they are; 'He does not understand either vice or virtue who will not allow that life without the rules of morality is a wayward uneasy being?—Steele. We say of matter, of spirit, of body, and of all substances, that they exist; When the soul is freed from all corporeal alliance, then it truly exists.—HUGHES AFTER XENO-PHON. Man is man, and will be man under all cir-cumstances and changes of life: he exists under every known climate and variety of heat or cold in the atmosphere.

Being and existence as nouns have this farther disthe the content as the content is a modern to the signate the abstract state of being, but is metaphorically employed for the sensible object that is; the latter is confined altogether to the abstract sense. Hence we speak of human beings; beings animate or inanimate; the Supreme Being: but the existence of a God; existence of innumerable worlds; the existence of evil. istence of innumerable worlds; the existence of evil. Being may in some cases be indifferently employed for existence, particularly in the grave style; when speak ing of animate objects, as the being of a God; our fiail being; and when qualified in a compound form is preferable, as our well-being.

Subsist is properly a species of existing; from the Latin prepositive sub, signifying for a time, it denotes temporary or partial existence. Every thing exists by the creative and preservative power of the Almighty; that which subsists depends for its existence upon the

that which subsists depends for its existence upon the chances and changes of this mortal life;

Forlorn of thee, Whither shall I betake me? where subsist?

To exist therefore designates simply the event of being or existing; to subsist conveys the accessory ideas of the mode and duration of existing. Man exists while the vital or spiritual part of him remains; he subsists by what he obtains to support life. Friendships exist in the world, notwithstanding the prevalence of softeness, but it appears that it is appearable to the contract of the substitute of the of selfishness; but it cannot subsist for any length of time between individuals in whom this base temper prevails.

* Vide Abbe Girard: "Etre exister subsister"

TO BE, BECOME, GROW.

Be (v. To be, exist); become signifies to come to be, that is, to be in course of time; grow is, in all probability, changed from the Latin crevi, perfect of cresco to increase or grow.

 Be (v. To be, exist) is positive; become, that is to come to be, or to be in course of time is relative: a person is what he is without regard to what he was; he becomes that which he was not before;

To be or not to be? that is the question.

SHAKSPEARE.

We judge of a man by what he is, but we cannot judge of him by what he will become: this year he is immoral and irreligious, but by the force of reflection on himself he may become the contrary in another year: 'About this time Savage's nurse, who had always treated him as her own son, died; and it was natural for him to take care of those effects which by her death were, as he imagined, become his own.'—JORNSON.

To become includes no idea of the mode or circumstance of becoming; to grow is to become by a gradual process: a man may become a good man from a vicious one, in consequence of a sudden action on his mind; but he grows in wisdom and virtue by means of an increase in knowledge and experience;

Authors, like coins, grow dear, as they grow old.

TO EXIST, LIVE.

Exist, in French exister, Latin existo, compounded of e or ex and sisto, signifies to place or stand by itself or of itself; live, through the medium of the Saxon libban, and the other northern dialects, comes in all probability from the Hebrew $\Delta \Delta$ the heart, which is the seat of animal life.

Existence is the property of all things in the universe; life, which is the inherent power of motion, is the particular property communicated by the Divine Being to some parts only of his creation: exist, therefore, is the general, and live the specifick, term: whatever lives, exists according to a certain mode; but many things exist without living: when we wish to speak of things in their most abstract relation, we say they exist;

Can any now remember or relate
How he existed in an embryo state?—JENYNS.

When we wish to characterize the form of existence we say they live; 'Death to such a man is rather to be looked upon as the period of his more of live.' May town of letters of live.'

of his life.'—Melmoth (Letters of Pliny).

Existence, in its proper sense, is the attribute which we commonly ascribe to the Divine Being, and it is that which is immediately communicable by himself; life is that mode of existence which he has made to be communicable by other objects besides himself: existence is taken only in its strict and proper sense, independent of all its attributes and appendages; but life is regarded in connexion with the means by which it is supported, as animal life, or vegetable life. In like manner, when speaking of spiritual objects, exist retains its abstract sense, and live is employed to denow an active principle: animosities should never exist in the mind; and every thing which is calculated to keep them alive should be kept at a distance.

TO OUTLIVE, SURVIVE.

"To ontlive is literally to live out the life of another, to live longer: to survive, in French survive, is to live after: the former is employed to express the comparison hetween two lives; the latter to denote a protracted existence beyond any given term: one person is said properly to outlive another who enjoys a longer life; but we speak of surviving persons or things, in an indefinite or unqualified manner: it is not a peculiar blessing to outlive all our nearest relatives and friends; 'A man never outlives his conscience, and that for this cause only, he cannot outline himself."—South. No man can be happy in surviving his honour; 'Of so vast, so lasting, so surviving an extent is the malignity of a great guilt'."—South.

TO DELIVER, RESCUE, SAVE.

To deliver, in French delivrer, compounded of de and livrer, in Latin libero, signifies literally to make free; to rescue, contracted from the French re and secourir, and indirectly from the Latin re and curro to run, signifies to run to a person's assistance in the moment of difficulty; to save is to make safe.

The idea of taking or keeping from danger is common to these terms; but deliver and rescue signify rather the taking from, save the keeping from danger: we deliver and rescue from the evil that is; we save from evils that may be, as well as from those that are. Deliver and rescue do not convey any idea of the means by which the end is produced; save commonly includes the idea of some superiour agency; a man may be delivered or rescued by any person without distinction: he is commonly saved by a superiour.

inclined the idea of some superiour agency; a man may be delivered or rescued by any person without distinction; he is commonly saved by a superiour. Deliver is an unqualified term, it is applicable to every mode of the action or species of evil; to rescue is a species of delivering, namely, delivering from the power of another: to save is applicable to the greatest possible evils: a person may be delivered from a burden, from an oppression, from disease, or from danger by any means; 'In our greatest fears and troubles we may ease our hearts by reposing ourselves upon God, in confidence of his support and deliverance'—TLLOTSON. A prisoner is rescued from the hands of an enemy;

My household gods, companions of my woes, With pious care I rescu'd from our foes.—Dryden A person is saved from destruction;

Now shameful flight alone can save the host, Our blood, our treasure, and our glory lost.—Pope. 'He who feareth God and worketh righteousness, and perseveres in the faith and duties of our religion, shall certainly be saved.'—ROGERS.

DELIVERANCE, DELIVERY,

Are drawn from the same verb (v. To deliver) to express its different senses of taking from or giving to; the former denotes the taking of something from one's self-the latter implies giving something to another.

To wish for a deliverance from that which is burtful

To wish for a *deliverance* from that which is hurtful or painful is to a certain extent justifiable;

Whate'er befalls your life shall be my care, One death, or one deliverance, we will share. DRYDEN.

The careful delivery of property into the hands of the owner will be the first object of concern with a faithful agent; 'With our Saxon ancestors the delivery of a turf was a necessary solemnity to establish the conveyance of lands.'—Blackstone.

TO FREE, SET FREE, DELIVER, LIBERATE

To free is properly to make free, in distinction from set free; the first is employed in what concerns our selves, and the second in that which concerns another, A man frees himself from an engagement; he sets another free from his engagement: we free or set ourselves free, from that which has been imposed upon us by ourselves or by circumstances; we are delivered or liberated from that which others have imposed upon us; the former from evils in general, the latter from the evil of confinement. I free myself from a burden; I set my own slave free from his slavery; I deliver another man's slave from a state of bondage; I liberate a man from prison. A man frees an estate from ren, service, taxes, and all incumbrances; a king sets nis subjects free from certain imposts or tribute, he delivers them from a foreign yoke, or he liberates those who have been taken in war. We free either by an act of the will, or by contrivance and method; we set free by an act of authority; we deliver or liberate by active measures and physical strength. A man frees himself from impertinence by escaping the company of the impertinent; he sets others free from all apprehensions by assuring them of his protection; he delivers them out of a perilous situation by his presence of mind. A country is freed from the horrours of a revolution by the vigorous councils of a determined statesmar; in this manner was England freed from a counterpart of the French

revolution by the vigour of the government; a country is set free from the exactions and hardships of usurpa tion and tyranny by the mild influence of established government: in this manner is Europe set free from the iron yoke of the French usurper by its ancient rulers. A country is delivered from the grasp and oppression of the invader; in this manner has Spain been delivered, by the wisdom and valour of an illustration. trious British general at the head of a band of British

When applied in a moral sense free is applied to sin, or any other moral evil;

She then

Sent Iris down to free her from the strife Of labouring nature, and dissolve her life.

Set free is employed for ties, obligation, and responsibility

When heav'n would kindly set us free, And earth's enchantment end; It takes the most effectual means And robs us of a friend .- Young.

Deliver is employed for external circumstances; 'However desirous Mary was of obtaining deliverance from Darnley's caprices, she had good reasons for rejecting the method by which they proposed to accomplish it.'

ROBERTSON. God, as our Redeemer, frees us from the bondage and consequences of sin, by the dispensations of his atoning grace; but he does not set us free from any of our moral obligations or moral responsibility as free agents; as our Preserver he deli-vers us from dangers and misfortunes, trials and temptations.

FREE, LIBERAL.

Free is here considered as it respects actions and sentiments. In all its acceptations free is a term of dispraise, and liberal that of commendation. free, signifies to act or think at will; to be liberal is to act according to the dictates of an enlarged heart and an enlightened mind. A clown or a fool may be free with his money, and may squander it away to please his humour, or gratify his appetite; but the nobleman and the wise man will be liberal in rewarding merit, in encouraging industry, and in promoting whatever can contribute to the ornament, the prosperity, and improvement of his country. A man who is *free* in his sentiments thinks as he pleases; the man who is *liberal* thinks according to the extent of his knowledge. The free-thinking man is wise in his own conceit, he despises the opinions of others; the liberal-minded thinks modestly on his own personal attainments, and builds upon the wisdom of others.

The freethinker circumscribes all knowledge within the conceptions of a few superlatively wise heads; 'The freethinkers plead very hard to think freely: they have it; but what use do they make of it? Do their writings show a greater depth of design, or more just and correct reasoning, than those of other men?

—Berkeley. 'Their pretensions to be freethinkers is no other than rakes have to be freelivers, and savages to be freemen.'—Addison. The liberal-minded is anxious to enlarge the boundaries of science by making all the thinking world in all ages to contribute to the advancement of knowledge;

For me, for whose well-being So amply, and with hands so liberal, Thou hast provided all things .- MILTON.

The desire of knowledge discovers a liberal mind.'-BLAIR. With the freethinker nothing is good that is old or established; with the liberal man nothing is good because it is new, nothing bad because it is old. With the freethinker nothing is good that is Men of the least knowledge and understanding are the most free in their opinions, in which description of men this age abounds above all others; such men are exceedingly anxious to usurp the epithet liberal to themselves; but the good sense of mankind will prevail against partial endeavours, and assign this title to none but men of comprehensive talents, sound judge-

ments, extensive experience, and deep erudition.

It seems as if freedom of thought was that aberration of the mind which is opposed to the two extremes f superstition and bigotry; and that liberality is the gappy medium. The freethinker holds nothing sacred,

and is attached to nothing but his own conceits; the superstitious man holds too many things sacred, and is attached to every thing that favours this bent of his mind. A freethinker accommodates his duties to his inclinations: he denies his obligation to any thing which comes across the peculiar fashion of his senti ment. A man of free sentiments rejects the spirit of Christianity, with the letter or outward formality; the superstitious man loses the spirit of Christianity in his extravagant devotion to its outward formalities.

On the other hand bigotry and liberality are opposed to each other, not in regard to what they believe, so much as in regard to the nature of their belief. The bigoted man so narrows his mind to the compass of his belief as to exclude every other object; the liberal man directs his views to every object which does not man directs his views to every object which does not directly interfere with his belief. It is possible for the bigoted and the liberal man to have the same faith; but the former mistakes its true object and tendency, namely, the improvement of his rational powers, which the latter pursues.

It is evident therefore from the above that the

It is evident, therefore, from the above, that the freethinker, the superstitious man, and the bigot, are alike the offspring of ignorance; and that liberality is the handmaid of science, and the daughter of truth. Of all the mental aberrations freedom of thinking is the most obnoxious, as it is fostered by the pride of the heart, and the vanity of the imagination. In super-stition we sometimes see the anxiety of a well-disposed mind to discharge its conscience: with bigotry we often see associated the mild virtues which are taught by Christianity; but in the freethinker we only see the bad passions and the unruly will set free from all the constraints of outward authority, and disengaged from the control of reason and judgement: in such a man the amiable qualities of the natural disposition become corrupted, and the evil humours triumph

FREE, FAMILIAR.

Free has already been considered as it respects the words, actions, and sentiments (v. Free); in the present case it is coupled with familiarity, inasmuch as they respect the outward behaviour or conduct in general of men one to another.

To be free is to be disengaged from all the constraints which the ceremonies of social intercourse impose; to be familiar is to be upon the footing of a familiar, of a relative, or one of the same family. Neither of these terms can be admitted as unexceptionable; but freedom is that which is in general totally unauthorized; familiarity sometimes shelters itself under the sanction of long, close, and friendly

intercourse.

Free is a term of much more extensive import than familiar; a man may be free towards another in a thousand ways; but he is familiar towards him only in his manners and address. A man who is free looks upon every thing as his which he chooses to make use of; a familiar man only wants to share with another and to stand upon an equal footing. A man who is free will take possession of another man's house or room in his absence, and will make use of his name or his property as it suits his convenience; his freedom always turns upon that which contributes to his own indulgence; 'Being one day very free at a great feast, he suddenly broke forth into a great laughter.'— HAKEWELL. A man who is familiar will smile upon you, take hold of your arm, call you by some friendly or common name, and seek to enjoy with you all the pleasures of social intercourse; his familiarity always turns upon that which will increase his own importance; 'Kalandar streight thought he saw his niece Parthenia, and was about in such familiar sort to have spoken unto her; but she in grave and honourable manner, gave him to understand he was mistaken.

—Sinney. There cannot be two greater euemies to the harmony of society than freedom and familiarity; both of which it is the whole business of politeness to destroy; for no man can be free without being in danger of infringing upon what belongs to another, nor familiar without being in danger of obtruding himself to the annoyance of others.

When these words are used figuratively in recerence to things, they do not bear that objectionable feature;

Free and familiar with misfortune grow, Be us'd to sorrow, and inur'd to wo.—PRIOR

FREE, EXEMPT.

To free is as general in its signification as in the preceding articles; to exempt, in Latin exemptus, participle of exemo, signifies set out or disengaged from a

part

The condition and not the conduct of men is here considered. Freedom is either accidental or intentional; the exemption is always intentional: we may be free from disorders, or free from troubles; we are exempt, that is exempted by government, from serving in the militia. Free is applied to every thing from which any one may wish to be free; but exempt, on the contrary, to those burdens which we should share with others: we may be free from imperfections, free from inconveniencies, free from the interruptions of others:

O happy, if he knew his happy state, The swain who, free from bus'ness and debate, Receives his easy food from nature's hand!

A man is exempt from any office or tax; 'To be exempt from the passions with which others are tormented, is the only pleasing solitude.'—Aporsos. We
may likewise be said to be exempt from troubles when
speaking of these as the dispensations of Providence
to others.

FREEDOM, LIBERTY.

Freedom, the abstract noun of free, is taken in all the senses of the primitive; liberty, from the Latin liber free, is only taken in the sense of free from ex-

ternal constraint, from the action of power. Freedom is personal and private; liberty is publick. The freedom of the city is the privilege granted by any city to individuals; the liberty of the city are the immunities enjoyed by the city. By the same rule of distinction we speak of the freedom of the will, the freedom of manners, the freedom of conversation, or the freedom of debate; 'The ends for which men unite in society, and submit to government, are to enjoy security to their property, and freedom to their persons, from all injustice or violence.'—Blair. 'I would not venture into the world under the character of a man who pretends to talk like other people, until I had arrived at a full freedom of speech.'—Additional to the press, the liberty of the subject; 'The liberty of the press is a blessing when we are inclined to write against others, and a calamity when we find ourselves overborne by the multitude of our assailants.'—Johnson. A slave obtains his freedom;

O freedom! first delight of human kind! Not that which bondmen from their masters find, The privilege of doles.—DRYDEN.

A captive obtains his liberty.

Freedom serves moreover to qualify the action; liberty is applied only to the agent: hence we say, to speak or think with freedom; but to have the liberty of speaking, thinking, or acting. Freedom and liberty are likewise employed for the private conduct of individuals towards each other; but the former is used in a qualified good sense, the latter in an unqualified bad sense. A freedom may sometimes be licensed or allowed; liberty is always taken in a bad sense. A freedom may be innocent and even pleasant; a liberty always does more or less violence to the decencies of life, or the feelings of individuals. There are little freedoms which may pass between youth of different sexes, so as to heighten the pleasures of society; but a modest woman will be careful to guard against any freedoms which may admit of misinterpretation, and resent every liberty offered to her as an insult.

TO GIVE UP, DELIVER, SURRENDER, YIELD, CEDE, CONCEDE.

We give up (v. To give, grant) that which we wish to retain; we deliver that which we wish not to retain. Deliver does not include the idea of a transfer; but give up implies both the giving from, and the giving to: we give up our house to the accommodation of our friends; 'A popish priest threatens to excommunicate a Northumberland esquire if he did not give up to him the church lands.'—Addison. We

deliver property into the hands of the owner; 'It is no wonder that they who at such a time could be corrupted to frame and deliver such a petition, would not be reformed by such an answer.'—DRYDEN. We may give up with reluctance, and deliver with pleasure; 'Such an expectation will never come to pass; therefore I will e'en give it up and go and fret myself.'—COLLER.

On my experience, Adam, freely taste, And fear of death deliver to the winds,—Milton.

To give up is a colloquial substitute for either surrender or yield; as it designates no circumstance of the action, it may be employed in familiar discourse, in almost every case for the other terms: where the action is compulsory, we may either say an officer gives up or surrenders his sword; when the action is discretionary, we may either say he gives up, or yields a point of discussion: give up has, however, an extensiveness of application which gives it an office distinct from either surrender or yield. When we speak of familiar and personal subjects, give up is more suitable than surrender, which is confined to matters of publick interest or great moment, unless when taken figuratively: a man gives up his place, his right, his claim, and the like; he surrenders a fortress, a vessel, or his property to his creditors, or figuratively be surrenders his judgement or opinions. When give up his compared with yield, they both respect personal matters; but the former expresses a much stronger action than the latter: a man gives up his whole judgement to another; he yields to the force of temptation; 'The peaceable man will give up his favourite schemes; he will yield to an opponent rather than become the cause of violent embroilments.'—Blair. 'The young, half-seduced by persuasion, and half-compelled by ridicule, surrender their convictions, and consent to live as they see others around them living.'—Blair.

Cede, from the Latin cedo to give, is properly to surrender by virtue of a treaty: we may surrender a
town as an act of necessity; but the cession of a
country is purely a political transaction: thus, generals
frequently surrender such towns as they are not able
to defend; and governments cede such countries as
they find it not convenient to retain. To concede,
which is but a variation of cede, is a mode of yielding
which may be either an act of discretion or courtesy
as when a government concedes to the demands of the
people certain privileges, or when an individual concedes any point in dispute for the sake of peace: 'As
to the magick power which the devil imparts for these
concessions of his votaries, theologians have different

opinions.'-CUMBERLAND.

TO GIVE UP, ABANDON, RESIGN, FOREGO.

These terms differ from the preceding (n. To give up), inasmuch as they designate actions entirely free from foreign influence. A man gives up, abandons, and resigns, from the dictates of his own mind, independent of all control from others. To give up at abandon both denote a positive decision of the mind; but the former may be the act of the understanding or the will, the latter is more commonly the act of the will and the passions: to give up is applied to familiar cases; abandon to matters of importance: one gives up an idea, an intention, a plan, and the like; 'Upon his friend telling him, he wondered he gave up the question, when he had visibly the better of the dispute; I am never ashamed, says he, to be confuted by one who is master of fifty legions.'—Addison. One abandons a project, a scheme, a measure of government;

For Greece we grieve, abandoned by her fate, To drink the dregs of thy unmeasur'd hate.

To give up and resign are applied either to the out ward actions, or merely to the inward movements: but the former is active, it determinately fixes the conduct; the latter seems to be rather passive, it is the leaning of the mind to the circumstances: a man gives up his situation by a positive act of his choice; he resigns his office when he feels it inconvenient to hold it: so, likewise, we give up what we expect or lay claim to; 'the declares himself to be now satisfied to

the contrary, in which he has given up the cause. - DRYDEN. We resign what we hope or wish for;

The praise of artful numbers I resign,

And hang my pipe upon the sacred pine .- DRYDEN. In this sense, forego, which signifies to let go or let pass by, is comparable with resign, inasmuch as it pass by, is comparable with resign, masmuch as it expresses a passive action; but we resign that which we have, and we forego that which we might have: thus, we resign the claims which we have already made; we forego the claim if we abstain altogether from making it: the former may be a matter of prudence: the latter is always an act of virtue and forbearance;

Desirous to resign and render back. All I receiv'd.—MILTON.

What they have enjoyed with great pleasure at one time, has proved insipid or nauseous at another; and they see nothing in it, for which they should forego a present enjoyment.'-Locke.

Then, pilgrim, turn, thy cares forego;
All earth-born cares are wrong.—Goldsmith.

When applied reflectively, to give up is used either in a good, bad, or indifferent sense; abandon always in a bad sense; resign always in a good sense; a man may give himself up, either to studious pursuits, to idle vagaries, or vicious indulgencies; he abandons him-self to gross vices; he resigns himself to the will of Providence, or to the circumstances of his condition a man is said to be given up to his lusts who is without any principle to control him in the gratification; he is said to be abandoned, when his outrageous conduct bespeaks an entire insensibility to every honest prin ciple; he is said to be resigned when he discovers composure and tranquillity in the hour of affliction.

TO ABANDON, DESERT, FORSAKE, RELINQUISH.

The idea of leaving or separating one's self from an The does of leaving or separating one's set from an object is common to these terms, which differ in the circumstances or modes of leaving. The two former are more solemn acts than the two latter. Abandon, from the French abandonner, is a concretion of the words donner a ban, to give up to a publick ban or outleast. To abandon then is to expose to every mislawry. To abandon then is to expose to every this fortune which results from a formal and publick denunciation; to set out of the protection of law and government; and to deny the privileges of citizenship; desert, in Latin desertus, participle of desero, that is, de privative and sero to sow, signifies to lie unsown, unplanted, cultivated no longer. To desert then is to leave off cultivating; and as there is something of idleness and improvidence in ceasing to render the soil productive, ideas of disapprobation accompany the word in all its metaphorical applications. He who leaves off cultivating a farm usually removes from it; hence the idea of removal and blameworthy removal, which usually attaches to the term; forsake, in Saxon forsecan, is compounded of the primitive for and sake, seek, secan, signifying to seek no more, to leave off seeking that which has been an object of search; relinquish, in Latin relinquo, is compounded of re or retro behind, and linquo to leave, that is, to leave what we would fain take with us, to leave with reluctance.

To abandon is totally to withdraw ourselves from an object; to lay aside all care and concern for it; to leave it altogether to itself: to desert is to withdraw ourselves at certain times when our assistance or cooperation is required, or to separate ourselves from that to which we ought to be attached: to forsake is to withdraw our regard for and interest in an object, to keep at a distance from it; to relinquish is to leave that which has once been an object of our pursuit.

Abundon and desert are employed for persons or things; forsake for persons or places; relinquish for

things only.

With regard to persons these terms express moral culpability in a progressive ratio downwards: abandon comprehends the violation of the most sacred ties, desert, a breach of honour and fidelity; forsake, a rupture of the social hond.

We abandon those who are entirely dependent for protection and support; they are left in a helpless state exposed to every danger; a child is abandoned by its

parent; 'He who abandons his offspring or corrupts parent; 'He will adamans his dispring of corrupts them by his example, perpetrates a greater evil than a murderer.'—HAWKESWORTH. We desert those with whom we have entered into a coalition; they are left to their own resources; a soldier deserts his comrades; a partisan deserts his friends; 'After the death of Stella, Swift's benevolence was contracted, and his severity exasperated: he drove his acquaintance from severity exasperated: ne drove his acquaintance from his table, and wondered wby he was deserted.—Johnson. We forsake those with whom we have been in habits of intimacy; they are deprived of the pleasures and comforts of society; a man forsakes his companions; a lover forsakes his mistress, or a husband his wife. wife;

Forsake me not thus, Adam !-- MILTON.

We are bound by every law human and divine not to abandon; we are called upon by every good principle not to desert; we are impelled by every kind feeling not to forsake. Few animals except man will abandon their young until they are enabled to provide for themselves. Interest, which is but too often the only prinserves. Interest, which is out too orden the only principle that brings men together, will lead them to desert each other in the time of difficulty. We are enjoined in the gospel not to forsake the poor and needy. When abandoned by our dearest relatives, deserted by our friends, and forsaken by the world, we have always a resource in our Maker.

With regard to things (in which sense the word relinquish is synonymous) the character of abundoning varies with the circumstances and motives of the action according to which it is either good, bad, or indifferent, deserting is always taken in an unfavourable or bar sense; the act of forsaking is mostly indifferent, but implies a greater or less breach of some tie; that of relinquishing is prudent or imprudent.

A captain may abandon his vessel when he has no means of saving it, except at the risk of his life;

He boldly spake, sir knight, if knight thou be, Abandon this forestalled place at erst, For fear of further harm, I counsel thee SPENSER

-neglected nature pines Abandoned .- COWPER.

An upright statesman will never desert his post where his country is in danger, nor a true soldier desert his colours; 'He who at the approach of evil betrays his HAWKESWORTH. Birds will mostly forsake their nests when they discover them to have been visited, and most animals will forsake their haunts when they find themselves discovered; 'Macdonald and Macleod of Skie have lost many tenants and labourers, but Raursa has not yet been forsaken by any of its inhabitants.'— Johnson. So likewise figuratively; 'When learning, abilities, and what is excellent in the world, forsake the church, we may easily foretell its ruin without the gift of prophecy.'-South. Men often inadvertently relinquish the fairest prospects in order to follow some favourite scheme which terminates in their ruin; 'Men are wearied with the toil which they bear, but cannot

find in their hearts to relinquish it.'—Steele.

Having abandoned their all, they forsook the place which gave them birth, and relinquished the advantages which they might have obtained from their rank and family.

TO ABANDON, RESIGN, RENOUNCE, ABDICATE.

The idea of giving up is common to these terms, which signification, though analogous to the former, admits, however, of a distinction; as in the one case we separate ourselves from an object, in the other we send or cast it from us. In this latter sense the terms abandon and resign have been partially considered in the preceding articles; renounce, in Latin renuncio, from nuncio to tell or declare, is to declare off from a thing; abdicate, from dico to speak, signifies likewise to call or cry off from a thing.

We abandon and resign by giving up to another; we renounce by sending away from ourselves; we abandon a thing by transferring our power over to another; in this manner a debtor abandons his goods to his creditors: we resign a thing by transferring our possession of it to another; in this manner we resign a place to a friend: we renounce a thing by simply ceasing to hold | It; in this manner we renounce a claim or a profession. As to renounce signified originally to give up by word of mouth, and to resign to give up by signature, the former is consequently a less formal action than the we may renounce by implication; we resign in direct terms: we renounce the pleasures of the world when we do not seek to enjoy them; we resign a plea-sure, a profit, or advantage, of which we expressly give up the enjoyment.

To abdicate is a species of informal resignation, monarch abdicates his throne who simply declares his will to cease to reign; but a minister resigns his office

when he gives up the seals by which he held it.

A humane commander will not abandon a town to the rapine of the soldiers;

> The passive Gods beheld the Greeks defile Their temples, and abandon to the spoil Their own abodes.—DRYDEN.

The motives for resignations are various. Discontent. disgust, and the love of repose, are the ordinary disgust, and the love of repose, are the ordinary inducements for men to resign honourable and lucrative employments; 'It would be a good appendix to "the art of living and dying," if any one would write "the art of growing old," and teach men to resign their pretensions to the pleasures of youth.'-STEELE are not so ready to renounce the pleasures that are within their reach, as to seek after those which are out of their reach; 'For ministers to be silent in the cause of Christ is to renounce it, and to fly is to desert it.'— South. The abdication of a throne is not always an act of magnanimity, it may frequently result from caprice or necessity; Much gratitude is due to the nine from their favoured poets, and much hath been paid: for even to the present hour they are invoked and worshipped by the sons of verse, while all the other deities of Olympus have either abdicated their thrones, or been

dismissed from them with contempt '-Cumberland.
Charles the Fifth abdicated his crown, and his minister resigned his office on the very same day, when both renounced the world with its allurements

and its troubles.

We abandon nothing but that over which we have had an entire and lawful control; we abdicate nothing but that which we have held by a certain right; but we may resign or renounce that which may be in our possession only by an act of violence. A usurper cannot abandon his people, because he has no people over whom he can exert a lawful authority; still less can he abdicate a throne, because he has no throne to abdicate, but he may resign supreme power, because power may be unjustly held; or he may renounce his pretensions to a throne, because pretensions may be fallacious or extravagant.

Abandon and resign are likewise used in a reflective sense; the former to express an involuntary or culpable action, the latter that which is voluntary and proper. The soldiers of Hannibal abandoned themselves to effeminacy during their winter quarters at Cumæ; 'It is the part of every good man's religion to resign himself to God's will.'—Cumberland.

TO ABSTAIN, FORBEAR, REFRAIN.

Abstain, in French abstenir, Latin abstinee, is comto keep one's self from a thing; forbear is compounded of the preposition for, or from, and the verb to bear or carry, signifying to carry or take one's self from a thing; refrain, in French refrener, Latin refærno, is com-pounded of re back and fræno, from frenum a bridle, signifying to keep back as it were by a bridle, to

The first of these terms marks the leaving a thing, and the two others the omission of an action. We abstain from any object by not making use of it; we forbear to do or refrain from doing a thing by not

taking any part in it.

Abstaining and forbearing are outward actions, but refraining is connected with the operations of the mind. We may abstain from the thing we desire, or forbear to do the thing which we wish to do; but we can never refrain from any action without in some measure losing our desire to do it.

We abstain from whatever concerns our food and clothing; we forbear to do what we may have parti-

cular motives for doing; refrain from what we desire to do, or have been in the habits of doing.

It is a part of the Mahometan faith to abstain from

the use of wine; but it is a Christian duty to forbear doing an injury even in return for an injury; and to refrain from all swearing and evil speaking.

Abstinence is a virtue when we abstain from that which may be hurtful to ourselves or injurious to another; 'Though a man cannot abstain from being weak, he may from being vicious."—Addison. Forbearance is essential to preserve peace and good will between man and man. Every one is too liable to offend, not to have motives for forbearing to deal harshly with the offences of his neighbour; By forbearing to do what may be innocently done, we may add hourly new vigour and resolution, and secure the power of resistance when pleasure or interest shall lend their charms to guilt.'-Johnson. If we refrain from uttering with the lips the first dictates of an angry mind, we shall be saved much repentance in future; conceive a being, created with all his faculties and senses, to open his eyes in a most delightful plain, to view for the first time the serenity of the sky, the splendour of the sun, the verdure of the fields and woods, the glowing colours of the flowers, we can hardly believe it possible that he should refrain from bursting into an ecstacy of joy, and pouring out his praises to the Creator of those wonders.'—Sir Wil LIAM JONES.

ABSTINENT, SOBER, ABSTEMIOUS, TEM-PERATE.

The first of these terms is generick, the rest specifick; Abstinent (v. To abstain) respects every thing that acts on the senses, and in a limited sense applies particularly to solid food; sober, from the Latin sobrius, or sebrius, that is, sine ebrius, not drunk, implies an abstinence from excessive drinking; abstemious, from the Latin abstemius, compounded of abs and temetum wine, implies the abstaining from wine or strong liquor in general; temperate, in Latin temperatus, participle of tempero to moderate or regulate, implies a well regulated abstinence in all manner of sensual indulgence

We may be abstinent without being sober, sober without being abstemious, and all together without

being temperate.

An abstinent man does not eat or drink so much as he could enjoy; a sober man may drink much without being affected.* An abstemious man drinks nothing strong. A temperate man enjoys all in a due proportion.

A particular passion may cause us to be abstinent, either partially or totally: sobricty may often depend upon the strength of the constitution, or be prescribed by prudence: necessity may dictate abstemiousness, but nothing short of a well disciplined mind will enable us to be temperate. Diogenes practised the most rigorous abstinence: some men have unjustly obtained a character for sobriety, whose habit of body has enabled them to resist the force of strong liquor even when taken to excess: it is not uncommon for persons to practise abstemiousness to that degree, as not to drink any thing but water all their lives: Cyrus was distinguished by his temperance as his other virtues; he shared all hardships with his soldiers, and partook of their frugal diet.

Unlimited abstinence is rather a vice than a virtue, for we are taught to enjoy the things which Providence has set before us; 'To set the mind above the appetites is the end of abstinence, which one of the fathers observes to be not a virtue, but the groundwork of virtue.'—Johnson. Sobriety ought to be highly esteemed among the lower orders, where the abstinence from vice is to be regarded as positive virtue; 'Cratinus carried his love of wine to such an excess, that he got the name of $\phi l\lambda_0\pi\sigma\tau\sigma_5$, launching out in praise of drinking, and rallying all sobriety out of countenance. Abstemiousness is sometimes the -CUMBERLAND. only means of preserving health;

The strongest oaths are straw To th' fire i' th' blood; be more abstenuous, Or else good night your vow .- SHAKSPEARE.

Habitual temperance is the most efficacious means of keeping both body and mind in the most regular state; 'If we consider the life of these ancient sages, a great

* Vide Trusler: "Sober, temperate, abstemious'

part of whose philosophy consisted in a temperate and abstemious course of life, one would think the life of a philosopher and the life of a man were of two different dates.' -Appison.

MODESTY, MODERATION, TEMPERANCE, SOBRIETY

Modesty, in French modestie, Latin modestia, and moderation, in Latin moderatio and moderor, both come from modus a measure, limit, or boundary: that is, forming a measure or rule; temperance, in Latin temperantia, from tempus time, signifies fixing a time or term (v. Abstinent); sobriety (v. Abstinent).

Modesty lies in the mind, and in the tone of feeling; moderation respects the desires: modesty is a principle that acts discretionally; moderation is a rule or line that acts as a restraint on the views and the outward con-

duct.

Modesty consists in a fair and medium estimate of one's character and qualification; it guards a man against too high an estimate; it recommends to him an estimate below the reality: moderation consists in a suitable regulation of one's desires, demands, and expectations; it consequently depends very often on modesty as its groundwork: he who thinks modestly of his own acquirements, his own performances, and his own merits, will be moderate in his expectations of praise, reward, and recompense: he, on the other hand, who overrates his own abilities and qualifications, will equally overrate the use he makes of them, and consequently be immoderate in the price which he sets upon his services: in such cases, therefore, modesty and moderation are to each other as cause and effect; but there may be modesty without moderation, and moderation without modesty. Modesty is a sentiment confined to one's self as the object, and consisting solely of one's judgement of what one is, and what one does. ration, as is evident from the above, extends to objects that are external of ourselves: modesty, rather than moderation, belongs to an author; moderation, rather than modesty, belongs to a tradesman, or a man who make and purposes to answer; 'I may modestly conclude, that whatever errours there may be in this play, there are not those which have been objected to it.'—DRYDEN.

Equally inur'd By moderation either state to bear, Prosperous or adverse.-Milton.

Modesty shields a man from mortification and disappointments, which assail the self-conceited man in every direction: a modest man conciliates the esteem even of an enemy and a rival; he disarms the resent-ments of those who feel themselves most injured by his superiority; he makes all pleased with him by making them at ease with themselves: the self-conceited man. on the contrary, sets the whole world against himself. because he sets himself against every body; every one is out of humour with him, because he makes them ill at ease with themselves while in his company;

There's a proud modesty in merit !- DRYDEN.

Moderation protects a man equally from injustice on the one hand, and imposition on the other: he who is moderate himself makes others so; for every one finds his advantage in keeping within that bound which is as convenient to himself as to his neighbour; the world will always do this homage to real goodness, that they will admire it if they cannot practise it, and they will practise it to the utmost extent that their passions will allow them. Modesty, as a female virtue, has regard solely to the conduct of females with the other sex, and is still more distinguished from moderation than in the former case.

Moderation is the measure of one's desires, one's ha hits, one's actions and one's words; temperance is the adaptation of the time or season for particular feelings, actions, or words: a man is said to be moderate in his principles, who adopts the medium or middle course of thinking; it rather qualifies the thing than the person he is said to be temperate in his anger, if he do not suffer it to break out into any excesses; temperance characterizes the person rather than the thing; 'These characterizes the person rather than the thing; are the tenets which the moderatest of the Romanists will not venture to affirm.'—SMALRIDGE.

She's not forward, but modest as the dove, She's not hot, but temperate as the morn.

SHAKSPEARE.

A moderate man in politicks endeavours to steer clear of all party spirit, and is consequently so temperate in his language as to provoke no animosity; Few harangues from the pulpit, except in the days of your league in France, or in the days of our solemn league and covenant in England, have ever breathed less of the spirit of moderation than this lecture in the Old Jewry.'—Burke. 'Temperate mirth is not extinguished by old age.'—Blair. Moderation in the enjoyment of every thing is essential in order to obtain the purest pleasure: and temperance, which absolutely taken is habitual moderation, is always attended with the happiest effects to one's constitution; as, on the contrary, any deviation from temperance, even in a single instance, is always punished with bodily pain and sickness.

Temperance and sobriety have already been consi dered in their proper application, which will serve to illustrate their improper application (v. Abstinent). Temperance is an action; it is the tempering of our words and actions to the circumstances: sobriety is a state in which one is exempt from every stimulus to deviate from the right course; as a man who is intoxicated with wine runs into excesses, and loses that power of guiding himself which he has when he is sober or free from all intoxication, so is he who intoxicated with any passion, in like manner, hurried away into irregularities which a man in his right senses will not be guilty of: sobriety is, therefore, the state of being in one's right or sober senses; and sobriety is with regard to temperance, as a cause to the effect; sobriety of mind will not only produce moderation and temperance, but extend its influence to the whole conduct of a man in every relation and circumstance, to his internal sentiments and his external behaviour: hence we speak of sobriety in one's mien or deportment, sobriety in one's dress and manners, sobriety in one's religious opinions and observances; 'The vines give wine to the drunkard as well as to the sober man. -Taylor. Another, who had a great genius for tragedy, following the fury of his natural temper, made every man and woman in his plays stark raging mad, there was not a sober person to be had.'-DRYDEN.

Spread thy close curtains, love-performing night, Thou sober-suited matron, all in black .- SHAKSPEARE.

CHASTITY, CONTINENCE, MODESTY.

Chastity, in French chastité, Latin casti as, comes from castus pure, and the Hebrew warp sacred; continence, in French continence, Latin continentia, from continens and contineo, signifies the act of keeping one's self within bounds.

These two terms are equally employed in relation to the pleasures of sense: both are virtues, but sufficiently distinct in their characteristicks.

* Chastity prescribes rules for the indulgence of these pleasures; continence altogether interdicts their Chastity extends its views to whatever may bear the smallest relation to the object which it proposes to regulate; it controls the thoughts, words, looks, attitudes, food, dress, company, and in short the whole mode of living: continence simply confines itself to the privations of the pleasures themselves: it is possible therefore, to be chaste without being continent, and continent without being chaste.

Chastity is suited to all times, ages, and conditions; continence belongs only to a state of celibacy: the Christian religion enjoins chastity, as a positive duty on all its followers; the Romish religion enjoins continence on its clerical members: old age renders men continent, although it seldom makes them chaste;

It fails me here to write of chastity, That fairest virtue far above the rest.--Spenser.

When Pythagoras enjoined on his disciples an abstinence from beans, it has been thought by some an injunction only of continency. -BROWN (Vulgar Errors).

Chastity and continence have special regard to the

outward conduct, modesty goes farther, it is an habitual frame of mind, which prescribes a limit to all the desires. When modesty shows itself by an external sign, it is to be seen mostly in the behaviour: but chassity shows itself more commonly in the conduct. We

^{*} Beauzée: "Chastité, continence"

speak of a modest blush, not of a chaste blush. When ne term chastity is applied to the mind it denotes a chastened mind, or a chastened tone of feeling, which has been evidently acquired; but modesty results from the natural character, or from early formed habits. Modesty is the peculiar characteristick of a virtuous female, and is the safeguard of virtue. When a woman has laid aside ber modesty, she will not long retain her chastity; 'Of the general character of women, which is modesty, he has taken a most becoming care: for his amorous expressions go no farther than virtue may allow.'—DRYDEN.

MODERATION, MEDIOCRITY.

Moderation (v. Modesty) is the characteristick of the person; mediocrity, implying the mean or medium. characterizes the condition: moderation is a virtue of no small importance for beings who find excess in every thing to be an evil;

Such moderation with thy bounty join, That thou may'st nothing give that is not thine. DENHAM.

Mediocrity in external circumstances is exempt from all the evils which attend either poverty or riches; 'Mediocrity only of enjoyment is allowed to man.'— BLAIR.

MEAN, MEDIUM.

Mean is but a contraction of medium, which signifies in Latin the middle path. The term mean is used abstractedly in all speculative matters: there is a mean in opinions between the two extremes; this mean is doubtless the point nearest to truth, and has been denominated the golden mean, from its supposed excellence.

The man within the golden mean, Who can his boldest wish contain, Securely views the ruin'd cell Where sordid want and sorrow dwell. FRANCIS.

Medium is employed in practical matters; computations are often erroneous from being too high or too low: the medium is in this case the one most to be preferred. The moralist will always recommend the mean in all opinions that widely differ from each other: our passions always recommend to us some extravaout passons aways recommend to us some extrava-gant conduct either of insolent resistance or mean compliance; but discretion recommends the medium or middle course in such matters. This term is how-ever mostly used to denote any intervening object, which may serve as a middle point; 'He who looks upon the soul through its outward actions, often sees it through a deceitful medium.'-ADDISON.

BECOMING, DECENT, SEEMLY, FIT, SUITA-BLE.

Becoming, from become, compounded of he and come, signifies coming in its place; decent, in French decent, in Latin decens, participle of deceo, from the Greek δόκα, and the Chaldee 8.77 to be seem, signifies the quality of be seeming and befuting; seemly, compounded of seem to appear, and by or like, signifies likely or pleasant in appearance; fit and suitable are explained under the article Fit.

What is becoming respects the manner of being in society, such as it ought to be, as to person, time, and place. Decency regards the manner of displaying one's self, so as to be approved and respected. Seemliness is very similar in sense to decency; but its application is confined only to such things as immediately strike the observer. Fitness and suitableness relate to the disposition, arrangement, and order of either being or doing, according to persons, things, or circum-

stances

The becoming consists of an exteriour that is pleasing to the view: decency involves moral propriety; it is regulated by the fixed rules of good breeding: scendiness is decency in the minor morals, or in our behaviour to or in the presence of others: fitness is regulated by local circumstances, and suitableness by the established customs and usages of society. The dress of a woman is becoming when it renders her person more agreeable to the eye; it is decent if it in no

wise offend modesty; it is unseemly if in any degree, however trivial, it violates decorum; it is fit if it be what the occasion requires; it is suitable if it be according to the rank and character of the wearer. What is becoming varies for every individual; the age, the complexion, the stature, and the habits of the person must be consulted in order to obtain the appearance which is becoming; what becomes a young female, or one of fair complexion, may not become one who is farther advanced in life, or who has dark features! decency and seemliness are one and the same for all; all civilized nations have drawn the exact line between the decent and indecent, although fashion may sometimes draw females aside from this line, and cause them to be unseemly if not expressly indecent: fitness varies with the seasons, or the circumstances of persons; what is fit for the winter is unfit for the summer, or what is fit for dry weather is unfit for the wet; what is fit for town is not fit for the country; what is fit for a healthy person is not fit for one that is infinite. suitableness accommodates itself to the external circumstances and conditions of persons; the house, the furniture, and equipage of a prince, must be suitable to his rank; the retinue of an ambassador must be suitable to the character which he has to maintain. and to the wealth, dignity, and importance of the nation, whose monarch he represents; 'Raphael, amid his tenderness and friendship for man, shows such a dignity and condescension in all his speech and behaviour, as are suitable to a superiour nature.'-Ap-

Gravity becomes a judge, or a clergyman, at all times: an unassuming tone is becoming in a child when he addresses his superiours; 'Nothing ought to be held laudable or becoming, but what nature itself should prompt us to think so.'—Strell. Decency requires a more than ordinary gravity when we are in the house of mourning or prayer; it is indecent for a child on the commission of a fault to affect a careless child on the commission of a fault to affect a careless unconcern in the presence of those whom he has offended; 'A Gothick bishop, perhaps, thought it proper to repeat such a form in such particular shoes or slippers; another fancied it would be very deceat if such a part of publick devotions was performed with a mitre on his head.'—Addison. Seemliness is an essential part of good manners; to be loud in one's discourse, to use expressions not authorized in cultivated society, or to discover a captions or tenecious. vated society, or to discover a captious or tenacious temper in one's social intercourse with others are un seemly things;

I am a woman lacking wit To make a seemly answer to such persons. SHAKSPEARE.

There is a fitness or unfitness in persons for each other's society: education fits a person for the society other's society: education has a person for the society of the noble, the wealthy, the polite, and the learned. There is also a fitness of things for persons according to their circumstances; 'To the wiser judgement of God it must be left to determine what is fit to be bestowed, and what to be withheld.'—BLAIR. There is a suitableness in people's tempers for each other; such a suitability is particularly requisite for those who are destined to live together: selfish people, with opposite taste and habits, can never be suitable companions; 'He creates those sympathies and suitableness of nature that are the foundation of all true friendship, and by his providence brings persons so affected together SOUTH.

DECENCY, DECORUM.

Though decency and decorum are both derived from though executy and accorate are non-terrest only the same word (v. Becoming), they have acquired a distinction in their sense and application. Decency respects a man's conduct; decorate his behaviour: a person conducts himself with decency; he behaves with decorum.

Indecency is a vice; it is the violation of publick or private morals: indecorum is a fault; it offends the feelings of those who witness it. Nothing but a depraved mind can lead to indecent practices: indiscretion and thoughtlessness may sometimes give rise to that which is indecorous. Decency enjoins upon all relatives, according to the proximity of their relationship, to show certain marks of respect to the memory of the dead: 'Even religion itself, unless decency be the handmaid which waits upon her, is apt to make

people appear guilty of sourness and ill-humour.'-SPECTATOR. Regard for the feelings of others enjoins a certain outward decorum upon every one who at-tends a funeral; 'I will admit that a fine woman of a certain rank cannot have too many real vices; but at the same time I do insist upon it, that it is essentially her interest not to have the appearance of any one. This decorum, I confess, will conceal her conquests: but on the other hand, if she will be pleased to reflect that those conquests are known sooner or later, she will not upon an average find herself a loser.'—Ches-TERFIELD.

IMMODEST, IMPUDENT, SHAMELESS.

Immodest signifies the want of modesty; impudent

and shameless signify without shame.

The immodest is less than either the impudent or shameless: an immodest girl lays aside the ornament of her sex, and puts on another garb that is less becom-ing; but her heart need not be corrupt until she becomes impudent: she wants a good quality when she is *immodest*; she is possessed of a positively bad quality when she is *impudent*. There is always hope that an immodest woman may be sensible of her errour, and amend; but of an impudent woman there is no such chance, she is radically corrupt; 'Musick diffuses a calm all around us, and makes us drop all those immodest thoughts which would be a hindrance to us in the performance of the great duty of thanksgiving.'— Spectator. 'I am at once equally fearful of sparing Spectator. 'I am at once equally fearful of sparing you, and of being too impudent a corrector.'—Pope.

Impudent may characterize the person or the thing

shameless characterizes the person. A person's air, look, and words, are impudent, when contrary to all modesty: the person himself is shameless who is devoid of all sense of shame;

The sole remorse his greedy heart can feel Is if one life escapes his murdering steel; Shameless by force or fraud to work his way, And no less prompt to flatter than betray. CUMBERLAND.

INDECENT, IMMODEST, INDELICATE.

Indecent is the contrary of decent (v. Becoming), immodest the contrary of modest (v. Modest), indelicate the contrary of delicate (v. Fine).
Indecency and immodesty violate the fundamental principles of morality: the former however in external matters, as dress, words, and looks; the latter in conduct and disposition. A person may be indecent for want of either knowing or thinking better; but a female cannot be habitually immodest without radical corruption of principle. Indecency may be a partial, immodesty is a positive and entire breach of the moral law. Indecency belongs to both sexes; immodesty is peculiarly applicable to the misconduct of females; 'The Dubistan contains more ingenuity and wit, more indecency and blasphemy, than I ever saw collected in one single volume. -SIR Wm. JONES.

Immodest words admit of no defence. For want of decency is want of sense

Roscommon.

Indecency is less than immodesty, but more than indelicacy: they both respect the outward behaviour; but the former springs from illicit or uncurbed desire indelicacy from the want of education. It is a great indecency for a man to marry again very quickly after the death of his wife; but a still greater indecency for a woman to put such an affront on her deceased husband: it is a great indelicacy in any one to break in upon the retirement of such as are in sorrow and mourning. It is indecent for females to expose their persons as many do whom we cannot call immodest women; it is indelicate for females to engage in masculine exercises; 'Your papers would be chargeable with something worse than indelicacy, did you treat the detectable as of conclusions. the detestable sin of uncleanness in the same manner as you rally self-love.'-Spectator.

TO ABJURE, RECANT, RETRACT, REVOKE. RECALL.

Abjure, in Latin abjuro, is compounded of the privative ab and juro to swear, signifying to swear to the

contrary or give up with an oath; recant, in Latin recanto, is compounded of the privative re and canto to sing or declare, signifying to unsay, to contradict by a counter declaration; retract, in Latin retractus, par ticiple of retraho, is compounded of re back and traho to draw, signifying to draw back what has been let go: revoke and recall have the same original sense as recant, with this difference only, that the word call, which is expressed also by voke, or in Latin voco, implies an action more suited to a multitude than the

word canto to sing, which may pass in solitude.

We abjure a religion, we recart a doctrine, we retract a promise, we revoke a command, we recall an

What has been solemnly professed is renounced by abjuration;

The pontiff saw Britannia's golden fleece, Once all his own, invest her worthier sons! Her verdant valleys, and her fertile plains, Yellow with grain, abjure his hateful sway SHENSTONE.

What has been publickly maintained as a settled point of belief is given up by recanting; 'A false satire ought to be recanted for the sake of him whose reputation may be injured.'—JOHNSON. What has been pledged so as to gain credit is contradicted by re tracting; 'When any scholar will convince me that these were futile and malicious tales against Socrates. I will retract all credit in them, and thank him for the conviction.'—CUMBERLAND. What has been proonviction; "Chimberland them, and thank him for the conviction."—Cumberland. What has been pronounced by an act of authority is rendered null by revocation; 'What reason is there, but that those grants and privileges should be revoked or reduced to their first intention."—Spenser. What has been misspoken through inadvertence or mistake is rectified by recalling the words;

'T is done, and since 't is done 't is past recall, And since 't is past recall must be forgotten.

Although Archbishop Cranmer recanted the princi-ples of the reformation, yet he soon after recalled his words, and died boldly for his faith. Henry IV. of France abjured Calvinism, but he did not retract the promise which he had made to the Calvinists of his protection. Louis XIV. drove many of his best sub-

jects from France by revoking the edict of Nantes.

Interest but too often leads men to abjure their faith; the fear of shame or punishment leads them to recant their opinions; the want of principle dictates the retracting of one's promise; instability is the ordinary cause for revoking decrees; a love of precision commonly induces a speaker or writer to recall a false expression.

TO ABOLISH, ABROGATE, REPEAL, REVOKE, ANNUL, CANCEL.

Abolish, in French abolir, Latin aboleo, is compounded of ab and oleo to lose the smell, signifying to lose every trace of former existence; abrogate, in to the every mac of interest careful, and gardiner french abroger, Latin abrogatus, participle of abrogo, compounded of ab and rogo to ask, signifies literally to ask away, or to ask that a thing may be done away; in allusion to the custom of the Romans, among whom no law was valid unless the consent of the people was obtained by asking, and in like manner no law was ummade without asking their consent; repeal, in French rappeler, from the Latin words re and appelle, signifies literally to call back or unsay what has been said, which is in like manner the original meaning of revoke; annul, in French annuller, comes from nulle, in Latin nihil, signifying to reduce to nothing; cancel, in French canceller, comes from the Latin cancelle to cut crosswise, signifying to strike out crosswise, that is, to cross out.

Abolish is a more gradual proceeding than abrogate or any of the other actions. Disuse abolishes; a positive interference is necessary to abrogate. The former is employed with regard to customs: the latter with regard to the authorized transactions of mankind; 'The gard to the admonsted transactions of manning; The long-continued wars between the English and the Scots, had their raised invincible jealousies and hate, which long continued peace hath since abolished."—SIR JOHN HAYWARD. 'Solon abrogated all Draco's sanguinary laws, except those that affected murder'-CUMBERLAND.

Laws are repealed or abrogated; but the former of these terms is mostly in modern use, the latter is applied to the proceedings of the ancients. Edicts are revoked. Official proceedings, contracts, &c. are anaulted. Deeds, honds, obligations, debts, &c. are cancelled.

The introduction of new customs will cause the 'On the parliament's part it was abolition of the old. abolition of the old. 'On the parliament's part it was proposed that all the bishops, deans, and chapters might be immediately taken away and abolished.'— CLARENDON. None can repeat, but those that have the power to make laws; 'If the Presbyteriaus should obtain their ends, I could not be sorry to find them mistaken in the point which they have most at heart, by the repeal of the test; I mean the benefit of emiployments. - Swift. The revocation of any edict is the individual act of one who has the power to pubhish it; 'When we abrogate a law as being ill made, the whole cause for which it has been made still remaining, do we not herein revake our own deed, and upbraid ourselves with folly?—Hooker. To annul may be the act of superiour authority, or an agreement between the parties from whom the act emanated; a reciprocal obligation is annulled by the mutual consent of those who have imposed it on each other; but if the obligation be an authoritative act, the annulment must be so too;

I will annul

By the high power with which the laws invest me, Those guilty forms in which you have entrapp'd, Basely entrapp'd, to thy detested nuptials, My queen betroth'd.—Thomson

To cancel is the act of an individual towards another on whom he has a legal demand; an obligation may be cancelled, either by a resignation of right on the part of the one to whom it belonged, or a satisfaction of the demand on the part of the obliged person;

This hour makes friendships which he breaks the next.

And every breach supplies a vile pretext, Basely to cancel all concessions past, If in a thousand you deny the last.

A change of taste, aided by political circumstances, has caused the abolition of justs and tournaments and other military sports in Europe. The Roman people sometimes abrogated from party spirit what the magistrates enacted for the good of the republick; the same restless temper would lead many to wish for the repeal of the most salutary acts of our parliament.

Caprice, which has often dictated the proclamation of a decree in arbitrary governments, has occasioned

its revocation after a short interval. It is sometimes prudent to annul proceedings which have been decided upon hastily.

A generous man may be willing to cancel a debt: but a grateful man preserves the debt in his mind, and will never suffer it to be cancelled.

TO BLOT OUT, EXPUNGE, RASE OR ERASE, EFFACE, CANCEL, OBLITERATE.

Blot is in all probability a variation of spot, signifying to cover over with a blot; expunge, in Latin expunge, compounded of ex and punge to prick, signifies to put out by pricking with the pen; erase, comes from the Latin erasus, participle of erado, that is, e and rado to scratch out; efface, in French effacer, compounded of the Latin e and facio to make, signifies literally to of the Latine and facto to make, signifies literally to make or put out; cancel, in French canceller, Latin cancello, from cancelli lattice-work, signifies to strike out with cross lines; obliterate, in Latin obliteratus, participle of oblitero, compounded of ob and litera, signifies to cover over letters.

All these terms obviously refer to characters that are impressed on bodies; the first three apply in the proper sense only to that which is written with the hand, and bespeak the manner in which the action is performed. Letters are blotted out, so that they cannot be seen again; they are expunged, so as to signify that they cannot stand for any thing; they are erased, so that the space may be reoccupied with writing. The last three are extended in their application to other cha racters formed on other substances: efface is general,

and does not designate either the manner or the object: inscriptions on stone may be effaced, which are rubbed off so as not to be visible: cancel is principally confined to written or printed characters; they are cancelled by striking through them with the pen; in cancetted by striking through them with the pen; in this manner, leaves or pages of a book are cancelled which are no longer to be used as a part of a work; obliterate is said of all characters, but without defining the mode in which they are put out; letters are obliterated, which are in any way made illegible.

Efface applies to images, or the representations of things; in this manner the likeness of a person may he officed from a statue; cancel respects the subject

be effaced from a statue; cancel respects the subject which is written or printed; obliterate respects the single letters which constitute words.

Effacing is the consequence of some direct action on the thing which is effaced; in this manner writing may be effaced from a wall by the action of the elements: cancel is the act of a person, and always the fruit of design: obliterate is the fruit of accident and circumstances in general; time itself may obliterate

characters on a wall or on paper.

The metaphorical use of these terms is easily deducible from the preceding explanation; what is figuratively described, as written in a book, may be said to be blotted; thus our sins are blotted out by the atoning blood of Christ, and in the same manner things may be blotted out from the mind or the recollection; If virtue is of this amiable nature, what can we think of those who can look upon it with an eye of hatred and ill-will, and can suffer themselves, from their aversion for a party, to blot out all the merit of the person who is engaged in it.'—Addison. When the contents of a book are in part rejected, they are aptly described as being expunged; in this manner, the free-thinking sects expunge every thing from the Bible which does sects expunge every tining from the Bible which does not suit their purpose, or they expunge from their creed what does not humour their passions; 'I believe that any person who was of age to take a part in publick concerns forty years ago (if the intermediate space were expunged from his memory) would hardly credit his senses when he should hear that an army of two hundred the grand more was location. hundred thousand men was kept up in this island.'-BURKE. When the memory is represented as having characters impressed, they are said to be erased, when they are, as it were, directly taken out and occupied by others; in this manner, the recollection of what a child has learned is easily erased by play; and with equal propriety sorrows may be said to efface the recollection of a person's image from the mind;

Yet the best blood by learning is refin'd, And virtue arms the solid mind; While vice will stain the noblest race, And the paternal stamp efface .- OLDISWORTH

From the idea of striking out or cancelling a debt in an account book, a debt of gratitude, or an obligation, is said to be cancelled:

Yet these are they the world pronounces wise; The world, which cancels nature's right and wrong, And new casts wisdom.—Young.

As the lineaments of the face correspond to written characters, we may say that all traces of his former greatness are obliterated: 'The transferring of the scene from Sicily to the Court of King Arthur, must have had a very pleasing effect, before the fabulous majesty of that court was quite obliterated."—Tyr. WHITT.

FORSAKEN, FORLORN, DESTITUTE.

To be forsaken, (v. To abandon) is to be deprived of the company and assistance of others; to be forlorn, from the German verlohren lost, is to be forsaken in time of difficulty, to be without a guide in an unknown road; to be destitute, from the Latin destitutus, is to be deprived of the first necessaries of life.

To be forsaken is a partial situation; to be forlorn and destitute are permanent conditions. We may be forsaken by a fellow-traveller on the road; we are forlorn when we get into a deserted path, with no one to direct us; we are destitute when we have no means of subsistence, nor the prospect of obtaining the means. It is particularly painful to be forsaken by the friend of our youth, and the sharer of our fortunes. But fearful for themselves, my countrymen Left me forsaken in the Cyclops' den

The orphan, who is left to travel the road of life without counsellor or friend, is of all others in the most forlorn condition; 'Conscience made them (Joseph's brethren) recollect, that they who had once been deaf to the sup plications of a brother, were now left friendless and forlorn.'—BLAIR. If poverty be added to forlornness, a man's misery is aggravated by his becoming destitute; 'Friendless and destitute, Dr. Goldsmith was exposed to all the miseries of indigence in a foreign country.'- Johnson.

PROFLIGATE, ABANDONED, REPROBATE

Profligate, in Latin profligatus, participle of profligo, compounded of the intensive pro and higo to dash or beat, signifies completely ruined and lost to every thing; abandoned signifies given up to one's lusts and vicious indulgences; reprobate (v. To reprove) signifies one thoroughly rejected.

These terms, in their proper acceptation, express the most wretched condition of fortune into which it is possible for any human being to be plunged, and cons quently in their improper application they denote that state of moral desertion and ruin which cannot be exceeded in wickedness or depravity. A profligate man has lost all by his vices, consequently to his vices alone he looks for the regaining those goods of fortune which he has squandered; as he has nothing to lose, and every thing to gain in his own estimation, by pursuing the career of his vices, he surpasses all others in his unprincipled conduct; 'Aged wisdom can check the most forward, and abash the most profligate.'—BLAIR.

An abandoned man is altogether abandoned to his pas-An abandonea man is an engener abandonea to his passions, which, having the entire sway over him, naturally impel him to every excess; 'To be negligent of what any one thinks of you, does not only show you arrogant but abandoned.'—Hughes. The reprobate man is one who has been reproved until he becomes incomible to reprove and is given into the requiries to expension and is proved to the province of the province sensible to reproof, and is given up to the malignity of his own passions;

And here let those who boast in mortal things, Learn how their greatest monuments of fame, And strength, and art, are easily outdone By reprobate spirits.—MILTON.

The profligate man is the greatest enemy to society; the abandoned man is a still greater enemy to himself; the profligate man lives upon the publick, whom he plunders or defrauds; the abandoned man lives for the indulgence of his own unbridled passions; the reprobate man is little better than an outcast both by God and man: unprincipled debtors, gamesters, sharpers, swindlers, and the like, are profligate characters; whoremasters, drunkards, spendthritts, seducers, and debauchees of all descriptions, are abandoned character; although the profligate and abandoned are commonly the same persons, yet the young are in general abandoned, and those more hackneyed in vice are profligate; none can be reprobate but those who have been long inured to profligate courses.

HEINOUS, FLAGRANT, FLAGITIOUS, ATROCIOUS.

Heinous, in French heinous, Greek alvos or δεινός terrible: flagrant, in Latin flagrans burning, is a figu rative expression for what is excessive and violent in its nature; flagitious, in Latin flagitiosus, from flagitium infamy, signifies peculiarly infamous; atrocious, in Latin atrox cruel, from ater black, signifies exceed-

These epithets, which are applied to crimes, seem to rise in degree. A crime is heinous which seriously of-fends against the laws of men; a sin is heinous which seriously offends against the will of God; 'There are many authors who have shown wherein the malignity of a lie consists, and set forth in proper colours the heior a ne consists, and set forth in proper colours the hei-nousness of the offence."—Adopson. An offence is flagrant which is in direct defiance of established opinions and practice; If any flagrant deed occur to smite a man's conscience, on this he cannot avoid rest-ing with anxiety and terrour."—Blair. An act is flagitious if it be a gross violation of the moral law, or coupled with any grossness; 'It is recorded of Sir Matthew Hale, that he for a long time concealed the consecration of himself to the stricter duties of religion, lest by some flagitious action he should bring piety into disgrace.'—JORNSON. A crime is atrocious which is attended with any aggravating circumstances; 'The wickedness of a loose or profaue author is niore atro-cious than that of the giddy libertine.'—Johnson. Lying is a heinous sin; gaming and drunkenness are flagrant breaches of the Divine law; the nurder of a whole family is in the fullest sense atrocious.

BARE, NAKED, UNCOVERED.

Bare, in Saxon bare, German bar, Hebrew y to lay bare; naked, in Saxon naced, German nacket or naket, low German naakt, Swedish nakot, Danish nogen, &c. comes from the Latin nudus, compounded of ne not, and dutus or indutus clothed, and the Greek δύω to clothe

Bare marks the condition of being without some necessary appendage; 'Though the lords used to be covered while the commons were bare, yet the commons would not be bare before the Scottish commissioners; and so none were covered.'—Clarendon. Naked described by the state of the s notes the absence of an external covering or something essential; bare is therefore often substituted for naked although not vice versa: we speak of bareheaded, barefoot, to expose the bare arm; but a figure is said to be naked, or the body is naked.

When applied to other objects, bare conveys the idea of want in general; naked simply the want of something exteriour: when we speak of sitting upon the thing exteriour: when we speak of sitting upon the bare ground, of laying any place bare, of bare walls, a bare house, the idea of want in essentials is strongly conveyed; but naked walls, naked fields, a naked appearance, all denote something wanting to the eye, bare in this sense is frequently followed by the object oure in this sense is frequently followed by the object that is wanted; naked is mostly employed as an adjunct; a tree is bare of leaves; this constitutes it a naked tree; 'The story of Æneas, on which Virgil founded his poem, was very bare of circumstances.'-ADDISON.

Why turn'st thou from me? I'm alone already: Methinks I stand upon a naked beach, Sighing to winds and to the seas complaining. OTWAY.

They preserve the same analogy in their figurative application: a bare sufficiency is that which scarcely application: a bare sumerency is that which scarcely suffices; 'Christ and the Apostles did most earnestly inculcate the belief of his Godhead, and accepted men upon the bare acknowledgement of this.'—South. The naked truth is that which has nothing about it to intercept the view of it from the mind;

The truth appears so naked on my side, That any purblind eye may find it out.

SHAKSPEARE.

Sometimes the word naked may be applied in the exact sense of bare to imply the want of some necessary addition, when it expresses the idea more strongly than bare; 'Not that God doth require nothing unto happiness at the hands of men, saving only a naked belief, for hope and charity we may not exclude.'-Hooker.

Naked and uncovered bear a strong resemblance to each other; to be naked is in fact to have the body un covered, but many things are uncovered which are not naked: nothing is said to be naked but what in the nature of things, or according to the usages of men. ought to be covered;

He pitying how they stood Before him naked to the air, that now Must suffer change:-As father of his family, he clad Their nakedness with skins of beasts .- MILTON

Every thing is uncovered from which the covering is removed; 'In the eye of that Supreme Being to whom our whole internal frame is unconered, dispositions hold the place of actions."—BLAIR. According to our natural sentiments of decency, or our acquired senti-ments of propriety, we expect to see the naked body covered with clothing, the naked tree covered with leaves; the naked walls covered with paper or paint; and the naked country covered with vendure or habitations: on the other hand, plants are left uncovered to receive the benefit of the sun or rain: furniture or articles of use or necessity are left uncovered to suit the convenience of the user: or a person may be uncovered, in the sense of bare-headed, on certain occa-

BARE, SCANTY, DESTITUTE.

Bare (v. Bare, naked): scanty, from to scant, signifies the quality of scanting; scant is most probably changed from the Latin scindo to clip or cut; destitute, in Latin destitutus, participle of destituo, compounded of de privative and statuo to appoint or provide for,

of de privative and statue to appoint or provide for, signifies unprovided for or wanting.

All these terms denote the absence or deprivation of some necessary. Bare and scanty have a relative sense: bare respects what serves for ourselves; scanty that which is provided by others. A subsistence is bare; a supply is scanty. An imprudent person will estimate as a bare competence what would supply an economist with superfluities; 'Were it for the glory of God, that the clergy should be left as bare as the apostles when they had neither staff nor scrip, God would, I hope, endue them with the self-same affection.'—HOOKER. A hungry person will consider as a scanty allowance what would more than suffice for a moderate eater: 'So scanty is our present allowance of moderate eater; 'So scanty is our present allowance of happiness, that in many situations life could scarcely be supported, if hope were not allowed to relieve the present hour, by pleasures borrowed from the future.'-

Bare is said of those things which belong to the corporeal sustenance; destitute is said of one's outward or money; he is destitute of friends, of resources, or of comforts; 'Destitute of that faithful guide, the compass, the ancients had no other method of regulating their course than by observing the sun and stars.'-Ro-

BERTSON.

BARE, MERE.

Bare (v. Bare, naked); mere, in Latin merus mere, properly solus alone, from the Greek μείρω to divide, signifies separated from others.

Bare is used in a positive sense: mere, negatively. The bare recital of some events brings tears. The mere circumstance of receiving favours ought not to bind any person to the opinions of another.

The bare idea of being in the company of a murtiple of the property of

derer is apt to awaken horrour in the mind; 'He who goes no farther than bare justice, stops at the beginning of virtue. Blair. The mere attendance at a place of worship is the smallest part of a Christian's duty; 'I would advise every man, who would not appear in the world a mere scholar or philosopher, to make himself master of the social virtue of complaisance.'-Appison.

SCARCITY, DEARTH.

Scarcity (v. Rare) is a generick term to denote the circumstance of a thing being scarce: dearth, which is the same as dearness, is a mode of scarcity applied is the same as dearness, is a mode of scarcing applied in the literal sense to provisions mostly, as provisions are mostly dear when they are scarce; the word dearth therefore denotes scarcity in a high degree: whatever men want, and find it difficult to procure, they complain of its scarcity; when a country has the misfortune to be visited with a famine, it experiences the frightfullest of all dearths.

RARE, SCARCE, SINGULAR.

Rare, in Latin rarus, comes from the Greek $d\rho a d\phi_s$ thin; scarce, in Dutch schaers sparing, comes from scheren to cut or clip, signifying cut close; singular (v).

Rare and scarce both respect number and quantity, which admits of expansion or diminution: rare is a thinned number, a duminished quantity; scarce is a

short quantity.

Rare is applied to matters of convenience or luxury: scarce to matters of utility or necessity: that which is any to every individual part without distinction. Some rare becomes valuable, and fetches a high price; that which is scarce becomes precious, and the loss of it is think this, and others that: any person might believe which is scarce becomes precious, and the loss of it is if he would; any one can conquer his passions who beriously felt. The best of every thing is in its nature calls in the aid of religion. In consequence of this

rare; there will never be a superfluity of such things; there are, however, some things, as particularly curious plants, or particular animals, which, owing to circumstances, are always rare: that which is most in use, will, in certain cases, be scarce; when the supply of an article fails, and the demand for it continues, it an article rains, and the definance, it naturally becomes scarce. An aloe in blossom is a rarity, for nature has prescribed such limits to its growth as to give but very few of such flowers; 'A perfect union of wit and judgement is one of the rarest things in the world." BURKE. The paintings of Raphael, and other distinguished painters, are daily becoming more scarce, because time will diminish their quantity, although not their value; When any particular piece of money grew very scarce, it was often recoined by a succeeding emperour.—Addison.

What is rare will often be singular, and what is singular will often, on that account, be rare; but they are not necessarily applied to the same object: fewness is the idea common to both; but rare is said of that of which there might be more; but singular is applied to that which is single, or nearly single, in its kind. The rare is that which is always sought for; the singular is not always that which one esteems: a thing is rare which is difficult to be obtained; a thing is singular for its peculiar qualities, good or bad; 'We should learn, by reflecting on the misfortunes which have attended others, that there is nothing singular in those which befall ourselves.'—Melmoth (Letters of Cicero). Indian plants are many of them rare in England, because the climate will not agree with them;

England, because the climate win not agree with them; the sensitive plant is singular, as its quality of yielding to the touch distinguishes it from all other plants. Scarce is applied only in the proper sense to physical objects; rare and singular are applicable to moral objects. One speaks of a rare instance of fidelity, of which many like examples cannot be found; of a singular gular instance of depravity, when a parallel case can

scarcely be found.

SIMPLE, SINGLE, SINGULAR.

Simple, in Latin simplex or sine plica without a fold, is opposed to the complex, which has many folds, or to the compound which has several parts involved or connected with each other; 'To make the compound for the rich metal simple, is an adulteration or counterfeiting.'—Bacox. Single and singular (v. One) are opposed, one to double, and the other to multifarious

Mankind with other animals compare, Single how weak and impotent they are

'These busts of the emperours and empresses are all very scarce, and some of them almost singular in their kind.—Apprson. We may speak of a simple circumstance as independent of any thing; of a single instance or circumstance as unaccompanied by any other: and a singular instance as one that rarely has its like In the moral application to the person, simplicity, as far as it is opposed to duplicity in the heart, can never lar as it is opposed to duplicity in the head, so that it cannot penetrate the folds and doublings of other persons, it is a fault; 'Nothing extraneous must cleave to the eye in the act of seeing; its bare object must be as naked as truth, as simple and unmixed as sincerity.' -South. Singleness of heart and intention is that species of simplicity which is altogether to be admired; singularity may be either good or bad according to singularity may be either good of bad according to circumstances; to be singular in virtue is to be truly good; but to be singular in manner is affectation, which is at variance with genuine simplicity, if not directly opposed to it; 'From the union of the crowns to the Revolution in 1688, Scotland was placed in a political situation the most singular and most unhappy.' -ROBERTSON.

SOME, ANY.

Some, probably contracted from so a one or such a one, is altogether restrictive in its sense: any, from a one, is altogether universal and indefinite. Some applies to one particular part in distinction from the rest: any to every individual part without distinction. Some distinction in sense, some can only be used in particular affirmative propositions; but any, which is equivalent to all, may be either in negative, interrogative, or hypothetical propositions: some say so: does any one believe it? He will not give to any.

SOLITARY, SOLE, ONLY, SINGLE.

Solitary and sole are both derived from solus alone or whole; only, that is onely, signifies the quality of unity; single is an abbreviation of singular (v.

Simple)

All these terms are more or less opposed to several or many. Solitary and sole signify one left by itself; the former mostly in application to particular sensible objects, the latter in regard mostly to moral objects: a solitary shrub expresses not only one shrub, but one that has been left to itself;

The cattle in the fields and meadows green, Those rare and solitary, these in flocks .- MILTON.

The sole cause or reason signifies that reason or cause which stands unsupported by any thing else; 'All things are but insipid to a man in comparison of that one, which is the sole minion of his fancy.'—SOUTH. Only does not include the idea of desertion or depriva-tion, but it comprehends that of want or deficiency: to say of a person that he has only one shilling in his pocket, means to imply, that he wants more or ought to have more. Single signifies simply one or more deto have more. Sangue signines simply one of more de-tached from others, without conveying any other col-lateral idea: a single sheet of paper may be sometimes more convenient than a double one; a single shilling may be all that is necessary for the present purpose; there may be single ones, as well as a single one; but the other terms exclude the idea of there being any thing else.

Thy fear Will save us trial, what the least can do, Single against the wicked.—MILTON.

A solitary act of generosity is not sufficient to characterize a man as generous: with most criminals the sole ground of their defence rests upon their not having learned to know and do better: harsh language and severe looks are not the only means of correcting the faults of others: single instances of extraordinary talents now and then present themselves in the course

of an age

In the adverbial form, solely, only, and singly are employed with a similar distinction. The disasters which attend an unsuccessful military enterprise are seldom to be attributed solely to the incapacity of the general: there are many circumstances both in the natural and moral world which are to be accounted for only by admitting a providence as presented to us in Divine revelation: there are many things which men could not effect singly that might be effected by them conjointly

ONE, SINGLE, ONLY.

Unity is the common idea of all these terms; and at the same time the whole signification of one, which is opposed to none; single, in Latin singulus each or one by itself, probably contracted from sine angulo without an angle, because what is entirely by itself cannot form an angle, signifies that one which is ab-stracted from others, and is particularly opposed to stracted from others, and is particularly opposed to two, or a double which may form a pair; only, contracted from onely, signifying in the form of unity, is employed for that of which there is no more. A person has one child, is a positive expression that bespeaks its own meaning: a person has a single child, conveys the idea that there ought to be or might be more, that more was expected, or that once there were more: a person has an only child, implies that he never had more.

For shame, Rutilians, can you bear the sight Of one exposed for all, in single fight ?- DRYDEN.

Homely but wholesome roots My daily food, and water from the nearest spring My only drink .- FILMER.

BESIDES, MOREOVÉR.

Besides that is, by the side, next to, marks simply

the connexion which subsists between what goes be-fore and what follows; moreover, that is, more than all else, marks the addition of something particular to what has already been said.

Thus in enumerating the good qualities of an individual, we may say, "he is besides of a peaceable disposition." On concluding any subject of question we may introduce a farther clause by a moreover: "Moreover we must not forget the claims of those who will suffer by such a change;" 'Now, the best way in the world for a man to seem to be any thing, is really to be what he would seem to be. Besides, that it is many times as troublesome to make good the Pretence of a good quality as to have it.—Tillorson.

It being granted that God governs the world, it will follow also that he does it by means suitable to the natures of the things that he governs; and moreover man being by nature a free, moral agent, and so capable of deviating from his duty, as well as performing it, it is necessary that he should be governed by laws South.

BESIDES, EXCEPT.

Besides (v. Moreover), which is here taken as a pre-position, expresses the idea of addition; except expresses that of exclusion.

There were many there besides ourselves; no one except ourselves will be admitted; 'Besides impiety, discontent carries along with it as its inseparable concomitants, several other sinful passions."—BLAIR. 'Neither jealousy nor envy can dwell with the Supreme Being. He is a rival to none, he is an enemy to none, except to such as, by rebellion against his laws, seek enmity with him.'—BLATR.

UNLESS, EXCEPT.

Unless, which is equivalent to if less, if not, or if one fail, is employed only for the particular case; but one fail, is employed only for the particular case; but except has always a reference to some general rule, of which an exception is hereby signified: I shall not do it unless he ask me; no one can enter except those who are provided with tickets; *Unless money can be borrowed, trade cannot be carried on. *Blackbe borrowed, trade cannot be carried on.—DLACK-STONE. 'If a wife continues in the use of her jewels till her husband's death, she shall afterward retain them against his executors and administrators, and all other persons except creditors.'-BLACKSTONE.

HOWEVER, YET, NEVERTHELESS, NOTWITHSTANDING.

These conjunctions are in grammar termed adversa tive, because they join sentences together that stand more or less in opposition to each other. However is the most general and indefinite; it serves as a conclusive deduction drawn from the whole.

The truth is however not yet all come out: by which is understood that much of the truth has been told, and much yet remains to be told: so likewise in similar sentences; I am not, however, of that opinion; where it is implied either that many hold the opinion, or much may be said of it; but be that as it may, I am not of that opinion: however you may rely on my assistance to that amount; that is, at all events, let whatever happen, you may rely on so much of my assistance. assistance: however, as is obvious from the above examples, connects not only one single proposition, but many propositions either expressed or understood; 'However it is but just sometimes to give the world a representation of the bright side of human nature.'-HUGHES. Yet, nevertheless, and notwithstanding, are mostly employed to set two specifick propositions either in contrast or direct opposition to each other; the two latter are but species of the former, pointing out the opposition in a more specifick manner.

There are cases in which yet is peculiarly proper; others in which nevertheless, and others in which not-withstanding, is preferable. Yet bespeaks a simple contrast; Addison was not a good speaker, yet he was an admirable writer; Johnson was a man of uncouth manners, yet he had a good heart and a sound head; 'He had not that reverence for the queen as might have been expected from a man of his wisdom and breeding; yet he was impertmently solicitous to know what her Majesty said of him in private. —CLAREN

now. Menertheless and notwithstanding could not in these cases have been substituted. Nevertheless and notwithstanding are mostly used to imply effects or consequences opposite to what might naturally be expected to result. He has acted an unworthy part; nevertheless I will be a friend to him as far as I can; that is, although he has acted an unworthy part; nevertheless I will be a friend to him as far as I can; that is, although he has acted an unworthy part, I will be no less his friend as far as lies in my power; 'There will always be something that we shall wish to have finished, and be nevertheless unwilling to begin.—Johnson. Notwithstanding all I have said, he still persists in his own imprudent conduct, that is, all I have said notwithstanding or not restraining him from t, he still persists. He is still rich notwithstanding or not randing in the way of it, he is still rich; 'Notwithstanding there is such infinite room between man and his Maker for the creative power to exert itself in, it is impossible that it ever should be filled up.—Aborton. From this resolution of the terms, more than from any specifick rule, we may judge of their distinct applications, and clearly perceive that in such cases as those above-cited the conjunctions nevertheless and notwithstanding could not be substituted for each other, nor yet for either: in other cases, however, where the objects are less definitely pointed out, they may be used indifferently. The Jesuits piqued themselves always upon their strict morality, and yet (notwithstanding, nor nevertheless) they admitted of many things not altogether consonant with moral principle: you know that these are but tales, yet (notwithstanding, nevertheless) vou believe them.

ALL, WHOLE.

All and whole are derived from the same source, that is, in German all and heil whole or sound, Dutch all, hel, or heel, Saxon al, wal, Danish al, ald, Greek őlos,

Hebrew 73.

All respects a number of individuals; whole respects a single body with its components: we have not all, if we have not the whole number; we have not the whole, if we have not all the parts of which it is composed. It is not within the limits of human capacity to take more than a partial survey of all the interesting objects which the whole globe contains.

When applied to spiritual objects in a general sense, all is preferred to whole; but when the object is specifick, whole is preferable: thus we say, all hope was lost; but, our whole hope rested in this; 'It will be asked how the drama moves if it be not credited. It is credited with all the credit due to a drama.'—Johnson. 'The whole story of the transactions between Edward Harold and the Duke of Normandy is told so differently by ancient writers, that there are few important passages of the English history liable to so great uncertainty.'—Hume.

ALL, EVERY, EACH.

All is collective; every single or individual; each distributive.

All and every are universal in their signification: each is restrictive: the former are used in speaking of great numbers; the latter is applicable to small numbers.

All men are not born with the same talent, either in degree or kind; but every man has a talent peculiar to himself: a parent divides his property among his children, and gives to each his due share; 'Harold by his marriage broke all measures with the Duke of Normandy.'—HUME. 'Every man's performances, to be rightly estimated, must be compared to the state of the age in which he lived.'—Johnson. 'Taken singly and individually, it might be difficult to conceive how each event wrought for good. They must be viewed in their consequences and effects.'—BLAIR.

NUMEROUS, NUMERAL, NUMERICAL.

Numerous signifies literally containing a number, and is taken to denote a great many or a great number; numeroul and numerical both imply belonging to number. Numeral is applied to a class of words in grammar, as a numeral adjective, or a numeral numerocal is applied to whatever other objects respect number: as a numerical difference, where the difference is the difference of the objects of the difference is a numerical difference, where the difference is the difference of the objects of the difference is a numerical difference.

ence subsists between any two numbers, or is expressed by numbers.

SPECIAL, SPECIFICK, PARTICULAR.

Special, in Latin specialis, signifies belonging to the species; particular, belonging to a particle or small part; specifick, in Latin specificus, from species a species, and facio to make, signifies making a species. The special is that which comes under the general; the particular is that which comes under the special, hence we speak of a special rule; but a particular case; 'God claims it as a special part of his prerogative to have the entire disposal of riches.'—SOUTH. Particular and specifick are both applied to the properties of individuals; but particular is said of the contingent circumstances of things, specifick of their inherent properties; every plant has something particular in itself different from others, it is either longer or shorter, weaker or stronger; Every state has a particular principle of happiness, and this principle may in each be carried to a mischievous excess.'—Goldsmith. The specifick property of a plant is that which it has in common with its species; 'The imputation of being a fool is a thing which mankind, of all others, is the most impatient of, it being a blot upon the prime and specifick perfection of human nature.'—South. Particular is, therefore, a term adapted to loose discourse; specifick is a scientifick term which describes things minutely.

The same may be said of particularize and specify: we particularize for the sake of information; we specify for the sake of instruction: in describing a nan's person and dress we particularize if we mention every thing singly which can be said upon it; in delineating a plan it is necessary to specify time, place, distance, materials, and every thing else which may be connected with the carrying of it into execution.

PARTICULAR, INDIVIDUAL.

Particular (v. Peculiar); individual, in French individual, Latin individual, signifies that which cannot be divided

Both these terms are employed to express one object, but particular is nuch more specifick than individual; the particular confines us to one object only of many but individual may be said of any one object among many. A particular object cannot be misunderstood for any other, while it remains particular; but the individual object can never be known from other individual objects, while it remains only individuals. Particular is a term used in regard to individuals, and is opposed to the general: individual is a term used in regard to collectives; and is opposed to the whole or that which is divisible into parts; 'Those particular speeches, which are commonly known by the name of rants, are blemishes in our English tragedy.'—ADDISON.

To give thee being, I lent
Out of my side to thee, nearest my heart,
Substantial life, to have thee by my side,
Henceforth an individual solace dear.—Milton

ALONE, SOLITARY, LONELY.

Alone, compounded of all and one, signifies altogether one, or single; that is, by one's self; solitary, in French solitaire, Latin solitarius, from solus alone, signifies the quality of being alone; lonely signifies in the manner of alone.

Alone marks the state of a person; solitary the quality of a person or thing; lonely the quality of a thing only. A person walks alone, or takes a solitary walk in a lonely place.

Whoever likes to be much alone is of a solitary turn;

Here we stand alone, As in our form distinct, pre-eminent.—Young.

Wherever a man can be most and oftenest alone, that is a solitary or lonely place; 'I would wish no man to deceive himself with opinions which he has not thoroughly reflected upon in his solitary hours.'—Cumberland

Within an ancient forest's ample verge There stands a lonely, but a healthful dwelling, Built for convenience and the use of life .- Rowe.

ALSO, LIKEWISE, TOO.

Also, compounded of all and so, signifies literally all in the same manner: likewise, compounded of like and wise or manner, signifies in like manner; too, a variation of the numeral two, signifies what may be added or joined to another thing from its similarity.

These adverbial expressions obviously convey the same idea of including or classing certain objects together upon a supposed ground of affinity. Also is a more general term, and has a more comprehensive meaning, as it implies a sameness in the whole; 'Let think for a little of that reproach of modern times, that gulf of time and fortune, the passion for gaming, which is so often the refuge of the idle sons of pleasure, and often also the last resource of the ruined. -BLAIR. Likewise is more specifick and limited in its acceptation: 'All the duties of a daughter, a sister, a wife, and a mother, may be well performed, though a lady should not be the finest woman at an opera. They are likewise consistent with a moderate share of wit, a plain dress, and a modest air.'-STEELE

Too is still more limited than either, and refers only to a single object; 'Long life is of all others the most general, and seemingly the most innocent object of desire. With respect to this, too, we so frequently err, that it would have been a hlessing to many to have had their wish denied.—BLAIR.

"He also was among the number" may convey the idea of totality both as respects the person and the event: "he writes likewise a very fine hand" conveys the idea of similar perfection in his writing as in other qualifications: "he said so too," signifies he said so in addition to the others; he said it likewise would imply that he said the same thing, or in the same manner.

SOLITARY, DESERT, DESOLATE.

Solitary is derived from the Latin solus alone; desert is the same as deserted; desolate, in Latin desolatus,

signifies made solitary.

All these epithets are applied to places, but with different modifications of the common idea of solitude which belongs to them. The solitary simply denotes the absence of all beings of the same kind: thus a place s solitary to a man, where there is no human being but himself; and it is solitary to a brute, when there are no brutes with which it can hold society; 'The first time we behold the hero (Ulysses), we find him discon-solately sitting on the solitary shore, sighing to return to Ithaca.'-WHARTON. Desert conveys the idea of a place made solitary by being shunned, from its unfitness as a place of residence; all deserts are places of such wildness as seems to frighten away almost all inhabitants:

A peopled city made a desert place .- DRYDEN.

Desolate conveys the idea of a place made solitary, or bare of inhabitants, and all traces of habitation, by violent means; every country may become desolate which is exposed to the inroads of a ravaging army;

Supporting and supported, polish'd friends And dear relations mingle into bliss; But this the rugged savage never felt. E'n desolate in crowds.--Thomson.

TO RECEDE, RETREAT, RETIRE, WITH-DRAW, SECEDE.

To recede is to go back; to retreat is to draw back; the former is a simple action, suited to one's conve nience; the latter is a particular action, dictated by necessity: we recede by a direct backward movement; we retreat by an indirect backward movement: we recede a few steps in order to observe an object more distinctly; we retreat from the position we have taken, in order to escape danger: whoever can advance can recede; but in general those only retreat whose advance is not free receding is the act of everyone; retreating is peculiarly the act of soldiers, or those who make hostile movements. To retire and withdraw originally signify the same as retreat, that is, draw back or off; but they agree in application mostly with recede: to

recede is to go back from a given spot; but to retire and withdraw have respect to the place or the presence of the persons: we may recede on an open plain; but we retire or withdraw from a room, or from some company. In this application withdraw is the more familiar term: retire may likewise be used for an army; but it denotes a much more leisurely action than retreat: a general retreats, by compulsion, from an enemy; but he may retire from an enemy's country when there is no enemy present.

Recede, retire, withdraw, and retreat, are also used in a moral application; secede is used only in this sense: a person recedes from his engagement, which is seldom justifiable; or he may recede from his pretensions, which is mostly commendable; 'We were soon brought to the necessity of receding from our imagined equality with our cousins.'—Johnson. A person retires from business when he ceases to carry it on any longer; 'Retirement from the world's cares and pleasures has been often recommended as useful to repentance.'— Johnson. A person withdraws from a society either for a time or altogether; 'A temptation may withdraw for awhile, and return again.'—South. As life is religiously considered as a warfare with the world, they glousy considered as a warrare with the world, they are said to retreat from the contest who do not enter into its pleasures; 'How certain is our ruin, unless we sometimes retreat from this pestilential region (the world of pleasure).'—BLAIR. To secede is a public act: men secede from a religious or political body: withdraw is a private act; they withdraw themselves as individual members from any society; 'Pisistratus and his sons maintained their usurpations during a period of sixty-eight years, including those of Pisistratus's secessions from Athens.'-Cumberland.

PRIVACY, RETIREMENT, SECLUSION.

Privacy literally denotes the abstract quality of private; but when taken by itself it signifies the state of being private; retirement literally signifies the abstract returing; and seclusion that of secluding one's self: but retirement by itself frequently denotes a state of being retired, or a place of retirement; seclusion, a state of being secluded: hence we say a person lives in privacy, in retirement, in seclusion: privacy is opposed to publicity; he who lives in privacy, therefore, is one who follows no publick line, who lives so as to be little known;

Fly with me to some safe, some sacred privacy ROWE

Retirement is opposed to openness or freedom of access, he, therefore, who lives in retirement, withdraws from the society of others, he lives by himself; 'In our retirements every thing disposes us to be serious.'-Addison. Seclusion is the excess of retirement; he who lives in seclusion bars all access to himself; he shuts himself from the world;

What can thy imag'ry of sorrow mean? Secluded from the world, and all its care Hast thou to grieve or joy, to hope or fear ?

Privacy is most suitable for such as are in circumstances of humiliation, whether from their misfortune or their fault: retirement is peculiarly agreeable to those who are of a reflective turn; but seclusion is chosen only by those who labour under some strong affection of the mind, whether of a religious or physical nature.

TO ABDICATE, DESERT

The following celebrated speech of Lord Somers, in 1688, on King James's vacating the throne, may be admitted as a happy elucidation of these two important words; but I am not inclined to think that they come sufficiently close in signification to render any comparison necessary.

"What is appointed me to speak to is your Lordships' first amendment by which the word abdicated in the Commons' vote is changed into the word deserted, and I am to acquaint your Lordships what some of the grounds are that induced the Commons to insist on the word abdicated, and not to agree to your amendment.
"The first reason your Lordships are pleased to

deliver for your changing the word is, that the word

abdicated your Lordships do not find is a word known to the common law of England, and therefore ought not to be used. The next is that the common application of the word amounts to a voluntary express renunciation, which is not in this case, nor will follow

from the premise

"My Lords, as to the first of these reasons, if it be an objection that the word abdicated hath not a known sense in the common law of England, there is the same objection against the word deserted; so that your Lordships' first reason hath the same force against your own amendment, as against the term used by the Com-

¹¹ The words are both Latin words, and used in the best authors, and both of a known signification; their meaning is very well understood, though it be true their meaning is not the same. The word abdicate doth naturally and properly signify, entirely to renounce, throw off, disown, relinquish any thing or person, so as to have no further to do with it; and that whether it be done by express words or in writing (which is the sense your Lordships put upon it, and which is properly called resignation or cession), or by doing such acts as are inconsistent with the holding and retaining of the thing, which the Commons take to be the present case, and therefore make choice of the word abdicate, as that which they thought did above all others express that meaning. And in this latter sense it is taken by others; and that this is the true signification of the word I shall show your Lordships out of the best authors.

"The first I shall mention is Grotius, De Jure Belli et Pacis, 1. 2, c. 4, § 4. Venit enim hoc non ex jure civili, sed ex jure naturali, quo quisque suum potest abdicare, et ex naturali præsumptione, qua voluisse quis creditur quod sufficienter significavit. And then goes on: Recusari hæreditas, non tantum verbis sed etiam re, potest, et quovis indicio voluntatis.

"Another instance which I shall mention, to show that for abdicating a thing it is sufficient to do an act which is inconsistent with retaining it, though there be nothing of express renunciation, is out of Calvin's Lexicon Juridicum, where he says, Generum abdicat qui sponsam repudiat. Here is an abdication without express words, but it is by doing such an act as doth sufficiently signify his purpose.

"The next author I shall quote is Brissonius, De

Verborum Significatione, who hath this passage: Homo liber qui seipsum vendit abdicat se statu suo. he who sells himself hath thereby done such an act as cannot consist with his former state of freedom, and is

thereby said properly se abdicasse statu suo.
"Budæus, in his Commentaries Ad Legem Secundam

de Origine Juris, expounds the words in the same sense Abdicare se magistratu est idem quod abire penitus magistratu. He that goes out of his office of magistracy, let it be in what manner he will, has abdicated the

magistracy.

And Grotius, in his Book de Jure Belli et Pacis, 1. 1, c. 4, § 9, seems to expound the word abdicare by manifeste habere pro derelicto; that is, he who hath abdicated any thing hath so far relinquished it, that he hath no right of return to it. And that is the sense the Commons put upon the word. It is an entire alienation of the thing abdicated, and so stands in opposition to dicare. Dicat qui proprium aliquot facit, abdicat qui alienat: so says Pralejus in his Lexicon Juris. It is therefore insisted on as the proper word by the Com-

" But the word deserted (which is the word used in the amendment made by your Lordships) hath not only a very doubtful signification, but in the common acceptance both of the civil and canon law, doth signify only a bare withdrawing, a temporary quitting of a thing, and neglect only, which leaveth the party at liberty of returning to it again. Desertum pro neglecto, says Spigelius in his Lexicon. But the difference between deservere and derelinquere is expressly laid down by Bartolus on the 8th law of the 58th title of the 11th book of the Code, and his words are these Nota diligenter ex hac lege, quod aliud est agrum deserere, aliud derelinquere; qui enim derelinquit ipsum ex pænitentia non revocare, sed qui deserit, ingra bjennium potest,

"Whereby it appears, my lords, that is called de-sertion which is temporary and relievable; that is called dereliction where there is no power or right to

return.

"So in the best Latin authors, and in the civil law deserver exercitum is used to signify soldiers leaving their colours; and in the canon law to desert a benefice signifies no more than to be a non-resident.

"In both cases the party hath not only a right of returning, but is bound to return again; which, my Lords, as the Commons do not take to be the present case, so they cannot think that your Lordships do, be-cause it is expressly said, in one of your reasons given in defence of the last amendment, that your Lordships have been and are willing to secure the nation against the return of King James, which your Lordships would in justice do, if you did look upon it to be no more than a negligent withdrawing, which leaveth a liberty to the

party to return.
"For which reasons, my Lords, the Commons cannot agree to the first amendment, to insert the word deserted instead of abdicated; because it doth not in any sort come up to their sense of the thing, so they apprehend it doth not reach your Lordships' meaning as it is expressed in your reasons, whereas they look upon the word abdicated to express properly what is to be inferred from that part of the vote to which your Lordships have agreed, viz. 'That King James II., by going about to subvert the constitution, and by breaking the original contract between king and people, and by olating the fundamental laws, and withdrawing him-self out of the kingdom, hath thereby renounced to be a king according to the constitution.' By avowing to govern according to a despotick power unknown to the constitution, and inconsistent therewith, he hath renounced to be a king according to the law; such a king as he swore to be at the coronation; such a king to whom the allegiance of an English subject is due; and hath set up another kind of dominion; which is to all intents an abdication or abandoning of his legal title as fully as if it had been done by express words.

"And, my Lords, for these reasons the Commons do insist upon the word abdicated, and cannot agree to the

word deserted.

Without all this learned verbosity it will be obvious to every person that the two words are widely distinct from each other; abdication being a pure act of discre tion for which a man is answerable to himself only; but desertion an act which involves more or less a breach of moral obligation.

TO DISMISS, DISCHARGE, DISCARD.

Dismiss, in Latin dimissus, participle of dimitto, compounded of di and mitto, signifies to send asunder or away; discharge, signifies to release from a charge; discard, in Spanish descartar, compounded of des and cartar, signifies to lay cards out or aside, to cast them off.

The idea of removing to a distance is included in all these terms; but with various collateral circumstances. Dismiss is the general term; discharge and discard are modes of dismissing: dismiss is applicable to persons of all stations, but is used more particularly for the higher orders: discharge on the other hand is confined to those in a subordinate station. A clerk, or an nned to those in a subordinate station. A cierk, or an officer, or a minister, is dismissed; 'In order to an ac commodation, they agreed upon this preliminary, that each of them should immediately dismiss his privy counsellor.'—Apprison. A menial servant or a soldier is discharged, 'Mr. Pope's errands were so frequent and frivolous that the footman in time avoided and neglected him, and the Earl of Oxford discharged some of his servants for their obstinate refusal of his messages."—Johnson.

Neither dismiss nor discharge define the motive of the action: they are used indifferently for that which is voluntary, or the contrary: discard, on the contrary, always marks a dismissal that is not agreeable to the party discarded. A person may request to be dismissed or discharged, but never to be discarded. The dismissal or discharge frees a person from the obligation or necessity of performing a certain duty;

Dismiss the people then, and give command

With strong repast to hearten every band .- POPE. The discarding throws him out of a desirable rank or station: 'I am so great a lover of whatever is French, that I lately discarded an humble admirer because he neither spoke that tongue nor drank claret.'—BUDGELL. with the same distinction: we are said to dismiss our fears, to discharge a duty, and to discard a sentiment from the mind:

Resume your courage, and dismiss your care.

DRYDEN.

If I am bound to pay money on a certain day, I dis-charge the obligation if I pay it before twelve o'clock at night.'—BLACKSTONE. 'Justice discards party friendship and kindred.'-Apprson.

TO LET, LEAVE, SUFFER.

Let, through the medium of the Gothick letan, and other changes in the French laisser, German lassen, &c. comes in all probability from the Latin laxe, to loosen, or set loose, free; leave (v. To leave); suffer, from the Latin suffero to bear with, signifies not to put

a stop to.

The removal of hindrance or constraint on the actions of others, is implied by all these terms; but let is a less formal action than leave, and this than suffer. let a person pass in the road by getting out of his way I leave a person to decide on a matter according to his own discretion, by declining to interfere: I suffer a person to go his own way, over whom I am expected to exercise a control. It is in general most prudent to let things take their own course; 'Where there is a certainty and an uncertainty, let the uncertainty go, and hold to that which is certain.'—SAUNDERSON. In the education of youth, the greatest art lies in leaving them to follow the natural bent of their minds and turn of disposition without at the same time suffering them to do any thing prejudicial to their character or future interests:

This crime I could not leave unpunished.

DENHAM.

If Pope had suffered his heart to be alienated from her, he could have found nothing that might fill her place. -Johnson.

TO LEAVE, QUIT, RELINQUISH.

Leave, in Saxon leafve, in old German laube, Latin linquo, Greek $\lambda \epsilon i \pi \omega$, signifies either to leave or be wanting, because one is wanting in the place which one leaves; quit, in French quitter, from the Latin quietus, rest, signifies to rest or remain, to give up the hold of; the sense of relinquish is given under the head of Abandon.

We leave that to which we may intend to return; we quit that to which we return no more; we may leave a place voluntarily or otherwise; but we relin-quish it unwillingly. We leave persons or things; we quit and relinquish things only. I leave one person in order to speak to another; I leave my house for a short time

Why leave we not the fatal Trojan shore And measure back the seas we cross'd before ? POPE.

I quit it not to return to it; 'At last he (Savage) quitted the house of his friend.'—JOHNSON.

They preserve the same distinction in the moral application. A prudent man leaves all questions about minor matters in religion and politics to men of busy, restless tempers; 'We have no better materials to compound the priesthood of, than the mass of mankind, which, corrupted as it is, those who receive orders, must have some vices to leave behind them.'— SWIFT. It is a source of great pleasure to a contemplative mind to revisit the scenes of early childhood, which have been long quitted for the busy scenes of active life;

The sacred wrestler, till a blessing's giv'n, Quits not his hold, but halting, conquers heav'n. WALLER.

A miser is loath to relinquish the gain which has added so greatly to his stores and his pleasures; 'Although Charles relinquished almost every power for the crown, he would neither give up his friends to punishment, nor desert what he esteemed his religious duty.'-HUME.

They are all applied to things in the moral sense, and TO LEAVE, TAKE LEAVE, BID FAREWELL. OR ADIEÚ.

Leave is here general as before (v. To leave); it expresses simply the idea of separating one's self from an object, whether for a time or otherwise; to take leave and bid furewell imply a separation for a perpetuity

To leave is an unqualified action, it is applied to objects of indifference, or otherwise, but supposes in general no exercise of one's feelings. We leave persons as convenience requires;

> Self alone, in nature rooted fast, Attends us first and leaves us last .-

We leave them on the road, in the field, in the house, or wherever circumstances direct; we leave them with or without speaking; to take leave is a parting ceremony between friends, on their parting for a considerable time; 'Now I am to take leave of my readers, I am under greater anxiety than I have known for the work of any day since I undertook this province.'— Work of any day since I undertook this province:—
STEPLE. To bid farevell or adieu is a still more solenn ceremony, when the parting is expected to be final. When applied to things, we leave such as we do not wish to meddle with; we take leave of those things which were agreeable to us, but which we find it prudent to give up; and we bid farevell to those for which we still retain a great attachment; 'Anticipate the awful moment of your bidding the world an eternal farewell.'—BLAIR. It is better to leave a question un decided, than to attempt to decide it by altercation or violence; it is greater virtue in a man to take leave of his vices, than to let them take leave of him; when a man engages in schemes of ambition, he must bid adieu to all the enjoyments of domestick life.

LEAVE, LIBERTY, PERMISSION, LICENSE.

Leave has here the sense of freedom granted, because what is left to itself is left free; liberty, in Latin libertas, from liber free, denotes the state of being free from external restraint; permission signifies the act of permitting, or the thing permitted; license, in Latin licentia, from licet to be lawful, signifies the state of being permitted by law, or the act of the law in permitting.

Leave and liberty are either given or taken: permission is taken only; license is granted, and that massion is taken only; means is grainted, and that in a special manner: leave is employed only on familiar occasions; 'I must have leave to be grateful to any one who serves me, let him be ever so obnoxious to any party.'—Pore. Liberty is given in more important matters; 'I am for the full liberty of diversion (for children), as much as you can be.'—Locke. The master gives leave to his servant to go out for his plea master gives leave to his servant to go out for his pea sure; a geatieman gives his friends the liberty of shooting on his grounds; leave is taken in indifferent matters, particularly as it respects leave of absence; liberty is taken by a greater, and in general an un authorized stretch of one's powers, and is, therefore, an infringement on the rights of another. What is done without the leave may be done without the knowledge, though not contrary to the will, of another; but liberties which are taken without offering an apology are always calculated to give offence.

Leave is granted by private individuals, but license is granted by publick authority: a parent gives leave to a child to take a walk; the government grants licenses for selling different commodities. The word license is however sometimes used figuratively;

Leaving the wits the spacious air, With license to build castles there.-Swift.

Leave and permission are said to be asked for, but not liberty: we beg leave to offer our opinions; we request permission, but not liberty, to speak; 'The repeated permissions you give me of dealing freely with you will, I hope, excuse what I have done.'-Pope.

LEAVINGS, REMAINS, RELICKS.

Leavings are the consequence of a voluntary ac Learnings are the consequence of a voluntary ac-they signify what is left: remains are what follow in the course of things; they are what remain; the former is therefore taken in the bad sense to signify what has been left as worthless; the latter is never taken in this bad sense. When many persons of good taste have the liberty of choosing, it is fair to expect culcated (than in our universities).'—Johnson. Loose that the Leavings will be worth little or nothing, after notions arise from the unrestrained state of the will, all have made their choice; from the influence of the unruly passions: Laz notions

Scales, fins, and bones, the leavings of the feast.

By the remains of beauty which are discoverable in the face of a female, we may be enabled to estimate what her personal charms had been;

So midnight tapers waste their last remains.

Somerville.

Remains signify literally what remains: relicks, from the Latin relinquo to leave, that which is left. The former is a term of general and familiar application; the latter is specifick. What remains after the use or consumption of any thing is termed the remains; what is left of any thing after a lapse of years is the relick or relicks. There are remains of buildings mostly after a conflagration; there are relicks of antiquity in most monasteries and old churches.

Remains are of value, or not, according to the circumstances of the cases; relicks always derive a value from the person to whom they were supposed originally to belong. The remains of a person, that is, what corporeally remains of a person, after the extinction of life, will be respected by his friend;

Upon these friendly shores, and flow'ry plains,
Which hide Anchises, and his blest remains.
DRYDEN.

A bit of a garment that belonged, or is supposed to have belonged, to some saint, will be a precious relick in the eyes of a supersitious Roman Catholick; 'All those arts, rarities, and inventions, which the ingenious pursue, and all admire, are but the relick of an intellect defaced with sin and time,'—Sourt. All nations have agreed to respect the remains of the dead; religion, under most forms, has given a sacredness to relicks in the eyes of its most zealous votaries; the veneration of genius, or the devotedness of friendship, has in like manner transferred itself, from the individual himself, to some object which has been his property or in his possession, and thus fabricated for itself relicks equally precious.

LOOSE, VAGUE, LAX, DISSOLUTE, LICENTIOUS.

Loose, in German los, &c., Latin laxus, Greek addoctiv, and Hebrew \$777 to make free; vague, in Latin vague, significs wandering; lax, in Latin laxus, has a similar origin with loose; dissolute, in Latin dissolutus, participle of dissolvo, signifies dissolved or set free; licentious, i. e. having the license or power to do comprehense for Lorent laberts.

as one pleases (v. Leave, tiberty).

Loose is the generick, the rest are specifick terms; they are all opposed to that which is bound or adheres closely: loose is employed either for moral or intellectual subjects; vague only for intellectual objects: lar sometimes for what is intellectual, but oftener for the moral; dissolute and licentious only in moral matters: whatever wants a proper connexion, or linking together of the parts, is loose; whatever is scattered and remotely separated is vague; a style is loose where the words and sentences are not made to coalesce, so as to form a regularly connected series; assertions are vague which have but a remote connexion with the subject referred to: by the same rule, loose hints thrown out at random may give rise to speculation and conjecture, but cannot serve as the ground of any conclusion; ignorant people are apt to credit every vague rumour, and to communicate it as a certainty.

Opinions are loose, either inasmuch as they want logical precision, or as they fail in moral strictness; 'Because conscience and the fear of swerving from that which is right, maketh them diligent observers of circumstances, the loose regard whereof is the nurse of vulgar folly.'—HOOKER. Suggestions and surmises are in their nature vague, as they spring from a very remote channel, or are produced by the wanderings of the imagination; 'That action which is vague and indeterminate will at last settle into habit, and habitual peculiarities are quickly ridiculous.'—Jonnson. Opinions are lax, inasmuch as they have a tendency to lessen the moral obligation, or to loosen moral tes; 'In this general depravity of manners and laxety of principles, pure religion is no where more strongly in-

culcated (than in our universities)."—Johnson. Loose notions arise from the unrestrained state of the will, from the influence of the unruly passions; laz notions from the errour of the judgement; loose principles affect the moral conduct of individuals; laz principles affect the speculative opinions of men, either as individuals or in society: one is loose in practice, and laz in speculation or in discipline: the loose man sins against his conscience; he sets himself free from that to which he knows that he ought to submit; the laz man errs, but he affects to defend his errour. A loose man injures himself, but a laz man injures society at large. Dissoluteness is the excess of looseness; licentiousness is the consequence of laxity, or the freedom from external constraint.

Looseness of character, if indulged, soon sinks into dissoluteness of morals; and laxity of discipline is quickly followed by licentiousness of manners.

A young man of loose character makes light of moral obligations in general; 'The most voluptuous and loose person breathing, were he but tied to follow his dice and his courtships every day, would find it the greatest tornent that could befall him.'—South. A man of dissolute character commits every excess, and totally disregards every restraint; 'As the life of Petronius Arbiter was altogether dissolute, the indifference which he showed at the close of it is to be looked upon as a piece of natural carelessness rather than fortitude.'—Addition. In proportion as a commander is laz in the punishment of offences, an army will become licentious; in proportion as the administration of law becomes laz, the age will become licentious; 'Moral philosophy is very agreeable to the paradoxical and licentious spirit of the age.'—Beattie.

SLACK, LOOSE.

Slack, in Saxon slace, low German slack, French lache, Latin laxus, and loose, in Saxon laes, both come from the Hebrew אור to make free or loose; they differ more in application than in sense: they are both opposed to that which is close bound; but slack is said only of that which is tied, or that with which any thing is tied; while loose is said of any substances, the parts of which do not adhere closely: a rope is slack in opposition to the tight rope, which is stretched to its full extent; and in general cords or strings are said to be slack which fail in the requisite degree of tightness; but they are said to be loose in an indefinite manner, without conveying any collateral idea: thus the string of an instrument is denominated slack rather than loose; on the other hand, loose is said of many bodies to which the word slack cannot be applied: a garment is loose, but not slack; the leg of a table is loose, but not slack. In the moral application that which admits of extension lengthways is denominated slack; and that which fails in consistency and close adherence is loose: trade in general is said to be slack, or the sale of a particular article to be stack; but an engagement is said to be loose, and principles loose.

Rebellion now began, for lack
Of zeal and plunder, to grow slack.—Hudders
Nor fear that he who sits so loose to life,
Should too much shun its labours and its strife.

Denham

TO RELAX, REMIT.

The general idea of diminution is that which allies these words to each other; but they differ very widely in their original meaning, and somewhat in their ordinary application; relax, from the word lax or losse, signifies to make loose, and in its moral use to lessen any thing in its degree of tightness or rigour; to remit, from re and mitto to send back, signifies to take off in part or entirely that which has been imposed; that is, to lessen in quantity. In regard to our attempts to act, we may speak of relaxing in our endeavours, and romitting our labours or exertions;

No more the smith his dusky brow shall clear, Relax his ponderous strength, and lean to hear.

Goldsmith

How often have I blessed the coming day, When toil remitting lent its turn to play. GOLDSMITE In regard to our dealings with others, we may speak of relaxing in discipline, relaxing in the severity or surficients of our conduct, of remitting a punishment or remitting a sentence. The discretionary power of showing mercy when placed in the hands of the soverign, serves to relax the rigour of the law; The statute of mortmain was at several times relaxed by the legislature?—Swift. When the punishment seems the legislature?—Swift. When the punishment seems to find the magnitude of the officine.

Death stops every one sooner or later in his career: to be disproportioned to the magnitude of the offence, it is but equitable to remit it. The magistrate can often, where the publick good demands not the execution of the law, remit the punishment of criminal offences by his own authority. LOCKE.

TO CEASE, LEAVE OFF, DISCONTINUE, DESIST.

Cease, in French cesser, Latin cesso, from cessi perfect of cedo to yield, signifies to give up or put an end to: to leave off is literally to separate one's self from

to: to leave off is literally to separate one's self from an action or course of conduct; discontinue, with the privative dis, expresses the opposite of continue: desist, from the Latin desisto, or de and sisto, signifies literally to take one's self off from a thing.

To cease is neuter; to leave off and discontinue are active: we cease from doing a thing; we leave off or discontinue a thing. Cease is used either for particular actions or general habits; leave off more usually and properly for particular actions; discontinue for general habits. A restless, snoiled child prover cease crying A restless, spoiled child never ceases crying until it has obtained what it wants; it is a mark of impatience not to cease lamenting when one is in pain; 'A successful author is equally in danger of the diminution of his fame, whether he continues or ceases to write.'—Johnson. A labourer leaves of his work at any given hour; 'As harsh and irregular sound is not harmony; so neither is banging a cushion, oratory therefore, in my humble opinion, a certain divine of the first order would do well to Leave this off."—Swift.

A delicate person discontinues his visits when they are found not to be agreeable; 'I would cheerfully have borne the whole expense of it, if my private establishment of native readers and writers, which I cannot with convenience discontinue at present, did not require more than half of the moathly expense, which the com-pletion of a Digest would in my opinion demand.'-SIR WM. JONES.

It should be our first endeavour to cease to do evil. It is never good to kave off working while there is any thing to do, and time to do it in. The discontinuing of a good practice without adequate grounds evinces great

instability of character.

To cease is said of that which flows out of the nature of things; to leave off, discontinue, and desist, are always the acts of conscious agents. To leave off and discontinue are voluntary acts, desist is involuntary; it is prudent to desist from using our endeavours when we find them ineffectual; it is natural for a person to leaveoff when he sees no farther occasion to continue his blour; 'The laid of Raarsa has sometimes disputed the chieftainry of the clan with Macleod of Skie; but being much inferiour in extent of possessions, has, I suppose, been forced to desist.'-Johnson.

CESSATION, STOP, REST, INTERMISSION.

Cessation, from the verb to cease, marks the condition of leaving off; stop, from to stop, marks that of being stopped or prevented from going on; rest, from to rest, narks the state of being quiet; and intermission, from intermit, marks that of ceasing occasionally.

To cease respects the course of things; does not go on has ceased; things cease of themselves stop respects some external action or influence; nothing stops but what is supposed to be stopped or hindered by another; rest is a species of cessation that regards labour or exertion; whatever does not move or exert itself is at rest: intermission is a species of cessation. only for a time or at certain intervals.

That which ceases or stops is supposed to be at an end; rest or intermission supposes a renewal. A cessation of hostilities is at all times desirable; to put a stop to evil practices is sometimes the most difficult and dangerous of all undertakings: rest after fatigue is indispensable, for labour without intermission exhausts the frame. The rain ceases, a person or a ball stops running, the labourer rests from his toil, a fever is inter-

Death stops every one sooner or later in his career; 'In all those motions and operations which are incesand those motions and operations which are moss-santly going on throughout nature, there is no stop nor interruption.'—BLAIR. Whoever is vexed with the cares of getting riches will find no rest for his mind or body; 'The refreshing rest and peaceful night are the potty of him only who lies down weary with honest labour.'—Johnson. He will labour without intermis aim oftentimes only to heap troubles on himself; 'Whether the time of intermission is spent in company or in solitude, in necessary business or involuntary levities, the understanding is equally abstracted from the object of inquiry."—Johnson.

INTERVAL, RESPITE.

Interval, in Latin intervallum, signifies literally the space between the stakes which formed a Roman intrenchment; and, by an extended application, it signifies any space; respite, probably contracted from respirit, signifies a breathing again.

Every respite requires an interval; but there are many intervals where there is no respite. The term interval respects time only; respite includes the idea of action within that time which may be more or less agreeable; intervals of ease are a respite to one who is oppressed with labour; 'Any uncommon exertion of strength, or perseverance in labour, is succeeded by a long internal of languor.'—Johnson. The internal which is sometimes granted to a criminal before his execution is in the properest sense a respite; 'Give me leave to allow myself no respite from labour.'-Spec-TATOR.

REPRIEVE, RESPITE.

Reprieve comes in all probability from the French repris, participle of reprendre, and the Latin repre-hends, signifying to take back or take off that which has been laid on; respite signifies the same as in the preceding article.

The idea of a release from any pressure or burden is common to these terms; but the reprieve is that which is granted; the respite sometimes comes to us in the course of things: we gain a reprieve from any punishment or trouble which threatens us; we gain a respite from any labour or weight that presses upon us. A criminal gains a reprieve when the punishment of death is commuted for that of transportation; a debtor may be said to obtain a may be said to obtain a may be said to obtain a reprieve when, with a prison before his eyes, he gets such indulgence from his creditors as sets him free; there is frequently no respite for persons in a subordinate station, when they fall into the hands of a hard taskmaster; Sisyphus is feigned by the poets to have been condemned to the toil of perpetually rolling a stone up a hill as fast as it rolled back, from which toil he had no respite;

All that I ask is but a short reprieve. Till I forget to love and learn to grieve, Some pause and respite only I require, Till with my tears I shall have quench'd my fire. DRYDEN.

INCESSANTLY, UNCEASINGLY, UNINTER-RUPTEDLY, WITHOUT INTERMISSION.

The want of continuity, not of duration, is denoted by these terms; incessantly is the most general and indefinite of all; it signifies without ceasing, but may be applied to things which admit of certain intervals: unceasingly is definite, and signifies never ceasing, it cannot therefore be applied to what has any cessation. cannot therefore be applied to what has any cessation. In familiar discourse, incessantly is a hyperbolick mode of speech, by which one means to denote the absence of those ordinary intervals which are to be expected; as when one says a person is incessantly talking; by which is understood, that he does not allow himself the ordinary intervals of rest from talking; Surfeat, misdiet, and unthrifty waste, Vaine feastes, and ydie superfluite, All those this sence's fort assayle incessantly.

Spanse

Unceasingly, on the other hand, is more literally employed for a positive want of cessation; a noise is said to be unceasing which literally never ceases; or complaints are unceasing which are made without any pauses or intervals;

Impell'd with steps unccasing, to pursue
Some fleeting good that mocks me with the view.
Goldsmith.

Incessantly and unceasingly are said of things which act of themselves; uninterruptedly is said of that which depends upon other things: it rains incessantly marks a continued operation of nature, independent of every thing; but to be uninterruptedly happy marks one's freedom from every foreign influence which is unfriendly to one's happiness;

She draws a close incumbent cloud of death, Uninterrupted by the living winds.—Thomson.

Incessantly and the other two words are employed either for persons or things; without intermission is however mostly employed for persons: things act and react incessantly upon one another; a man of a persevering temper goes on labouring without intermission, until he has effected his purpose; 'For any one to be always in a laborious, hazardous posture of defence, without intermission, must needs be intolerable.—South.

ALWAYS, AT ALL TIMES, EVER.

Always, compounded of all and ways, is the same as, under all circumstances, through all the ways of life, that is, uninterruptedly; at all times, means, without distinction of time; ever implies, for a perpe-

tuity, without end.

A man must be always virtuous, that is, whether in adversity or prosperity; 'Human life never stands still for any long time. It is by no means a fixed and steady object, like the mountain or the rock, which you always find in the same situation.'—BLAIR. A man must be at all times virtuous, that is, in his going in and coming out, his rising up and his lying down, by day and by night; 'Among all the expressions of good nature, I shall simple out that which goes under the general name of charity, as it consists in relieving the indigent; that being a trial of this kind which offers itself to us almost at all times, and in every place.'—Addison. A virtuous man will be core happy, that is, in this life, and the life to come; 'Have you forgotten all the blessings you have continued to enjoy ever since the day that you came forth a helpless infant into the world.'—BLAIR.

TO STAND, STOP, REST, STAGNATE.

To stand, in German stehen, &c. Latin sto, Greek

t_εημι to stand, Hebrew ΓΙΟ to settle; stop, in Saxon stoppan, &c. conveys the ideas of pressing, thickening, like the Latin stipa, and the Greek εξίβειν; whence it nas been made in English to express immoveability; rest is contracted from the Latin resisto or re and sisto to place or stand back; stagnate, in Latin stagnatus, participle of stagna, comes from stagnum a pool, and that either from sto to stand, because waters stand perpetually in a pool, or from the Greek εξεγιθς an enclosure, because a pool is an enclosure for waters.

The absence of motion is expressed by all these terms; stand is the most general of all; to stand is simply not to move; to stop is to cease to move: we stand either for want of inclination or power to move; but we stop from a disinclination to goon: to rest is to stop from an express dislike to motion; we may stop for purposes of convenience, or because we have no farther to go, but we rest from fatigue; to stagnate is only a species of standing as respects liquids; water may both stand and stagnate; but the former implies a temporary, the latter a permanent state: water stands in a puddle, but it stagnates in a pond or in any confined space.

All these terms admit of an extended application; business stands still, or there is a stand in business;

Whither can we run, Where make a stand?—DRYDEN. A mercantile house stops, or stops payment, or a person stops in his career; 'I am afraid should I put a stop now to this design, now that it is so near being compleated, I shall find it difficult to resume it.'—MELMOTH (Pliny). An affair rests undecided, or rests in the hands of a person;

Who rests of immortality assur'd Is safe, whatever ills are here endur'd.—Jenyns.

Trade stagnates; 'This inundation of strangers, which used to be confined to the summer, will stagnate all the winter.'—Gibbox. Stand, stop, and rest, are likewise employed transitively, but with a wide distinction in the sense; to stand in this case is to set one's self up to resist; as to stand in the test: to stop has the sense of hinder; as to stop a person who is going on, that is, to make him stop: to rest is to make a thing rest or lean; a person rests his argument upon the supposed innocence of another

TO CHECK, STOP.

Check, from the German Schach chess, derives its figurative signification of restraining the movements, from checkmale, a movement in that game whereby one stops one adversary from carrying his game any farther; to stop (v. Cessation) is to cause not to move at all: the growth of a plant is checked when it does not grow so fast as usual; its growth is stopped when it ceases altogether to grow: the water of a river is stopped by a dam; the rapidity of its course is checked by the intervention of rocks and sands.

when applied to persons, to check is always contrary to the will of the sufferer; but to stop is often a matter of indifference, if not directly serviceable; one is checked in his currer of success by some untoward even; Shall neither the admonitions which you receive from the visible inconstancy of the world, nor the declarations of the Divine displeasure, be sufficient to check your thoughtless career?—Blark. One is stopped on a journey by the meeting of a friend;

Embosom'd in the deep where Holland lies, Methinks her patient sons before me stand, Where the broad ocean leans against the land, And sedulous to stop the coming tide, Lift the tall rampire's artificial pride.—Goldsmith

In a moral application these terms bear a similar analogy; check has the import of diminishing; stop that of destroying or causing te cease; many evils may be easily checked, to which it would not be easy

to put an effectual stop.

TO HINDER, STOP.

Hinder, from hind or behind, signifies to hinder by going behind or pulling one behind; to stop is to make to stand.

Hindering refers solely to the prosecution of an object: stop refers simply to the cessation of sotion; we may be hindered, therefore, by being stopped; but we may also be kindered without being expressly stopped, and we may be stopped without being kindered. If the stoppage do not interfere with any other object in view, it is a stoppage, but not a kindrance; as when we are stopped by a friend while walking for pleasure;

A signal omen stopp'd the passing host, Their martial fury in their wonder lost.—Pope,

But if stopped by an idler in the midst of urgent business, so as not to be able to proceed according to our business, this is both a stoppage and a hindrance. On the other hand, if we are interrupted in the regular course of our proceeding, but not compelled to stand still or give up our business for any time, this may be a hindrance, but not a stoppage: in this manner, the conversation of others, in the midst of our business, may considerably retard its progress, and so far hinder, but not expressly put a stop to the whole concern; 'Is it not the height of wisdom and goodness too, to hinder the consummation of those soul-wasting sins, by obliging us to withstand them in their first infancy?—

TO HINDER, PREVENT, IMPEDE, OBSTRUCT

Hinder signifies the same as in the preceding article; prevent, from præ before and venio to come, signifies to

kinder by coming before, or to cross another by the anticipation of his purpose; impede, in Latin from in and pedes the feet, signifies to come between his feet and entangle him in his progress; 'Impedire profectionem aut certe tardare.'—Cicrao. Obstruct, from ob and strue, signifies to set up something in one's way,

to block up the passage.

Hinder is the most general of these terms, as it conveys little more than the idea which is common to them all, namely, that of keeping one from his purpose. To hinder is commonly said of that which is rendered impossible for the time being, or merely derendered impossible for the time being, or merely de-layed; prevent is said of that which is renoered alto-gether impracticable. A person is hindered by the weather and his various engagements from reaching a place at the time he intended; he is prevented but not hindered by ill health from going thither at all. If a friend calls, he hinders me from finishing the letter which I was writing; if I wish to prevent my son from reading any book, I keep it out of his way; 'It is much easier to keep ourselves void of resentment, than to restrain it from excess when it has gained admission. To use the illustration of an excellent author, we can prevent the beginnings of some things, whose progress afterward we cannot hinder.'-Holland.

'To hinder is an act of the moment, it supposes no design; prevent is a premeditated act, deliberated upon, and adopted for general purposes; the former is applied only to the movements of any particular individual, the latter to events and circumstances. I kinder a person who is running, if I lay hold of his arm and make him walk; it is the object of every good government to prevent offences rather than to punish offend ers. In ordinary discourse these words fall very much into one another, when the circumstances of the case do not sufficiently define, whether the action in hand be altogether suspended, or only suspended for a time; but the above explanation must make it very clear, that hinder, in its proper sense and application, is but a temporary act, and prevent is a decisive and

permanent act.

To impede and obstruct is a species of hindering which is said rather of things than of persons; hinder is said of both; but hixder is commonly employed in is said of both; but recer is continuiny empinyed in regard to trifling matters, or such as retard a person's proceedings in the smallest degree; impede and ob-struct are acts of greater importance, or produce a still greater degree of delay. A person is hundered in his work, although neither impeded nor obstructed; but the quantity of artillery and baggage which is attached to an army will greatly impede it in its march; and the trees which are thrown across the roads will

obstruct its march.

Whatever causes a person to do a thing slower than he wishes is a hindrance; whatever binds him so that he cannot move freely forward is an impediment; whatever acts upon the path or passage so as to pre-vent him from moving forward is an obstruction. Every impediment and obstruction is a hindrance, though not vice versa. A person is hindered in the thing he is about if he be called off to do something ill health impedes a person's progress in learning; any foreign body lodging in the vessels of the human body ubstructs the course of the fluids, and con-sequently brings on serious diseases. Hindrances always suppose the agency of a person, either of the one who hinders, or the one who is hindered; but im-pediments and obstructions may be employed with regard to the operations of nature on manimate objects. Cold impedes the growth of plants; a dam obstructs the course of water; 'Truth was provoked to see herself thus brilled and impeded by an enemy whom she looked on with contempt.'—Johnson.

This path you say is hid in endless night, "T is self-conceit alone obstructs your sight.

DIFFICULTY, OBSTACLE, IMPEDIMENT.

Difficulty, in Latin difficultas and difficilis, compounded of the privative dis and facilities, comfacio to do, signifies the thing not easy to be done; obstacle, in Latin obstaculum, from obsto to stand in the way, signifies the thing that stands in the way be-tween a person and the object he has in view; impediment, in Latin impedimentum, from impedio compound-

ed of in and pedes, signifies something that entangles

All these terms include in their signification that which interferes either with the actions or views of men: the difficulty* lies most in the nature and circumstances of the thing itself; the obstacle and impedi-ment consist of that which is external or foreign: a difficulty interferes with the completion of any work; an obstacle interferes with the attainment of any end; an impediment interrupts the progress, and prevents the execution of one's wishes: a difficulty embarrasses, it suspends the powers of acting or deciding; an obstacle opposes itself, it is properly met in the way, and intervenes between us and our object; an impediment shackles and puts a stop to our proceedings: we speak of encountering a difficulty, surmounting an obstacle, and removing an impediment; the disposition of the mind often occasions more difficulties in negociations than the subjects themselves; 'Truth has less of' trouble and difficulty, of entanglement and perplexity, of danger and hazard in it. —TILLOTSON. The element of Demosthenes was the greatest obstacle which Philip of Macedon experienced in his political 'One obstacle must have stood not a little in career: the way of that preferment after which Young seems the way or that present after which I come seems to have panied. Though he took orders, he never entirely shook off politicks, "Crorr. Ignorance of the language is the greatest impediment which a toreigner experiences in the pursuit of any object out of his own country; "The necessity of complying with times, and of sparing persons, is the great impediment of biography.'—Johnson.

TO PREVENT, ANTICIPATE.

To prevent (v. To hinder) is literally to come beforehand, and anticipate, from ante and capio to take beforehand: the former is employed for actual occurrences; the latter as much for calculations as for actions: prevent is the act of one being towards anactions: prevent is the act of one being towards another; anticipate is the act of a being either towards himself or another. God is said to prevent us, if he interposes with his grace to divert our purposes towards that which is right; 'Precent us, O Lord, in all our doings with thy most gracious favour.'—COMMON PRAYER. We anticipate the happiness which we are PRAYER. We anticipate the happiness which we may to enjoy in future; and so in like manner we may anticipate our pains;

Why should we Anticipate our sorrows? 'T is like those Who die for fear of death .- DENHAM.

We also anticipate what a person is going to say ny saving the same thing before him. The term prevent, when taken in this its strict and literal sense, is employed only as the act of the Divine Being

But I do think it most cowardly and vile, For fear of what might fall, so to prevent The time of life .- SHAKSPEARE.

Anticipate, on the contrary, is taken only as the act of human beings towards each other or themselves; 'He that has anticipated the conversation of a wit will wonder to what prejudice he owes his reputation. —Johnson. These words may, however, be farther allied to each other, when under the term prevention in its vulgar acceptation is included the idea of hindering another in his proceedings; in which case to anticipate is a species of prevention; that is, to prevent another from doing a thing by doing it one's self; 'I am far from pretending to instruct the profession, or anticipating their directions to such as are under their government. —Arbuthnor.

TO PREVENT, OBVIATE, PRECLUDE.

To prevent (v. To hinder) is here as in the former case the generick term, the others are specifick. What one prevents does not happen at all: what one obviates ceases to happen in future; we prevent those evils which we know will come to pass if not prevented: we obviate those evils which we have already felt; that is, we prevent their repetition. Crimes and calamities are prevented; difficulties, objections, in conveniences, and troubles, are obviated. When Crimes and

* Vide Abbe Girard: " Difficulté, obstacle, em pêchement.'

crowds collect in vast numbers in any small spot, it is not easy to prevent mischief: wise precautions may be adopted to obviate the inconvenience which neces-

sarily attends a great crowd.

Prevent and obviate are the acts of either conscious or unconscious agents: preclude is the act of uncon-ficious agents only: one prevents or obviates a thing by the use of means, or else the things themselves prevent and obviate, as when we say, that a person prevents another from coming, or illness prevents him from coming; a person obviates a difficulty by a contrivance, a certain arrangement or change obviates every difficulty. We intentionally prevent a person from doing that which we disapprove of; his circumfrom doing that which we disapprove of; his circumstances preclude him from enjoying certain privileges. Prevent respects that which is either good or bad; obvide respects that which is always bad; preclude respects that which is good or desirable: ill-health prevents a person from pursuing his business; eibployment prevents a young person from falling into bad practices;

Ev'ry disease of age we may prevent, Like those of youth, by being diligent.—Denham.

Admonition often obviates the necessity of punishments; 'The imputation of folly, if it is true, must be suffered without hope; but that of immorality may be obviated by removing the cause.'—HAWKESWORTH. Want of learning or of a regular education often pre cludes a man from many of the political advantages which he might otherwise enjoy; 'Has not man an inheritance to which all may return, who are not so foolish as to continue the pursuit after pleasure till every hope is precluded?—Hawkesworth.

TO RETARD, HINDER.

To retard, from the Latin tardus slow, signifying to make slow, is applied to the movements of any object forward: as in the Latin 'Impetum inimici tardare.'—Cicero. To hinder (v. To hinder) is applied to the person moving or acting: we returd or make slow the progress of any scheme towards com-pletion; 'Nothing has tended more to retard the advancement of science than the disposition in vulgar minds to vilify what they cannot comprehend."—Johnson. We hinder or keep back the person who is completing the scheme; 'The very nearness of an object sometimes hinders the sight of it."—South. We retard a thing therefore often by hindering the person; but we frequently hinder a person without expressly retarding, and on the contrary the thing is retarded without the person being hindered. The publication of a work is sometimes retarded by the hindrances which an author meets with in bringing it to a conclusion; but a work may be retarded minds to vilify what they cannot comprehend.'-Johnit to a conclusion; but a work may be retarded through the idleness of printers and a variety of other causes which are independent of any hindrance. So causes which are independent of any analytics. So in like manner a person may be hindered in going to his place of destination; but we do not say that he is retarded, because it is only the execution of an object, and not the simple movements of the person which are retarded.

TO DELAY, DEFER, POSTPONE, PROCRASTI-NATE, PROLONG, PROTRACT, RETARD.

Delay, compounded of de and lay, signifies to lay or keep back; defer, compounded of de and fer, in Latin fero, signifies to put off; postpone, compounded of post and pone, from the Latin pone to place, signifies to place behind or after; procrastinate, from pro and cras to-morrow, signifies to put off till to-morrow; prolonging, answering to the prolatio of the Latins, signifies the lengthening the period of time for beginning or ending a thing; protract, from trahe to draw, signifies to draw out the time; and retard to make a thing hang in hand.

To delay is simply not to commence action; to defer and postpone are to fix its commencement at a more distant period: we may delay a thing for days, hours, and minutes; we defer or postpone it for months or weeks. Delays mostly arise from faults in the person delaying; they are seldom reasonable or advantageous; differing and postponing are discretionary acts, which are justified by the circumstances: indolent people are

most prone to delay;

From thee both old and young with profit learn, The bounds of good and evil to discern; Unhappy he who does this work adjourn, And to to-morrow would the search delay; His lazy morrow will be like to-day -DRYDEN.

When a plan is not maturely digested, it is prudent to defer its execution until every thing is in an entire state of preparation. Procrastination is a culpable delay arising solely from the fault of the procrastinator; 'Cum plerisque in rebis gerendis tarditas et procrastinatio odiosa est, tum hoc bellum indiget celeritatis."—CICERO. It is the part of a dilatory man to procrastinate that which it is both his interest and duty to perform;

Procrastination is the thief of time.-Young.

To defer is used without regard to any particular time or object; to postpone has always relation to something else: it is properly to defer until the completion of some period or event: a person may defer his visit from month to month; he postpones his visit until the commencement of a new year: a tardy debtor delays the settlement of his accounts; a merchant defers the shipment of any goods in consequence of the defers the shipment of any goods in consequence of the receipt of fresh intelligence; 'Never defer that till to-morrow which you can do to-day.'—BUDGELL A merchant postpones the shipment until after the arrival of the expected fleet; 'When I postponed to another summer my journey to England, could I apprehend that I never should see her again!'—GIBBON.

We delay the execution of a thing; we prolong of protract the continuation of a thing; we retard the letuination of a thing: we may delay asswering a

termination of a thing: we may delay answering a letter, protong a contest, protract a lawsuit, and retard

a publication:

Perhaps great Hector then had found his fate, But Jove and destiny prolong'd his date. - POPE. To this Euryalus: "You plead in vain, And but protract the cause you cannot gain."

I see the layers then Of mingled moulds of more retentive earths, That while the stealing moisture they transmit, Retard its motion and forbid its waste THOMSON.

TO PROROGUE, ADJOURN.

Prorogue, from the Latin prorogo, signifies to put off, and is used in the general sense of deferring for an indefinite period; 'A prorogation is the continuance of Parliament from one session to another.'— BLACKSTONE.

Adjourn, from journée the day, signifies only to put off for a day or some short period; 'An adjourn-ment is no more than a continuance of the session from one day to another. BLACKSTONE. Prorogueing is applied to national assemblies only; adjourning is applicable to any meeting.

SLOW, DILATORY, TARDY, TEDIOUS.

Slow is doubtless connected with sluther and slide, which kind of motion when walking is the slowest and the laziest; dilatory, from the Laiin defero to defer, signifies prone to defer; tardy is but a variation of the Latin tardus slow; tadious, from the Latin tadis to be weary, signifies causing weariness.

Slow is a general and unqualified term applicable to the motion of any object or to the motions and ac-tions of persons in particular, and to their disposi-tions also; dilatory relates to the temper only of persons: we are slow in what we are about;

The powers above are slow In punishing, and should not we resemble them ?

We are dilatory in setting about a thing; 'A dilatory temper is unfit for a place of trust.'—Addison. Slow is applied to corporeal or mental actions; a person may be slow in walking, or slow in conceiving: Lardy applies more to what is mental than to what is corporeal; we are tardy in our proceedings or our progress; we are tardy in making up accounts or in concluding a treaty;

Death he has oft accus'd Of tardy execution, since denounc'd The day of his offence.—Milton.

We may be slow with propriety or not, to our own inconvenience or that of others; when we are tedious we are always so improperly: "To be slow and sure" is a vulgar proverb, but a great truth; by this we do ourselves good, and inconvenience no one; but he who is tedious is slow to the annoyance of others; a profix writer must always be tedious, for he keeps the reader long in suspense before he comes to the conclusion of a period;

Her sympathizing lover takes his stand High on th' opponent bank, and ceaseless sings The 4edious time away.—Thomson.

TO LINGER, TARRY, LOITER, LAG, SAUNTER.

Linger, from longer, signifies to make the time longer in doing a thing; tarry, from tardus slow, is to make the thing slow; loiter may probably come from lentus slow; lag, from lie, signifies to lie back; saunter is derived from sancta terra the Holy Land; because, in the time of the crusades, many idle persons were going backwards and forwards: hence idle, planless going, comes to be so denominated.

Suspension of action or slow movement enters into the meaning of all these terms: to linger is to stop altogether, or to move but slowly forward, and to tarry is properly to suspend one's movement: the former proceeds from reluctance to leave the spot on which we stand; the latter from motives of discretion: he will naturally linger who is going to leave the place of his nativity for an indefinite period; in which sense it is figuratively applied to life and other objects;

'T is long since I, for my celestial wife,
Loath'd by the Gods, have dragg'd a ling'ring life.
DRYDEN.

Those who have much business to transact will be led to tarry long in a place; 'Herod having tarried only seven days at Rome for the dispatch of his business, returned to his ships at Brundusium.'—PRIDEAUX. To loiter is to move slowly and reluctantly; but, from a bad cause, a child loiters who is unwilling to go to school; 'Rapid wits loiter, or faint, and suffer themselves to be surpassed by the even and regular perseverance of slower understandings.'—Johnson. To lag is to move slower than others; to stop while they are going on; this is seldom done for a good purpose: those who lag have generally some sinister and private end to answer;

I shall not lag behind, nor err
The way, thou leading.—Milton.

To saunter is altogether the act of an idler; those who have no object in moving either backward or forward, will saunter if they move at all; 'She walks all the morning sauntering about the shop, with her arms through her pocket holes.'—Joinson.

TO HASTEN, ACCELERATE, SPEED, EXPEDITE, DESPATCH.

Hasten, in French hatir, and in the Northern languages hasten, &c., is most probably connected with heiss hot, expressing what is vivid and active; accelerate, from celer quick, signifies literally to quicken for a specifick purpose; speed, from the Greek ansbåde, signifies to carry on diligently; expedite, in Latin expedio, from ex and pes, signifies literally to remove obstacles; despatch, in French depecher, from pes a foot, signifies also putting off, or clearing away impediments.

Quickness in movement and action is the common idea in all these terms, which vary in the nature of the movement and the action. To hasten expresses little more than the general idea of quickness in moving towards a point; thus, he hastens who runs to get to the end of his journey: accelerate expresses moreover the idea of bringing something to a point; thus, every mechanical business is accelerated by the

order and distribution of its several parts; 'Let the aged consider well, that by every intemperate indugence they accelerate decay.'—BLAIR. Jacelerate may be employed, like the word hasten, for corporeal and familiar actions: the tailor accelerates any particular work that he has in hand by putting on additional hands, or a compositor accelerates the printing of a work by doing his part with correctness. The word speed includes not only quick but forward movement. He who goes with speed goes effectually forward, and comes to his journey's end the soonest. This idea is excluded from the term haste, which may often be a planless unsuitable quickness. Hence the proverb, "The more haste, the worst speed."

Where with like haste, though several ways they run, Some to undo, and some to be undone.—Denham.

Expedite and despatch are terms of higher import, in application to the most serious concerns in life; but to expedite expresses a process, a bringing forward towards an end: despatch implies a putting an end to, a making a clearance. We do every thing in our power to expedite a business: we despatch a great deal of business within a given time. Expedition is requisite for one who executes; 'The coachman was ordered to drive on, and they hurried with the utmost expedition to Hyde Park Corner.'—Johnson. Despatch is most important for one who determines and directs; 'And as, in races, it is not the large stride, or high inft, that makes the speed; so, in business, the keeping close to the matter, and not taking of it too much at once, procureth despatch.'—BACON. An inferiour officer must proceed with expedition to fulfil the orders, or execute the putposes of his commander; a general or minister of state despatches the concerns of planning, directing, and instructing. Hence it is we speak only of expediting a thing; but we may speak of despatching a person, as well as a thing.

Every man hastens to remove his property in case of fire. Those who are anxious to bring any thing to an end will do every thing in their power to accelerate its progress. Those who are sent on any pressing errand will do great service by using speed. The success of a military progress depends often on the expedition with which it is conducted. In the counting-house and the cabinet, despatch is equally important; as we cannot do more than one thing at a time, it is of importance to get that quickly concluded to make way for another.

TO HASTEN, HURRY.

Hasten signifies the same as in the preceding article hurry, in old French harier, probably comes from the

Hebrew הוא to be inflamed, or be in a hurry. To hasten and hurry both imply to move forward with quickness in any matter; but the former may proceed with some design and good order, but the latter always supposes perturbation and irregularity. We hasten in the communication of good news, when we make efforts to convey it in the shortest time possible; 'Homer, to preserve the unity of action, hastens into the midst of things, as Horace has observed."—Adoptson. We hurry to get to an end, when we impatiently and inconsiderately press forward without making choice of our means;

Now 't is nought But restless hurry through the busy air, Beat by unnumber'd wings.—Thomson.

To hasten is opposed to delay or a dilatory mode of proceeding; it is frequently indispensable to hasten in the affairs of human life: to harry is opposed to deliberate and cautious proceeding; it must always be prejudicial and unwise to hurry: men may hasten; children hurry.

As epithets, hasty and hurried are both employed in the bad sense; but hasty implies merely an overquickness of motion which outstrips consideration; hurried implies a disorderly motion which springs from a distempered state of mind. Irritable people use hasty expressions; they speak before they think: deranged people walk with hurried steps; they follow the blind impulse of undirected feeling.

QUICKNESS, SWIFTNESS, FLEETNESS, CELERITY, RAPIDITY, VELOCITY.

These terms are all applied to the motion of bodies, of which quick, ness, from quick, denotes the general and simple idea that characterizes all the rest. Quickness is near akin to life, and is directly opposed to slowness; 'Impatience of labour ceases those who are most distinguished for quickness of apprehension.'—Johnson. Swiftness, in all probability from the German schweifen to roam; and flectness, from flee or lly; express higher degrees of quickness. Celerity, probably from celer a horse; velocity, from volo to fly; and rapidity, from rapio, to seize or hurry along, differ more in application than in degree. Quick and supfrare applicable to any objects; men are quick in moving, swift in running: dogs hear quickly, and run swiftly; a mill goes quickly or swiftly round, according to the force of the wind;

Above the bounding billows swift they flew, Till now the Grecian camp appear'd in view.

POPE.

Fleetness is the peculiar characteristick of winds or horses; a horse is fleet in the race, and is sometimes described to be as fleet as the winds;

For fear, though fleeter than the wind, Believes 't is always left behind.—BUTLER.

That which we wish to characterize as particularly quick in our ordinary operations, we say is done with celerity; in this manner our thoughts are said to pass with celerity from one object to another; 'By moving the eye we gather up with great celerity the several parts of an object, so as to form one piece.'—BURKE. Those things are said to move with rapidity which seem to hurry every thing away with them; a river or stream moves with rapidity; time goes on with a rapid flight;

Mean time the radiant sun, to mortal sight

Descending swift, roll'd down the rapid light.

Velocity signifies the swiftness of flight, which is a motion that exceeds all others in swiftness; hence, we speak of the velocity of a ball shot from a cannon, or of a celestial body moving in its orbit; sometimes these words rapidity and velocity, are applied in the improper sense by way of emphasis to the very swift movements of other bodies; in this manner the wheel of a carriage is said to move rapidly; and the flight of an animal or the progress of a vessel before the wind, is compared to the flight of a bird in point of velocity; 'Lightning is productive of grandeur which it chiefly owes to the velocity of its motion.'—Burke.

DILIGENT, EXPEDITIOUS, PROMPT.

All these terms mark the quality of quickness in a commendable degree; diligent (from diligo to love (n. Active, diligent) marks the interest one takes in doing something; he is *diligent who loses no time, who keeps close to the work; expeditions, from the Latin expedit to despatch, marks the desire one has to complete the thing begun. He who is expeditions applies himself to no other thing that offers; he finishes every thing in its turn; prompt, from the Latin promoto draw out or make ready, marks one's desire to get ready; he is prompt who works with spirit so as to make things ready.

Idleness, dilatoriness, and slowness, are the three defects opposed to these three qualities. The diligent man has no reluctance in commencing or continuing the labour, the expeditious man never leaves it till it is finished; the prompt man brings it quickly to an end. It is necessary to be diligent in the concerns which belong to us; 'We must be diligent in our particular calling and charge, in that province and station which God has appointed us, whatever it be.'—Tillorson. We must be expeditions in any business that requires to be terminated; 'The regent assembled an army with his usual expedition, and marched to Glasgow.'—Romerson. We must be prompt in the execution of orders that are given to us;

* Vide Abbe Girard: "Diligent, expeditif, prompt."

To him she hasted, in her face excuse
Came prologue, and apology too prompt,
Which, with biand words at will, she thus address'd
Murron

DIRECTLY, IMMEDIATELY, INSTANTLY, INSTANTANEOUSLY.

Directly signifies in a direct or straight manner; immediately without any medium or intervention; instantly and instantaneously, in the space of an instant Directly is most applicable to the actions of men; immediately and instantly to either actions or events.

Directly is most applicable to the actions of men; immediately and instantly to either actions or events. Directly refers to the interruptions which may intentionally delay the commencement of any work: immediately in general refers to the space of time that intervenes. A diligent person goes directly to his work; he suffers nothing to draw him aside: good news is immediately spread abroad upon its arrival; nothing intervenes to retard it. Immediately and instantly, or instantaneously, both mark a quick succession of events, but the latter in a much stronger degree than the former. Immediately is negative; it expresses simply that nothing intervenes; instantly is positive, signifying the very existing moment in which the thing happens. A person who is of a willing disposition goes or runs immediately to the assistance of another; but the ardour of affection impels him to fly instantly to his relief, as he sees the danger. A surgeon does not proceed directly to dress a wound; he first examines it in order to ascertain its nature; 'Besides those things which directly suggest the idea of danger, and those which produce a similar effect from a mechanical cause. I know of nothing sublime which is not some modification of power."—BUREs. Men of lively minds immediately see the source of their ownerrours; 'Admiration is a short-lived passion, that immediately decays upon growing familiar with the object."—Addiration beginned to the slightest breach of decorum;

Sleep instantly fell upon me.-MILTON.

A course of proceeding is direct, the consequences are immediate, and the effects instantaneous; 'A painter must have an action, not successive, but instantaneous; for the time of a picture is a single moment.'—JOHNSON.

SOON, EARLY, BETIMES.

All these words are expressive of time; but soon respects some future period in general; early, or ere, before, and betimes, or by the time, before a given time, respect some particular period at no great distance. A person may come soon or early; in the former case he may not be long in coming from the time that the words are spoken; in the latter case he comes before the time appointed. He who rises soon does nothing extraordinary; but he who rises early or betimes exceeds the usual hour considerably. Soon is said mostly of particular acts, and is always dated from the time of the person speaking, if not otherwise expressed; come soon signifies after the present moment;

But soon, too soon! the lover turns his eyes; Again she falls-again she dies-she dies.-Pope

Early and betimes, if not otherwise expressed, have always respect to some specifick time appointed; come early, will signify a visit, a meeting, and the like; a thing betimes will signify before the thing to be done is wanted; in this manner both are employed for the actions of youth. An early attention to religious duties will render them habitual and pleasing; 'Pope, not being sent early to school, was taught to read by an aunt.'—

JOHNSON. We must begin betimes to bring the stubborn will into subjection; 'Happy is the man who betimes acquires a relish for holy solitude.'—HORKE.

CURSORY, HASTY, SLIGHT, DESULTORY.

Cursory, from the Latin curre, signifies run over or done in running; hasty applies to that done in haste; slight is a variation of light; desultory, from desilio to leap, signifies leaped over.

leap, signines eaped over.

Cursory includes both hasty and slight; it includes hasty inasmuch as it expresses a quick motion; it includes slight inasmuch as it conveys the idea of a partial action. A view may be either cursory or hasty, as the former is taken by design, the latter from care

lessness. A view may be either cursory or slight; but | nessness. A view may be either cursory or sight; but the former is not so imperiect as the latter. An author will take a cursory view of those points which are not necessarily connected with his subject; 'Savage mu-gled in cursory conversation with the same steadiness of attention as others apply to a lecture.' An author who takes a hasty view of a subject will mislead by his errours; 'The emperour Macrinus had once resolved to abolish these rescripts (of the emperors), and retain only the general edicts. He could not hear that the hasty and crude answers of such princes as Commodus and Caracalla should be reverenced as laws."—Blackstone. He who takes a slight view of a subject will disappoint by the shallowness of his information; 'The wits of Charles's time had seldom more than slight and superficial views. Between cursory and desultory there is the Johnson. same difference as between running and leaping; we run in a line, but we leap from one part to another; so remarks that are cursory have still more or less connexion, but remarks that are desultory are without any coherence; 'If compassion ever be felt from the brute instinct of uninstructed nature, it will only produce effects desultory and transient.'—Johnson.

RASHNESS, TEMERITY, HASTINESS, PRECIPITANCY.

Rashness denotes the quality of being rash, which, like the German rasch, and our word rush, comes from the Latin ruo, expressing hurried and excessive motion; temerity, in Latin temeritas, from temere, possibly comes from the Greek τήμερον at the moment, denoting the quality of acting by the impulse of the moment; hastiness denotes the quality of being hasty, or impelled by an impatient feeling; precipitancy, from the Latin præ and capio, signifies the quality or disposition of taking things before they ought to be

Rashness and temerity have a close alliance with each other in sense; but they have a slight difference, which is entitled to notice: rashness is a general and indefinite term, in the signification of which an improper celerity is the leading idea: this celerity may arise either from a vehemence of character, or a temporary ardour of the mind: in the signification of temerity, the leading idea is want of consideration, springing mostly from an overweening confidence, or a presumption of character. Rashness is, therefore, applied to our corporeal as well as moral actions, as the jumping into a river, without being able to swim, or the leaping over a hedge, without being an expert

Nature to youth hot rashness doth dispense. But with cold prudence age doth recompense. DENHAM.

Temerity is applied to our moral actions only, particularly such as require deliberation, and a calculation of consequences; All mankind have a sufficient plea for some degree of restlessness, and the fault seems to be little more than too much temerity of conclusion in favour of something not experienced.'-Johnson. Hastiness and precipitancy are but modes or characteristicks of rashness, and consequently employed only in particular cases, as hastiness in regard to our move ments, and precipitancy in regard to our measures;

And hurry through the woods with hasty step, Rustling and full of hope.-SomeRVILLE.

As the chymist, by catching at it too soon, lost the philosophical elixir, so precipitancy of our understanding is an occasion of errour.'—GLANVILLE.

TO ABIDE, SOJOURN, DWELL, RESIDE, INHABIT.

Abide, in Saxon abitan, old German beiten, comes Abide, in Saxon abitan, old German beiten, comes from the Arabick or Persian but, or bit, to pass the night, that is, to make a partial stay; sojourn. in French sejourner, from sub and diurnus in the day-time, signifies to pass the day, that is, a certain portion of one's time, in a place; dwell, from the Danish dwelger to abide, and the Saxon dwellan, Dutch exclus to wander, conveys the idea of a moveable "abitation, such as was the practice of living formerly abitation, such as was the practice of living formerly in wats. At present it implies a perpetual stay, which

is expressed in common discourse by the word live, for passing one's life; reside, from the Latin re and sides to sit down, conveys the full idea of a settlement: inhabit, from the Latin habito, a frequentative of habeo, signifies to have or occupy for a permanency.

The length of stay implied in these terms is marked by a certain gradation.

Abide denotes the shortest stay; to sojourn is of longer continuance; dwell comprehends the idea of perpetuity, but reside and inhabit are partial and dwell only in one spot, but we may reside at or inhabit many places.

These words have likewise a reference to the state of society.

Abide and sojourn relate more properly to the wandering habits of men in a primitive state of society. Dwell, as implying a stay under a cover, is universal in its application; for we may dwell either in a palace, a house, a cottage, or any shelter. Live, reside, and inhabit are confined to a civilized state of society; the former applying to the abodes of the inferiour orders, the latter to those of the higher classes. The word inhabit is never used but in connexion with the place inhabited.

The Easterns abode with each other, sojourned in a country, and dwelt in tents. The Angels abode with Lot one night; 'From the first to the last of man's abode on earth, the discipline must never be relaxed of guarding the heart from the dominion of passion.'-BLAIR. Abraham sojourned in the land of Canaan; 'By the Israelites' sojourning in Egypt, God made way for their bondage there, and their bondage for a glorious deliverance through those prodigious manifestations of the Divine power.'—SOUTH. The Israelites dwelt of the Divine power.'-South. in the land of Goshen;

Hence from my sight! Thy father cannot bear thee; Fly with thy infamy to some dark cell, Where on the confines of eternal night,

Mourning, misfortunes, cares, and anguish dwell.

MASSINGER.

Savages either dwell in the cavities which nature has formed for them, or in some rude structure erected for a temporary purpose; but as men increase in cultivation they build places for themselves which they can inhabit; 'By good company, in the place which I have the misfortune to inhabit, we understand not always those from whom good can be learned.'— JOHNSON. The poor have their cottages in which they can live; the wealthy provide themselves with super buildings in which they resule; 'Being obliged to remove my habitation, I was led by my evil genius to a convenient house in the street where the nobility reside.'-Johnson.

TO CONTINUE, REMAIN, STAY.

Continue, from the Latin contineo, or con and teneo to hold together, signifies to keep together without in termission; remain, in Latin remaneo, is compounded of re or retro and maneo, Greek μένω, Hebrew του to tarry. Maneo signifies literally to tarry in a place during the night; whence the Latins called those places Manriones, whence the basis canculations praces nam-siones, where travellers passed a night; 'In Manur-rharum urbe manemus.'—Horace. Remaneo signified literally to tarry behind; 'II qui per valetudinis causam remanscrant,' stay is but a variation of the word

The idea of confining one's self to something is com mon to all these terms; but continue applies often to the sameness of action, and remain to sameness of place or situation; the former has most of the active sense in it, and expresses a state of action; the latter is altogether neuter, and expresses a state of rest. We speak of continuing a certain course, of continuing to do, or continuing to be anything; but of remaining in a position, in a house, in a town, in a condition, and the like; 'Mr. Pryn was sent to a castle in the island of Jersey, Dr. Bastwick to Scilly, and Mr. Burton to Guernsey, where they remained unconsidered, and truly I thought unpitied, (for they were men of no virtue or merit) for the space of two years.'—CLA-RENDON

There is more of will in continuing: more of necessity and circumstances in remaining. A person continues in office as long as he can perform it with satisfaction to himself, and his employers; 'I have seen some Roman Catholick authors who tell us, that vicious writers continue in purgatory so long as the influence of their writings continues upon posterity.—
Addison. A sentinel remains at his post or station.
Continue is opposed to cease; remain is opposed to go.
Things continue in motion; they remain stationary.
The females among the brutes will sometimes continue to feed their young, long after they are able to provide for themselves; many persons are restored to hie after having remained several hours in a state of suspended animation.

Remain and stay are both perfectly neuter in their sense, but remain is employed for either persons or things; stay in this sense is used for persons only. It is necessary for some species of wood to remain long in the water in order to be seasoned:

I will be true to thee, preserve thee ever, The sad companion of this faithful breast: While life and thought remain.—Rows.

Some persons are of so restless a temper, that they cannot stay long in a place without giving symptoms of uneasiness:

Where'er I go, my soul shall stay with thee; 'T is but my shadow that I take away.— DRYDEN.

When remain is employed for persons, it is often involuntary, if not compulsory; stay is altogether voluntary. Soldiers must remain where they are stationed. Friends stay at each other's houses as visiters. Former times afford many instances of servants continuing faithful to their employers, even in the season of adversity: but so much are times altered, that at present, domesticks never remain long enough in their places to create any bond of attachment between master and servant. Their time of stay is now limited to weeks and months, instead of being extended to years.

To remain is frequently taken in the sense of being left from other things, to stay in that of supporting, in which they are perfectly distinct from each other, and

also from continue.

TO CONTINUE, PERSEVERE, PERSIST, PURSUE, PROSECUTE.

To continue signifies the same as in the preceding article; to persevere, in French perseverer, Latin perseverere, compounded of per and severus strict and steady, signifies to be steady throughout or to the end; 'Ad ultimum perseverare.'—Luv. Persist, in French persister, Latin persisto, compounded of per and sisto or sto, signifies to stand by or to a thing; 'In proposito persistere.'—Cicero. Pursue and prosecute, in French, poursuiver, come from the Latin sequor to follow, that is, prosequor and its participle prosecutus, corresponding with prosequor, signifying to follow after or keep on with.

on with.

The idea of not laying aside is common to these terms, which is the sense of continue without any other addition; the other terms, which are all species of continuing, include likewise some collateral idea which distinguishes them from the first, as well as from each other. Continue is comparable with persevere and persist in the neuter sense; with pursue and prosecute in the active sense. To continue is simply to do as one has done hitherto; 'Abdallah continuing to extend his former improvements, beautified this whole prospect with groves and fountains.'—ADDISON. To persevere is to continue without wishing to change, or from a positive desire to attain an object; 'If we persevere instudying to do our duty towards God and man, we shall meet with the esteem, love, and confidence of those who are around us.'—BLAIR. To persist is to continue from a determination or will not to cease. The act of continuing, therefore, specifies no characteristick of the agent; that of persevering or persisting marks a direct temper of mind; the former is always used in a good sense, the latter in an indifferent or bad sense; 'If they persist in pointing their batteries to particular persons, no laws of war forbid the making reprisals.'—Addisonment of the persistere. Livy. And probably in initiation of them, examples are to be found in English authors of persevere in a bad sense, and persist on a good sense; but modern writers have uniformly ob-

served the distinction. We continue from habit or casualty: we persevere from reflection and the exercise of one's judgement: we persist from attachment. It is not the most exalted virtue to continue in a good course, merely because we have been in the labits of so doing; what is done from habit, merely without any fixed principle, is always exposed to change from the influence of passion or evil counsel: there is real virtue in the act of perseverance, without which many of our best intentions would remain unfulfilled, and our best plans would be defeated; those who do persevere can do no essential good; and those who do persevere often effect what has appeared to be impracticable; of this truth the discoverr of America is a remarkable proof, who in spite of every mortification, rebuit, and disappointment, persevered in calling the attention of monarchs to his project, until he at length obtained the assistance requisite for effecting the discovery of a new world.

Persenere is employed only in matters of some moment, in things of sufficient importaince to demand a steady purpose of the mind; persist is employed in the ordinary business of life, as well as on more important occasions; a learner perseceres in his studies, in order to arrive at the necessary degree of improvement; 'Patience and perseverance overcome the greatest difficulties.'—Richardson. A child persists in making a request, until he has obtained the object of his desire; 'The Arians themselves which were present, subscribed also (to the Nicene creed), not that they meant sincerely and in deed to forsake their errour; but only to escape deprivation and exile, which they saw they could not avoid, openly persisting in their former opinions, when the greater part had concluded against them, and that with the emperor's royal assent.'—Hooker. There is always wisdom in persent.

severance, even though unsuccessful; there is mostly folly, caprice, or obstunacy in persistance: how different the man who perseveres in the cultivation of his talents, from him who only persists in maintaining false node or supporting errours!

Continue, when compared with persevere or persist, is always coupled with modes of action; but in comparison with pursue or prosecute, it is always followed by some object: we continue to do, persevere, or persist in doing something: but we continue, pursue, or prosecute some object which we wish to bring to per-

fection by additional labour.

Continue is here equally indefinite, as in the former case: pursue and prosecute both comprehend collateral ideas respecting the disposition of the agent, and the nature of the object: to continue is to go on with a thing as it has been begun; to pursue and prosecute is to continue by some prescribed rule, or in some particular manner: a work is continued; a plan, measure, or line of conduct is pursued; an undertaking or a design is prosecuted: we may continue the work of another in order to supply a deficiency; we may pursue a plan that emanates either from ourselves or another: we prosecute our own work only in order to obtain some peculiar object; continue, therefore, expresses less than pursue, and this less than prosecute: the history of England has been continued down to the present period by different writers; Smollett has pursued the same plan as Hume, in the continuation of his history; Captain Cook prosecuted his work of discovery in three several voyages.

We continue the conversation which has been inter-

We continue the conversation which has been interrupted; we pursue the subject which has engaged our attention; we pursue a journey after a certain length of stay; we prosecute any particular journey which is important either on account of its difficulties or its

object.

To continue is in itself altogether an indifferent action; to pursue is always a commendable action; to prosecute rises still higher in value it is a mark of great instability not to continue any thing that we begin; 'After having petitioned for power to resist temptation, there is so great an incongruity in not continuing the struggle, that we blush at the thought, and persevere, lest we lose all reverence for ourselves.—HAWKESWORTH. It betrays a great want of prindence and discernment not to pursue some plan on every oc casion which requires method;

Look round the habitable world, how few Know their own good, or, knowing it, pursus DRYDEN.

Will ye not now the pair of sages praise,
Who the same end pursu'd by several ways?

DRYDEN.

It is the characteristick of a persevering mind to prosecute whatever it has deemed worthy to enter upon; 'There will be some study which every man more zealously prosecutes, some dufting subject on which he is principally pleased to converse.'—Johnson.

TO INSIST, PERSIST.

Both these terms, being derived from the Latin sisto to stand, express the idea of resting or keeping to a thing; but insist signifies to rest on a point, and persist, thing; but insist signifies to rest on a point, and persist, from per through or by (v. To continue), signifies to keep on with a thing to carry it through. We insist on a matter by maintaining it; we persist in a thing by continuing to do it; we insist by the force of authority or argument; we persist by the mere act of the will. A person insists on that which he conceives to be the interest or the winter on that which he conceives to be his right: or he insists on that which he conceives to be right: but he persists in that which he has no will to give up. To insist is therefore an act of discretion: to persist is mostly an act of folly or caprice; the former is always taken in a good or indifferent sense; the latter mostly in a bad sense, at least in colloquial discourse. A parent ought to insist on all matters that are of essential importance to his children; 'This natural tendency of despotick power to ignorance and barbarity, though not insisted upon by others, is, I think, an inconsiderable argument against that form of government."—Addison. A spoiled child persists in its follies from perversity of humour; 'So easy it is for every man living to err, and so hard to wrest from any man's mouth the plain acknowledgment of errour, that what hath been once inconsiderately defended. the same is commonly persisted in as long as wit, by whetting itself, is able to find out any shift, be it never so slight, whereby to escape out of the hands of pre-sent contradiction.'—Hooker.

TENACIOUS, PERTINACIOUS.

To be tenacious is to hold a thing close, to let it go with reluctance; to be pertinacious is to hold it out in spite of what can be advanced against it, the prepositive syllable per having an intensive force. A man of tenacious temper insists on trifles that are supposed to affect his importance; a pertinacious temper insists on every thing which is apt to affect his opinions. Tenacity and pertinacity are both foibles, but the former is sometimes more excusable than the latter.

sometimes more excusable than the latter.

We may be tenacious of that which is good, as when a man is tenacious of whatever may affect his honour; 'So tenacious are we of the old ecclesiastical modes, that very little alteration has been made in them since the fourteenth or fifteenth century; adhering to our old settled maxim, never entirely, nor at once, to depart from antiquity.\(^{1}\)—BUREE. We cannot be pertinacious in any thing but our opinions, and that too in cases where they are least defensible; 'The most pertinacious and vehement demonstrator may be wearied in time by continual negation.\(^{1}\)—JOHNSON. It commonly happens that people are most tenacious of being thought to possess that in which they are most deficient, and most pertinacious in maintaining that which is absurd. A liar is tenacious of his reputation for truth; 'Men are tenacions of the opinions that first possess them.'—Locke. Sophists, freethinkers, and skepticks, are the most pertinacious of the dissenters appeared to Dr. Sanderson to be so bold, so troublesome, and illogical in the dispute, as forced him to say, that he had never met with a man of more pertinacious confidence and less abilities.'—WALTON.

CONTINUAL, PERPETUAL, CONSTANT.

Continual, in French continuel, Latin continuus, from continue to hold or keep together, signifies keeping together without intermission; perpetual, in French perpetual. Latin perpetualis, from perpeto, compounded of per and peto to seek thoroughly, signifies going on every where and at all times; constant, in Latin constants, or con and sto, signifies the quality of standing to a thing, or standing close together.

What is continual admits of no interruption: what is perpetual admits of no termination. There may be an end to that which is continual and there may be intervals in that which is perpetua. Rains are continual in the tropical climates at certain seasons; complaints among the lower orders are perpetual, but they are frequently without foundation. There is a continual passing and repassing in the streets of the metropolis during the day;

Open your ears, for which of you will stop The vent of hearing when load rumour speaks; Upon my tongue continual slanders ride, The which in every language I pronounce.

SHARSPEARE.

The world, and all that it contains, are subject to perpetual change; 'If affluence of fortune unhappily concur to favour the inclinations of the youthful, amusements and diversions succeed in a perpetual round,"—BLAIR.

The continual is that which admits of no interruption, the constant is that which admits of no change. The last twenty-five years have presented to the world a continual succession of events, that have exceeded in importance those going before; the French revolution and the atrocitics attendant upon it have been the constant theme of execration with the well-disposed part of mankind. To an intelligent parent it is a continual source of pleasure to waten the progress of his child in the acquirement of knowledge, and the development of his faculties;

'Tis all blank sadness, or continual tears.—Pope. It will be the constant endeavour of a parent to train him up in principles of religion and virtue, while he is cultivating his talents, and storing his mind with science;

The world's a scene of changes, and to be Constant in nature were inconstancy.—Cowley. Continual is used in the proper sense only, constant is employed in the moral sense o denote the temper of the mind (v. Constancy).

CONTINUAL, CONTINUED.

Both these terms mark length of duration, but the former admits of a certain degree of interruption, which the latter does not. What is continual may have frequent pauses; what is continued ceases only to terminate. Rains are continual; noises in a tunnituous street are continual; the bass in musick is said to be continued; the mirth of a drunken party is one continued noise. Continual interruptions abate the vigour of application and create disgust: *in countries situated near the poles, there is one continued darkness for the space of five or six months; during which time the inhabitants are obliged to leave the place.

inhabitants are obliged to leave the place.

Continual respects the duration of actions or circumstances only; continued is likewise applied to the extent or course of things: rumours are continual; talking, walking, running, and the like, are continual;

And gulphy Simois rolling to the main, Helmets and shields and godlike heroes slain: These turn'd by Phœbus from their wonted ways, Delug'd the rampire nine continual days.—Pore.

A line, a series, a scene, or a stream of water, &c. is continued:

Our life is one continued toil for fame.'—MARTYN.
'By too intense and continued application, our feelile powers would soon be worn out.'—Blair.

CONTINUANCE, CONTINUATION, DURATION.

Continuance is said of the time that a thing continuaes (v. To continue); continuation expresses the act of continuing what has been begun. The continuance of any particular practice may be attended with serious consequence; 'Their duty depending upon fear, the one was of no greater continuance than the other.'—HAXWARD. The continuation of a work depends on the abilities and will of the workmen, 'The Roman poem is but the second part of the lina, the continuation of the same story.'—RAX. Authors

* Vide Trussler: "Continual, continued."

have however not always observed this distinction: Providence seems to have equally divided the whole mass of mankind into different sexes, that every woman may have her husband, and that both may equally contribute to the continuance of the species.—STRELE.

'The Pythagorean transmigration, the sensual habitations of the Mahometan, and the shady realms of Pluto, do all agree in the main point, the continuation of our existence.'--BERKELEY.

Existence."—BERKELEY.
Continuance and duration, in Latin duratio, from dure to harden, or figuratively to last, are both employed for time; things may be of long continuance, or of long duration: but continuance is used only with regard to the action; duration with regard to the thing and its existence. Whatever is occasionally done, and soon to be ended, is not for a continuance; whatever is made, and soon destroyed, is not of long duration; there are many excellent institutions in England which promise to be of no less continuance than of utility; 'That pleasure is not of greater continuance, which arises from the prejudice or malice of its beauty. its hearers.'-ADDISON. Duration is with us a relative term; things are of long or short duration; by comparison, the duration of the world and all sublunary objects is nothing in regard to eternity; Mr. Locke observes, "that we get the idea of time and duration, by reflecting on that train of ideas which succeed one another in our minds." "—Addison.

CONTINUATION, CONTINUITY.

Continuation, as may be seen above (v. Continuance), is the act of continuing; continuity is the quality of continuing; the former is employed in the figurative sense for the duration of events and actions; the latter in the physical sense for the adhesion of the component parts of the bodies. The continuation of a history up to the existing period of the writer is the work of every age, if not of every year; 'The sun ascending into the northern signs begetteth first a temperate heat, which by his approach unto the solstice he intended); and by continuation the same even upon declination.'—Brown (Fulgar Errows). There are bodies of so little continuity that they will crumble to pieces on the slightest touch; 'A body always perceives the passages by which it insinuates; feels the impulse of another body where it yields thereto: perresists it; in fine, perception is diffused through all nature.'—Bacon.

The sprightly breast demands Incessant rapture; life, a tedious load, Deny'd its continuity of joy.—Shenstone.

DURABLE, LASTING, PERMANENT.

Durable is said of things that are intended to remain a shorter time than those which are lasting; and per-manent expresses less than durable; durable, from the manner expresses use that auraoue; auraoue, from the Latin durus hard, respects the textures of bodies, and marks the capacity to hold out; lasting, from the verb to last, or the adjective last, signifies to remain the last or longest, and is applicable only to that which is supposed of the longest duration. Permanent, from the Latin permanen, signifies remaining to the end.

Durable is naturally said of material substances; and lasting of those which are spiritual; although in ordinary discourse sometimes they exchange offices:

permanent applies more to the affairs of men.

permanent applies more to the affairs of men.

That which perishes quickly is not durable: that which ceases quickly is not lasting; that which is only for a time is not permanent. Stone is more durable than iron, and iron than wood: in the feudal times animosities between families used to be lasting; a clerk has not a permanent situation in an office. However we may boast of our progress in the arts, we appear to have lost the art of making things as durable appear to have use the arch mixing times as an archer as they were made in former times; 'If writings be thus durable, and may pass from age to age, through the whole course of time, how careful should an author be of not committing any thing to print that may corrupt posterity.—Apptson. The writings of the moderns will many of them be as lusting monuments of human genius as those of the ancients: 'I must desire my fair readers to give a proper direction to their being admired; in order to which they must

endeavour to make themselves the objects of a rea somable and lasting admiration. -Addison. One who is of a contented, moderate disposition will generally prefer a permanent situation with small gains to one that is very lucrative but temporary and precarious; Land comprehends all things in law of a permanent, substantial nature.'-- BLACKSTONE.

DURABLE, CONSTANT.

Durability is the property of things; constancy (v. Constancy) is the property of either persons or things. The durable is that which lasts long. The constant is that which continues without interruption. No durable connexions can be formed which are founded on vicious principles; 'Some states have suddenly emerged, and even in the depths of their calamity have laid the foundation of a towering and durable greatness.—BURKE. Some persons are never happy but in a constant round of pleasures; 'Since we cannot promise ourselves constant health, let us endeavour at such a temper, as may be our best support in the decay of it.'—STRELE. What is durable is so from its inherent property, but what is constant, in regard to persons or things, arises from the temper of the mind; showed his firm adherence to religion as modelled by our national constitution, and was constant to its offices in devotion, both in publick and in his family.'

DURATION, TIME.

In the philosophical sense, according to Mr. Locke, time is that mode of duration which is formed in the mind by its own power of observing and measuring passing objects.

In the vulgar sense in which duration is synonymous with time, it stands for the time of duration, and is more particularly applicable to the objects which are last; time being employed in general for what-

ever passes in the world.

Duration comprehends the beginning and end of any portion of time, that is the how long of a thing; time is employed more frequently for the particular portion itself, namely, the time when: we mark the duration of a sound from the time of its commencement to the time that it ceases: the duration of a prince's reign is an object of particular concern to his subjects if he be either very good or the reverse; the time in which he reigns is marked by extraordinary events. An hi-torian computes the duration of reigns and of events in order to determine the antiquity of a nation; 'I think another probable conjecture (respectnation; 'I think another probable conjecture (respecting the soul's immortality) may be raised from our appetite to duration itself.'—Steele. An historian fixes the exact time when each person begins to reign and when he dies, in order to determine the number of years that each reigned; 'The time of the fool is long because he does not know what to do with it; that of the wise man, because he distinguishes every moment of it with useful or amusing thoughts. - Addison.

TIME, SEASON, TIMELY, SEASONABLE.

Time is here the generick term; it is taken either for the whole or the part: season is any given portion of time. We speak of time when the simple idea of time only is to be expressed, as the time of the day, or the time of the year; the season is spoken in reference to some circumstances; the year is divided into four parts, called the seasons, according to the nature of the weather: hence, in general, that time is called the season which is suitable for any particular purpose, youth is the season for improvement. It is a matter of necessity to choose the time; it is an affair of wis dom to choose the season; 'You will often want religion in times of most danger."—Chatham. Piso's behaviour towards us in this season of affliction has endeared him to us."—Melmoth (Letters of Cicero). The same distinction exists between the epithets timely and seasonable as their primitives. The former signifies within the time that is before the time.

signifies within the time, that is, before the time is past; the latter according to the season or what the season requires. A timely notice prevents that which would otherwise happen; 'It imports all men, especially bad men, to think on the judgement, that by a timely repentance they may prevent the woful effects of it -South. A seasonable hint seldom fails of its

effect because it is seasonable; What you call a bold, is not only the kindest, but the most seasonable proposal you could have made.'-Locke. We must not posar you could have made; —Locke. We must not expect to have a timely notice of death, but must be prepared to die at any time; an admonition to one who is on a sick-bed is very srasonable, when given by a minister of religion or a friend. The opposites of these terms are untimely or ill-timed and unseasonable, which is discontinuous and the continuous of the second of the sec able: untimely is directly opposed to timely, signifying before the time appointed; as an untimely death; but ill-timed is indirectly opposed, signifying in the wrong time; as an ill timed remark.

TIME, PERIOD, AGE, DATE, ÆRA, EPOCHA.

Time (v. Time) is, as before, taken either from time in general, or time in particular; all the other terms are taken for particular portions of time. Time, in the sense of a particular portion of time, is used indefinitely, and in cases where the other terms are not so

initiely, and in cases where the other terms are not so proper; 'There is a time when we should not only number our days, but our hours.'—Young.

Time included within any given points is termed a period, from the Greek περίοδος, signifying a course, round, or any revolution: thus, the period of day, or of night, is the space of time comprehended between the rising and setting, or setting and rising of the sun; the period of a year comprehends the space which the earth requires for its annual revolution. So, in an extended and moral application, we have stated periods in our life for particular things: during the period of infancy a child is in a state of total dependence on its parents; a period of apprenticeship has been appointed for youth to learn different trades; 'Some experiment would be made how by art to make plants more lasting than their ordinary period; as to make a stalk of wheat last a whole year.'—Bacon. This term is employed not only to denote the whole intervening space of time, but also the particular concluding point, which makes it equivalent in sense to the termination of the existence of any body, as to put a period to one's existence, for to kill one's self, or be killed;

But the last period, and the fatal hour, Of Troy is come.—Denham.

The age is a species of period comprehending the The age is a species of period completening the life of a man, and consequently referring to what is done by men living within that period; hence we speak of the different ages that have existed since the commencement of the world, and characterize this or that age by the particular degrees of vice or virtue, genius, and the like, for which it is distinguished; The story of Haman only shows us what human nature has too generally appeared to be in every age.'-

The date is that period of time which is reckoned from the date or commencement of a thing to the time that it is spoken of: hence we speak of a thing of the time that that it is spoken of: hence we speak of a thing as being of a long or a short date, that is, of being of long or short duration; 'Plantations have one advantage in them which is not to be found in most other works, as they give a pleasure of a more lasting date.'

Addison.

Abouson. \mathcal{L} ra, in Latin xra, probably from xs brass, signifying coin with which one computes; and xpoxcha, from the Greek xpaxph, from xphxphxphxph grainifying a resting place; both refer to points of xphxph grainifying a resting place; both refer to points of xph grainifying a resting place; but the term xra is more comparative points of the literal xparative xph grainifying an xph grainifying xph g monly employed in the literal sense for points of com putation in chronology, as the Christian era: 'That period of the Athenian history which is included within the era of Pisistratus, and the death of Menander the the xra of Pisistratus, and the death of Menander the comic poet, may justly be styled the literary age of Greece.—CUMBERLAND. The term epocha is indefinitely employed for any xeriod distinguished by remarkable events: the grand rebellion is an epocha in the history of England; 'The institution of this library (by Pisistratus) forms a signal epocha in the analysis of the grands of the company of the property of nals of literature.'-CUMBERLAND.

TIMESERVING, TEMPORIZING.

Timeserving and temporizing are both applied to the conduct of one who adapts himself servilely to the time and season; but a timeserver is rather active, and a temporizer passive. A timeserver awows those opinions which will serve his purpose: the temporizer to the time and season; but a timeserver awows those to the time and season; but a timeserver awows those to the time and season; but a timeserver is rather active, and the time and the timeserver awows those to the time and the timeserver awows those to the timeserver awows the timeserver a

forbears to avow those which are likely for the time forbears to avow those which are likely for the time being to hurt him. The former acts from a desire of gain, the latter from a fear of loss. Timeserners are of all parties, as they come in the way; 'Ward had complied during the late times, and held in by taking the covenant: so he was hated by the high men as a timeserner.'—Bennert. Temporizers are of no party, as occasion, requires; 'Feeble and temporizing mensures will always be the result, when men assemble to deliberate in a situation where they ought to act.'—
ROBERTSON. Sycophant courtiers must always be timeservers: ministers of state are frequently temporizers.

INSTANT, MOMENT.

Instant, from sto to stand, signifies the point of time that stands over us, or as it were over our heads; mo-ment, from the Latin momentum, is any small particle, particularly a small particle of time

The instant is always taken for the time present; the moment is taken generally for either past, present, or future. A dutiful child comes the instant he is called; a prudent person embraces the favourable moment. When they are both taken for the present time, the instant expresses a much shorter space than the moment; when we desire a person to do a thing this instant, it requires haste; if we desire him to do it this moment, it only admits of no delay. Instantaneous relief is necessary on some occasions to preserve life: 'Some circumstances of misery are so powerfully ridiculous, that neither kindness nor duty can with stand them; they force the friend, the dependant, of the child, to give way to instantaneous motions of merriment.'—Johnson. A moment's thought will furnish a ready wit with a suitable reply; 'I can easily overlook any present momentary sorrow, when I reflect that it is in my power to be happy a thousand years hence.'-BERKELEY.

TEMPORARY, TRANSIENT, TRANSITORY FLEETING.

Temporary, from tempus time, characterizes that which is intended to last only for a time, in distinction which is intended to last only for a time, in distinction from that which is permanent; offices depending upon a state of war are temperary, in distinction from those which are connected with internal policy; 'By the force of superiour principles the temporary prevalence of passions may be restrained.'—JOHNSON. Transient, that is, passing, or in the act of passing, characterizes what in its nature exists only for the moment; a glance is transient; 'Any sudden diversion of the spirits, or the justling in of a transient thought, is able to deface the little images of things (in the memory).'—SOUTH. Transitory, that is, apt to pass away, characterizes every thing in the world which is formed only to exist for a time, and then to pass away, formed only to exist for a time, and then to pass away; thus our pleasures, and our pains, and our very being, are denominated transitory; 'Man is a transitory being.'—Johnson. Fleeting, which is derived from the verb to fly and flight, is but a stronger term to express the same idea as transitory;

Thus when my fleeting days at last, Unheeded, silently are past, Calmly I shall resign my breath, In life unknown, forgot in death .- Spectator

COEVAL, COTEMPORARY.

Coeval, from the Latin evum an age, signifies of the same age; cotemporary, from tempus, signifies of the same time.

An age is a specifically long space of time; a time is indefinite; hence the application of the terms to things in the first case, and to persons in the second: things in the first case, and to persons in the second: the dispersion of mankind and the confusion of languages were coeval with the building of the tower of Babel; 'The passion of fear seems coeval with our nature.'—Cumberland. Addison was cotemporary with Swift and Pope; 'If the elder Orpheus was the disciple of Linus, he must have been of too early an age to have been cotemporary with Hercules: for Orpheus is placed eleven ages before the siege of Troy'—Cumberland.

DAILY, DIURNAL

Daily, from day and like, signifies after the manner or in the time of the day; diurnal, from dies day, sig-

nifies belonging to the day.

Daily is the colloquial term, which is applicable to whatever passes in the day time; diurnal is the scientifick term, which applies to what passes within or belongs to the astronomical day: the physician makes daily visits to his patients;

All creatures else forget their daily care, And sleep, the common gift of nature, share.

The earth has a diurnal motion on its own axis; Half yet remains unsung, but narrow bound Within the visible diurnal sphere.—MILTON.

NIGHTLY, NOCTURNAL.

Nightly, immediately from the word night, and nocturnal, from nox night, signify belonging to the night, or the night season; the former is therefore more familiar than the latter: we speak of nightly depredations to express what passes every night, or nightly disturbances, nocturnal dreams, nocturnal

Yet not alone, while thou Visit'st my slumbers nightly, or when morn Purples the east .- MILTON.

Or save the sun his labour, and that swift Nocturnal and diurnal rhomb suppos'd Invisible else above all stars, the wheel Of day and night.—MILTON.

OFTEN, FREQUENTLY.

Often, or in its contracted form oft, comes in all probability through the medium of the northern languages, from the Greek $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$ again, and signifies properly repetition of action; frequently, from frequent crowded or numerous, respects a plurality or number of objects.

An ignorant man often uses a word without knowing what it means; ignorant people frequently mistake the meaning of the words they hear. A person goes out very often in the course of a week; he has frequently six or seven persons to visit him in the course of that time. *By doing a thing often it becomes habitual: we frequently meet the same persons in the route which we often take;

Often from the careless back Of herds and flocks a thousand tugging bills Pluck hair and wool .- Thomson.

Here frequent at the visionary hour When musing midnight reigns or silent noon, Angelick harps are in full concert heard. THOMSON.

OLD, ANCIENT, ANTIQUE, ANTIQUATED, OLD-FASHIONED, OBSOLETE

Old, in German alt, Low German old, &c., from the Greek Ewlos of yesterday; ancient, in French ancien, and antique, antiquated, all come from the Latin antiquus, and antea before, signifying in general before our time; old-fashioned signifies after an old fashion; obsolete, in Latin obsoletus, participle of obsole, signifies literally out of use.

Old respects what has long existed and still exists; ancient what existed at a distant period, but does not necessarily exist at present; antique, that which has been long ancient, and of which there remain but faint been long ancient, and of which there remain but and traces; untiquated, old-fashioned, and obsolete that which has ceased to be any longer used or esteemed A fashion is old when it has been long in use; 'The Venetians are tenacious of old laws and customs to their great prejudice.'—Addison. A custom is ancient when its use has long been passed;

But sev'n wise men the ancient world did know, We scarce know sev'n who think themselves not so.

A bust or statue is antique which is the work of the ancients, or made after the manner of the ancient works of art;

* Vide Trusler: "Often, frequently."

Under an oak, whose antique root peeps out Under the brook that brawls along this wood,

A poor sequester'd stag,
That from the hunters' aim had ta'en a hurt,
Did come to languish.—SHAKSPEARE.

A person is antiquated whose appearance is grown out of date; 'Whoever thinks it necessary to regulate his conversation by antiquated rules, will be rather despised for his futility than caressed for his politeness. Manners which are gone quite out of JOHNSON. fashion are old-fashioned; 'The swords in the arsenal Venice are old-fashioned and unwieldy.'-ADDIsos. A word or custom is obsolete which is grown out of use; 'Obsolete words may be laudably revived, when they are more sounding or more significant than those in practice.'-DRYDEN.

The old is opposed to the new: some things are the worse for being old; other things are the better Ancient and antique are opposed to modern: all things are valued the more for being ancient or antique; hence we esteem the writings of the ancients above those of the moderns. The antiquated is opposed to the customary and established; it is that which we cannot like, because we cannot esteem it: the oldfushioned is opposed to the fashionable; there is much in the old-fashioned to like and esteem; there is much that is ridiculous in the fashionable: the obsolete is opposed to the current; the obsolete may be good; the current may be vulgar and mean.

FRESH, NEW, NOVEL, RECENT, MODERN.

Adelung supposes the German word frisch to be derived from frieren to freeze, as the idea of coolness is prevalent in its application to the air; it is therefore figuratively applied to that which is in its first pure and best state; new, in German new, comes from the Latin novus, and the Greek veo; recent, in Latin recens, is supposed to come from re and candeo to whiten or give a fair colour to, because what is new looks so much fairer than what is old.

The fresh is properly opposed to the stale, as the new is to the old: the fresh has undergone no change; the new has not been long in being. Meat, beer, and provisions in general, are said to be fresh; so likewise a person is said to be fresh who is in his full vigour;

Lo: great Æneas rushes to the fight, Sprung from a god, and more than mortal bold; He fresh in youth, and I in arms grown old

That which is substantial and durable, as houses, clothes, books, or, in the moral sense, pleasures, &c. are said to be nem

Seasons but change new pleasures to produce, And elements contend to serve our use .- JENYNS.

Novel is to new as the species to the genus; every thing novel is new; but all that is new is not novel: what is novel is mostly strange and unexpected; what is new is usual and expected: the freezing of the river Thames is a novelty; the frost in every winter is something new when it first comes: that is a novel sight which was either never seen before, or seen but seldom; that is a new sight which is seen for the first time: the entrance of the French king into the British capital was a sight as novel as it was interesting; We are naturally delighted with novelty.'—JOHNSON. The entrance of a king into the capital of France was a new sight, after the revolution which had so long existed:

"T is on some evening, sunny, grateful, mild, When nought but balm is beaming through the woods, With yellow lustre bright, that the new tribes Visit the spacious heav'ns .- Thomson.

Recent is taken only in the improper application; the other two admit of both applications in this case: the fresh is said in relation to what has lately preceded; new is said in relation to what has not long subsisted; recent is used for what has just passed in distinction from that which has long gone by. A per-son is said to give fresh cause of offence who has already offended;

That love which first was set, will first decay Mine of a fresher date will longer stay .- DRYDEN.

A thing receives a new name in lieu of the one which | it has long had; 'Do not all men complain how little we know, and how much is still unknown? And can we ever know more, unless something new be discovered P-Burnet. A recent transaction excites an interest which cannot be excited by one of earlier date; 'The courage of the Parliament was increased by two recent events which had happened in their favour.'—Hume. Fresh intelligence arrives every day; it quickly succeeds the events: that intelligence which is recent to a person at a distance is already old to one who is on the spot. Fresh circumstances continually arise to confirm reports; new changes continually take place to supersede the things that were established.

New is said of every thing which has not before existed, or not in the same form as before; modern, from the low Latin modernus, changed as is supposed from hodiernus belonging to the day, is said of that which is new or springs up in the present day or age. A book is new which has never been used; it is modern if it has never been published before; so in like manner principles are new which have not been broached before; but they are modern inasmuch as they are first offered in the day in which we live; 'Some of the ancient and likewise divers of the modern writers, that have laboured in natural magick, have noted a sympathy between the sun and certain herbs.'— BACON.

TO REVIVE, REFRESH, RENOVATE, RENEW.

Revive, from the Latin vivo to live, signifies to bring to life again; to refresh, to make fresh again; to renew and renovate, to make new again. The restoration of things to their primitive state is the common idea included in these terms; the difference consists in their application. Revive, refresh, and renovate are applied to animal bodies; revive expressing the return of tion and spirits to one who was for the time lifeless; refresh expressing the return of vigour to one in whom it has been diminished; the air revives one who is faint; a cool breeze refreshes one who flags from the Revive and refresh respect only the temporary heat. state of the body; renovate respects its permanent state, that is, the health of the body; one is revived and refreshed after a partial exhaustion; one's health is renovated after having been considerably impaired.

Revive is applied likewise in the moral sense; 'Herod's rage being quenched by the blood of Marianne, his love to her again revived.'—PRIDEAUX. Refresh and renovate mostly in the proper sense;

Nor less thy world, Columbus! drinks, refresh'd, Nor less thy world, Columbus.

The lavish moisture of the melting year.

Thomson.

All nature feels the renovating force Of winter.-Thomson.

Renew only in the moral sense;

The last great age, foretold by sacred rhymes, Renews its finished course.—Thomson.

A discussion is said to be revived, or a report to be revived; a clamour is said to be renewed, or entreaties to be renewed: customs are revived which have lain long dormant, and as it were dead; practices are renewed that have ceased for a time.

FOREFATHERS, PROGENITORS, ANCESTORS.

Forefathers signifies our fathers before us, and includes our immediate parents; progenitors, from pro and gigno, signifies those begotten before us, exclusive of our immediate parents; ancestors, contracted from antecessors or those going before, is said of those from

anteessors of those going before, is said of those from whom we are remotely descended.

Forefathers is a partial and familiar term for the preceding branches of any family; 'We passed slightly over three or four of our immediate forefathers whom we knew by tradition."—Addison. Progenitors is a ligher term in the same sense, applied to families of distinction: we speak of the forefathers of a peasant, but the progenitors of a nobleman;

Each in his narrow cell for ever laid,

The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep .- GRAY.

Suppose a gentleman, full of his illustrious family.

should see the whole line of his progenitors pass in review before him; with how many varying passions would he behold shepherds, soldiers, princes, and beggars, walk in the procession of five thousand years? —Addison. Forefathers and progenitors, but particularly the latter, are said mostly of individuals, and respect the regular line of succession in a family; ancestors is employed collectively as well as individually and regards simply the order of succession: we may speak of the ancestors of a nation as well as of any particular person; 'It is highly laudable to pay respect to men who are descended from worthy ancestors.'- Addison. This term may also be applied figu ratively:

O majestick night! Nature's great ancestor !- Young.

SENIOR, ELDER, OLDER.

These are all comparatives expressive of the same quality, and differ therefore less in sense than in application.

Senior is employed not only in regard to the extent of age, but also to duration either in office or any given situation; elder is employed only in regard to age: an officer in the army is a senior by virtue of having served longer than another; a boy is a senior in a school either by virtue of his age, his standing in the school, or his situation in the class; 'Cratinus was senior in age to both his competitors Eupolis and Aristophanes,'—Cumberland. When age alone is to be expressed, elder is more suitable than senior; the elder children or the elder branches of a family are clearly understood to include those who have priority of age.

Senior and elder are both employed as substantives : older only as an adjective: hence we speak of the seniors in a school, or the elders in an assembly; but an older inhabitant, an older family;

The Spartans to their highest magistrate The name of elder did appropriate. - DENHAM.

Man must compute that age he cannot feel, He scarce believes he's older for his years.

Elder has only a partial use; older is employed in general cases: in speaking of children in the same family we may say, the elder son is heir to the estate; he is older than his brother by ten years.

ELDERLY, AGED, OLD.

These three words rise by gradation in their sense; aged denotes a greater degree of age than elderly; and old still more than either.

The elderly man has passed the meridian of life; 'I have a race of orderly, elderly, persons of both sexes, at my command.'—Swift. The aged man is fast ap proaching the term of human existence;

A godlike race of heroes once I knew

Such as no more these aged eyes shall view .- POPE. The old man has already reached this term, or has exceeded it;

The field of combat fills the young and bold, The solemn council best becomes the old.—Pope.

In conformity, however, to the vulgar prepossession against age and its concomitant infirmities, the term elderly or aged is always more respectful than old, which latter word is often used by way of reproach, and can seldom be used free from such an association, unless qualified by an epithet of praise as good or venerable.

FORMERLY, IN TIMES PAST, OR OLD TIMES, DAYS OF YORE, ANCIENTLY, OR ANCIENT

Formerly supposes a less remote period than in times past; and that less remote than in days of yore and anciently. The first two may be said of what happens within the age of man; the last two are extended to many generations and ages. Any individual may use the word formerly with regard to himself; thus we enjoyed our health better formerly than now; 'Men were formerly disputed out of their doubts.'—ADDISON. An old man may speak of times past, as when he says he does not enjoy himself as he did in times past Old to nations than to individuals, and all these express different degrees of remoteness. As to our present period, the age of Queen Elizabeth may be called old times

In times of old, when time was young,

And poets their own verses sung, A verse could draw a stone or beam.—Swift. The days of Alfred, and still later, the days of yore;

Thus Edgar proud in days of yore,

Held monarchs labouring at the oar .-The earliest period in which Britain is mentioned may be called ancient times;

> In ancient times the sacred plough employ'd The kings and awful fathers of mankind. THOMSON.

GENERATION, AGE.

Generation is said of the persons who live during any particular period; and age is said of the period itself.

Those who are born at the same time constitute the

generation; that period of time which comprehends the age of man is the age: there may therefore be many generations spring up in the course of an age a fresh generation is springing up every day, which in the course of an age pass away, and are succeeded by

fresh menerations.

We consider man in his generation as the part which he has to perform; 'I often lamented that I was not one of that happy generation who demolished the convents.'—Johnson. We consider the age in which we live as to the manners of men and the events of nations; 'Throughout every age, God bath pointed his peculiar displeasure against the confidence of presumption, and the arrogance of prosperity.'-BLAIR.

LAST, LATEST, FINAL, ULTIMATE.

Last and latest, both from late, in German letze, come from the Greek λοισθος and λειπω to leave, signifying left or remaining; final, (v. Final); ultimate

comes from ultimus the last. Last and ultimate respect the order of succession: Last and utimate respect the order of succession. Latest respects the order of time; final respects the completion of an object. What is last or ultimate is succeeded by nothing else: what is latest is not succeeded by any great interval of time; what is final re- quires to be succeeded by nothing else. The last is opposed to the first; the ultimate is distinguished from that which might follow; the *latest* is opposed to the earliest; the *final* is opposed to the introductory or beginning. A person's last words are those by which one is guided; 'The supreme Author of our being has so formed the soul of man that nothing but himself can he its last, adequate, and proper happiness.'—Addison, A man's ultimate object is distinguished from that more remote one which may possibly be in his mind: 'The ultimate end of man is the enjoyment of God, beyond which he cannot form a wish."--GROVE. A conscientious man remains firm to his principles to his latest breath; a pleasant comedy which paints the manners of the age is a durable work, and is transmitted to the latest posterity.—HUME. The final determination of difficult matters requires caution; 'Final causes lie more bare and open to our observation, as there are often a greater variety that belong to the same effect. -Applison. Jealous people strive not to be the last in any thing; the latest intelligence which a man gets of his country is acceptable to one who is in distant quarters of the globe; it requires resolution to take a final leave of those whom one holds near and dear.

LASTLY, AT LAST, AT LENGTH.

Lastly, like last (v. Last), respects the order of sucat last or at length refer to what has pre-When a sermon is divided into many heads cession: ceded. When the term lastly comprehends the last division. When an affair is settled after much difficulty it is said to be at last settled; and if it be settled after a protracted con-tinuance, it is said to be settled at length; 'Lastly, opportunities do sometimes offer in which a man may wickedly make his fortune without fear of temporal damage. In such cases what restraint do they lie under

times, days of yore, and anciently, are more applicable | who have no regard beyond the grave ?'-BLAIR. 'A last being satisfied they had nothing to fear they brought tast being satisfied they had nothing to lear they brought out all their corn every day."—Addison. 'A neighbouring king made war upon this female republick several years with various success, and at length over threw them in a very great battle."—Addison.

ETERNAL, ENDLESS, EVERLASTING.

The eternal is set above time, the endless lies within time, it is therefore by a strong figure that we apply eternal to any thing sublunary; although endless may with propriety be applied to that which is heavenly. That is properly eternal which has neither beginning nor end; that is endless which has a beginning, but no end. God is, therefore, an eternal, but not an endless being;

Distance immense between the pow'rs that shine Above, eternal, deathless, and divine, And mortal man !- POPE.

There is an cternal state of happiness or misery, which awaits all men, according to their deeds in this life; the joys or sorrows of men may be said to be endless as regards this life :

The faithful Mydon, as he turn'd from fight His flying coursers, sunk to endless night .- POPE.

That which is endless has no cessation; that which is everlasting has neither interruption or cessation. endless may be said of existing things; the enertasting naturally extends itself into futurity; hence we speak of endless disputes, an endless warfare, an everlasting memorial, an everlasting crown of glory;

Back from the car he tumbles to the ground, And cverlasting shades his eyes surround.—Pope

REST, REMAINDER, REMNANT, RESCUE.

Rest evidently comes from the Latin resto, which is compounded of re and sto, signifying to stand or re main back; remainder literally signifies what remains after the first part is gone; femnant is but a variation of remainder; and residue, from resideo, signifies what keeps back by settling.

All these terms express that part which is separated from the other and left distinct: rest is the most general, both in sense and application; the others have a more specifick meaning and use: the rest may be either that which is left behind by itself or that which is set apart as a distinct portion: the remainder, remnant, and residue are the quantities which remain when the other parts are gone. The rest is said of any part indefinitely without regard to what has been taken or is gone;

A last farewell!

For since a last must come, the rest are vain, Like gasps in death which but prolong our pain. DRYDEN.

But the remainder commonly regards the part which has been left after a part has been taken: 'If he to whom ten talents have been committed, has squandered away five, he is concerned to make a double improvement of the remainder.'-Rooks. A person may be said to sell some and give away the rest: when a number of hearty persons sit down to a meal, the remainder of the provisions, after all have been satisfied, will not be considerable. Rest is applied either to persons or things; remainder only to things; some were of that opinion, but the rest did not agree to it: the remainder of the paper was not worth preserving. Remaant, from remances in Latin, is a species of remainder, applicable in the proper sense only to cloth or whatever remains unsold out of whole pieces: as a remnant of cotton, liner, and the like; but it may be taken figuratively. Residue is another species of remainder, employed in less familiar matters; the remainder is applied to that which remains after a consumption or removal has taken place: the residue is applied to that which remains after a division has taken place: hence we speak of the remainder of the corn, the remainder of the books, and the like: but the residue of the property, the residue of the effects, and the like. 'The remainder, remnant, and residue may all be applied either to moral or less familiar objects with a similar distinction; 'Whatever you take from amusements or indo

lence will be repaid you a hundred fold for all the re- | in specifick cases: sin and misery follow each other as mainder of your days.'-CHATHAM. For this, far distant from the Latian coast,

She drove the remnant of the Trojan hos DRYDEN. The rising deluge is not stopp'd with dams,

But wisely managed, its divided strength Is stuiced in channels, and securely drained; And while its force is spent, and unsupply'd, The residue, with mounds may be restrain'd. SHAKSPEARE.

TO SUBSIDE, ABATE, INTERMIT.

A settlement after agitation is the peculiar meaning of subside, from the Latin sub and sedeo, signifying to settle to the bottom. That which has been put into commotion subsides; heavy particles subside in a fluid that is at rest, and tumults are said to subside; 'It was not long before this joy subsided in the remembrance of that dignity from which I had fallen.'-HAWKES-A diminution of strength characterizes the WORTH. meaning of abate, which, from the French abattre, signifies to come down in quantity: that which has been high in action may abate; the rain abates after it has been heavy; and a man's anger abates;

But first to heav'n thy due devotions pay, And annual gifts on Ceres' altar lay, When winter's rage abates.—DRYDEN.

Alternate action and rest is implied in the word inter mit, from the Latin inter between, and mitto to put, signifying to leave a space or interval of rest between labour or action; 'Certain Indians, when a horse is running in his full career, leap down, gather any thing from the ground, and immediately leap up again, the horse not intermetting his course.'—WILKINS.

TO FOLLOW, SUCCEED, ENSUE.

Follow comes probably through the medium of the northern languages from the Greek δλκός a trace, or ξλκω to draw; succeed, in Latin succedo, compounded of sub and cedo to walk after; ensue, in French ensuivre, Latin insequor, signifies to follow close upon the back or at the heels.

Follow and succeed are said of persons and things ; ensue of things only: follow denotes the going in order, in a trace or line; succeed denotes the going or being in the same place immediately after another; many persons may follow each other at the same time; but only one individual properly succeeds another. Follow is taken literally for the motion of one physical body in relation to another, succeed is taken in the moral sense for taking the situation or office of another: people follow each other in a procession, or one follows and ther to the grave; a king succeeds to a throne, or a son

succeeds to the inheritance of his father.

To follow in relation to things is said either simply of the order in which they go, or of such as go according to a connexion between them; to succeed implies simply to take the place after another; to ensue is to follow by a necessary connexion: people who die quickly one after the other are said to follow each other to the grave; a youth of debauchery is followed by a diseased old age; 'If a man of a good genius for fable were to represent the nature of pleasure and pain in that way of writing, he would probably join them together after such a manner that it would be impossible for the one to come into any place without being followed by the other.'—Addison. As in a natural tempest one wave of the sea follows another in rapid succession, so in the moral tempest of political revolutions one mad convulsion is quickly succeeded by another;

Ulvsses hastens with a trembling heart. Before him steps, and bending draws the dart: Forth flows the blood; an eager pang succeeds. Tydides mounts, and to the navy speeds .-- POPE.

Nothing can ensue from popular commotions but bloodshed and misery ;

Nor deem this day, this battle, all you lose; A day more black, a fate more vile ensues; Impetuous Hector thunders at the wall, The hour, the spot, to conquer or to fall .- POPE.

Follow is used in abstract propositions: ensue is used.

cause and effect; quarrels too often ensue from the conversations of violent men who differ either in religion or politicks.

TO FOLLOW, PURSUE.

The idea of going after any thing in order to reach or obtain it is common to these terms, but under different circumstances: one follows (v. To follow) a person mostly with a friendly intention; one pursues (v. To continue) with a hostile intention: a person follows his fellowt-raveller whom he wishes to overtake

"Now, now," said he, "my son, no more delay, I yield, I follow where Heav'n shows the way." DRYDEN.

The officers of justice pursue the criminal whom they wish to apprehend;

The same Rutilians who with arms pursue

The Trojan race are equal foes to you .- DRYDEN. So likewise the huntsmen and hunters follow the dogs in the chase; the dogs pursue the hare. In application to things, follow is taken more in the passive, and pursue more in the active sense: a man follows the plan of another, and pursues his own plan; he follows his inclination, and pursues an object; 'The felteny is inclination, and pursues an object; 'The felteny is when any one is so happy as to find out and follow what is the proper bent of his genius.'—STELLE.

Look round the habitual world, how few Know their own good, or, knowing it, pursue. DRYDEN.

HUNT, CHASE.

The leading idea in the word hunt is that of searching after; the leading idea in the word chase is that of driving away, or before one. In the strict sense, the thriting away, or before one. In the strict sense, the hunt is made for objects not within sight; the chase is made after such objects only as are within sight: we may hunt, therefore, without chasing; we may chase without hunting; a person hunts after, but does not chase, that which is lost; a boy chases, rather than hunts a hunting! hunts a butterfly;

Come hither, boy! we 'll hunt to-day The bookworm, ravening beast of prey PARNELL.

Greatness of mind and fortune too Th' Olympic trophies show; Both their several parts must do In the noble chase of fame .-- Cowley,

When applied to field sports, the hunt commences as soon as the huntsman begins to look for the game; the soon as the nunisman begins to rook for the game, the chase commences as soon as it is found; on this ground, perhaps it is, that hant is used in familiar discourse, to designate the specifick act of taking this annusment; and chase is used only in particular cases where the peculiar idea is to be expressed; a fox hunt, or a stag period of the control of the contr hunt, is said to take place on a particular day; or that there has been no hunting this season, or that the hunt has been very bad: but we speak, on the other hand, of the pleasures of the chase: or say that the chase lasted very long; the animal gave a long chase.

FOREST, CHASE, PARK,

* Are all habitations for animals of venery: but the *Are an national or animals of venery: but the forest is of the fairest magnitude and importance, it being a franchise and the property of the king; the chase and park may be either publick or private property. The forest is so formed of wood, and covers such an extent of ground, that it may be the haunt of wild beasts; of this description are the forests in Germany: the chase is an indefinite and open space that is allotted expressly for the chase of particular animals, such as deer; the park is an enclosed space that serves for the preservation of domestick animals.

SUCCESSION, SERIES, ORDER.

Succession signifies the act or state of succeeding (v. To follow); series, (v. Series); order (v. To place).
Succession (v. To follow) is a matter of necessity or casualty: things succeed each other, or they are taken

Vide Trusler: "Forest, chase, park."

in succession either arbitrarily or by design: the series 1 In succession either aroutanty of by design, the series (r. Series) is a connected succession; the order is the ordered or arranged succession. We observe the succession of events as a matter of curiosity; 'We can conceive of time only by the succession of ideas one to another.'—HAWKESWORTH. We trace the series of events as a matter of intelligence; 'A number of distinct fables may contain all the topicks of moral instruction; yet each must be remembered by a distinct effort of the mind, and will not recur in a series, because they have no connexion with each other.— HAWRESWORTH. We follow the order which the historian has pursued as a matter of judgement; 'In all verse, however familiar and easy, the words are necessarily thrown out of the order in which they are commonly used. HAWKESWORTH. The succession The succession may be slow or quick; the series may be long or short; The present order may be correct or incorrect. age has afforded a quick succession of events, and presented us with a series of atrocious attempts to disturb the peace of society under the name of liberty. The historian of these times needs only pursue the order which the events themselves point out.

SUCCESSIVE, ALTERNATE

What is successive follows directly: what is alternate follows indirectly. A minister preaches successively who preaches every Sunday uninterruptedly at the same hour; but he preaches alternately if he preaches on one Sunday in the morning, and the other Sunday in the afternoon at the same place. The successive may be accidental or intentional; the alternate is mostly intentional: it may rain for three successive days, or a fair may be held for three successive days: Think of a hundred solitary streams peacefully gliding between amazing cliffs on one side and rich meadows on the other, gradually swelling into noble rivers, successively losing themselves in each other, and all at length terminating in the harbour of Plymouth.'— Grbbon. Trees are placed sometimes in alternate order, when every other tree is of the same size and kind; 'Suffer me to point out one great essential towards acquiring facility in composition; viz. the writing alternately in different measures.' -- SEWARD.

NATURALLY, IN COURSE, CONSEQUENTLY, OF COURSE.

The connexion between events, actions, and things, is expressed by all these terms. Naturally signifies according to the nature of things, and applies therefore to the connexion which subsists between events according to the original constitution or inherent properties of things: in course signifies in the course of things, that is, in the regular order that things ought to follow: consequently signifies by a consequence, that is, by a necessary law of dependence, which makes one thing follow another: of course signifies on account of the course which things most commonly or even necessarily take. Whatever happens naturally, happens as we expect it; whatever happens in course, happens as we expert it; whatever follows consequently, follows as we judge it right; whatever follows of course, follows as we see it necessarily. Children naturally imitate their parents: people naturally fall into the habits of those they associate with: both these circumstances result from the nature of things: who ever is made a peer of the realm, takes his seat in the upper house in course; he requires no ether qualifica-tion to entitle him to this privilege, he goes thither according to the established course of things; consequently, as a peer, he is admitted without question; this is a decision of the judgement by which the question is at once determined: of course none are admitted who are not peers; this flows necessarily out of the constituted law of the land.

Naturally and in course describe things as they are; consequently and of course represent them as they must be; naturally and in course state facts or realities; consequently and of course state the in-ferences drawn from those facts, or consequences resulting from them; a mob is naturally disposed to riot, and consequently it is dangerous to appeal to a mob, for its judgement; the nobility attend at court in course, that is, by virtue of their rapk, soldiers have the town of course at assize or election times, that it, be-

cause the law forbids them to remain. Naturally is opposed to the artificial or forced; in course is opposed to the irregular: naturally excludes the idea of design or purpose; in course includes the idea of arrangement and social order: the former is applicable to every thing that has an independent existence; the latter is applied to the constituted order of society: the former is, therefore, said of every object, animate or inaniis, therefore, said of every bodies, and performing natural properties, and performing natural operations; the latter only of persons and their establishment. Plants that require much air naturally thrive most in an open country; 'Egotists are generally the vain and shallow part of mankind; people being naturally full of themselves when they have nothing else in them.'—Addison. Members of a society, who do not forfeit their title by the breach of any rule or law, are readmitted in course, after ever so long an absence; 'Our Lord foresaw, that all the Mosaic orders would cease in course upon his death.'- BEVERIDGE.

Consequently is either a speculative or a practical inference; of course is always practical. We know that all men must die, and consequently we expect to share the common lot of humanity: we see that our friends are particularly engaged at a certain time; consequently we do not interrupt them by calling upon 'The forty-seventh proposition of the first book of Euclid is the foundation of trigonometry, and book of Eucha is the foundation of trigonometry, and consequently of navigation.'—BARTLETT. When a man does not fulfil his engagements, he cannot of course expect to be rewarded, as if he had done his duty; 'What do trust and confidence signify in a matter of course and formality?—STILLINGFLEET. In course applies to what one does or may do; of course applies to what one must do or leave undone. Children take possession of their patrimony in course at the death of their parents: while the parents are living, children of course derive support or assistance from them.

SUBSEQUENT, CONSEQUENT, POSTERIOUR

Subsequent, in Latin subsequens, from sub and sequer. signifies following next in order; consequent, in Latin consequens, from con and sequor, i. e. following in connexion; posteriour, from postea afterward, signifies literally that which is after.

These terms are all applied to events as they follow one another, but subsequent and consequent respect the order of events. Subsequent simply denotes this order without any collateral idea: one event is said to be subsequent to another at any given time; 'This article is introduced as subsequent to the treaty of Munster, made about 1648, when England was in the utmost confusion.'—Swift. Consequent denotes the connexion between two events, one of which follows the other as the effect of a cause; 'This satisfaction or dissatisfaction, consequent upon a man's acting suitably or unsuitably to conscience, is a principle not easily to be worn out.'-South. Posteriour respects easily to be worth out soften as posteriour to Homer: and also the place of things; 'Where the anteriour body giveth way as fast as the posteriour cometh on, it maketh no noise, be the motion never so great. BACON.

ANTECEDENT, PRECEDING, FOREGOING, PREVIOUS ANTERIOUR, PRIOR, FORMER.

Antecedent, in Latin antecedens, that is, ante and Intecedent, in Latin anicceaens, that is, anic and cedens going before; preceding, in Latin pracedens going before; foregoing, literally going before; previous, in Latin pracius, that is, praced and making a way before; anicriour, the comparative of the Latin ante before; prior, in Latin prior, comparative of primus first; former, in English the comparative of

Antecedent, preceding, foregoing, previous, are employed for what goes or happens before; anteriour,

employed for what goes or happens before, antercour, prior, former, for what is, or exists before.

* Antecedent marks priority of order, place, and position, with this peculiar circumstance, that it denotes the relation of influence, dependence and connexion established between two objects: thus, in logic the premises are called the antecedent, and the conclu-

* Vide Roubaud: "Antérieur, antécédent, précédent "

sion the consequent; in theology or politicks, the ansoon me consequent, in meaning or process, me are tecedent is any decree or resolution which influences another decree or action; in mathematicks, it is that term from which any induction can be drawn to another; in grammar, the antecedent is that which requires a particular regimen from its consequent.

Antecedent and preceding both denote priority of vine, or the order of events; but the former in a more vague and indeterminate manner than the latter. preceding event is that which happens immediately before the one of which we are speaking; whereas antecedent may have events or circumstances intervening; 'The seventeen centuries since the birth of Christ are antecedent to the eighteenth, or the one we live in; but it is the seventeenth only which we call the preceding one.'—TRUSLER. 'Little attention was paid to literature by the Romans in the early and more martial ages. I read of no collections of books antecedent to those made by Æmilius Paulus, and Lu-culius.'—Cumberland. 'Letters from Rome, dated the thirteenth instant, say, that on the preceding Sunday, his Holiness was carried in an open chair from St. Peter's to St. Mary's.'—STRELE. An ante-cedent proposition, may be separated from its consecedent proposition may be separated from its consequent by other propositions; but a preceding proposition is closely followed by another. In this sense antecedent is opposed to posteriour; preceding to succeeding.

Preceding respects simply the succession of times and things; but previous denotes the succession of actions and events, with the collateral idea of their connexion with and influence upon each other: we speak of the preceding day, or the preceding chapter, merely as the day or chapter that goes before; but when we speak of a previous engagement or a previous inquiry, it supposes an engagement or inquiry preparatory to something that is to follow. Previous is op-

posed to subsequent;

A boding silence reigns Dead through the dun expanse, save the dull sound That from the mountain, previous to the storm, Rolls o'er the muttering earth .- THOMSON.

Foregoing is employed to mark the order of things Foregoing is employed to mark the order of things narrated or stated; as when we speak of the foregoing statement, the foregoing objections, or the foregoing calculation, &c.c.; foregoing is opposed to following; 'Consistently with the foregoing principles we may define original and native poetry to be the language of the violent passions, expressed in exact measure.'—Sir W. Jones.

Anteriour, prior, and former have all a relative sense, and are used for things that are more before than others: anteriour is a technical term to denote forwardness of position, as in anatomy; the anteriour or fore part of the skull, in contradistinction to the hind part; so likewise the anteriour or fore front of a building, in opposition to the back front; 'It' that be the anteriour or upper part wherein the senses are placed, and that the posteriour and lower part, which placed, and that the posterious and over part, which is opposite thereunto, there is no inferiour or former part in this animal; for the senses being placed at both extremes make both ends anteriour, which is impossible.'—Brown. Prior is used in the sense of provious when speaking of comparatively two or more things, when it implies anticipation; a prior claim invalidates the one that is set up; a prior engagement prevents the forming of any other that is proposed; Some accounts make Thamyris the eighth epick poet prior to Homer, an authority to which no credit seems prior to fromer, an authority to which no creat seems due."—CUMBERLAND. Former is employed either with regard to times, as former times, in contradistinction to later periods, or with regard to propositions, when the former or first thing mentioned is opposed to the latter or last mentioned; 'Former follies pass away and are forgotten. Those which are present strike observation and sharpen censure.'-BLAIR.

PRIORITY, PRECEDENCE, PRE-EMINENCE. PREFERENCE.

Priority denotes the abstract quality of being before others; precedence, from præ and cedo, signifies the state of going before; pre-eminence signifies being more eminent or elevated than others; preference signifies being put before others. Priority respects simply the order of succession, and is applied to objects either in a state of motion or rest; precedence signifies priority in going,

and depends upon a right or privilege; pre-eminence signifies priority in being, and depends upon merit, preference signifies priority in placing, and depends upon favour. The *priority* is applicable rather to the thing than the person; it is not that which is sought for, but that which is to be had: age frequently gives for, but that which is to be had: age frequently gives priority where every other claim is wanting; 'A better place, a more commodious seat, priority in being helped at table, &c., what is it but sacrificing ourselves in such trifles to the convenience and pleasures of others?

—EARL CRATHAM. The immoderate desire for precedence is often nothing but a childish vanity; it is a distinction that flows out of rank and power: a nobleman claims a precedence of all occasions of expressions. man claims a precedence on all occasions of ceremony Ranks will then (in the next world) be adjusted, and precedency set aright. — Addison. The love of preeminence is laudable, inasmuch as it requires a degree of moral worth which exceeds that of others; a general aims at pre-eminence in his profession; 'It is the con-cern of mankind, that the destruction of order snould not be a claim to rank: that crimes should not be the only title to pre-eminence and honour.'-BURKE. Those who are anxious to obtain the best for themselves, are eager to have the preference: we seek for the preference in matters of choice; 'You will agree with me in giving the preference to a sincere and sen sible friend. -GIBBON.

TO EXCEED, SURPASS, EXCEL, TRANSCEND, OUTDO.

Exceed, from the Latin excede, compounded of ex and cedo to pass out of, or beyond the line, is the general term. Surpass, compounded of sur over, and pass, is one species of exceeding. Excel, compounded of ex and cello to lift, or move over, is another species.

species.

Exceed, in its limited acceptation, conveys no idea of moral desert; surpass and excel are always taken in a good sense. It is not so much persons as things which exceed; both persons and things surpass; persons only excel. One thing exceeds another, as the success of an undertaking exceeds the expectations of the undertaker, or a man's exertions exceed his strength;

Man's boundless avarice exceeds,

And on his neighbours round about him feeds.

One person surpasses another, as the English have surpassed all other nations in the extent of their naval power; or one thing surpasses another, as poetry surpasses painting in its effects on the imagination; Dryden often surpasses expectation, and Pope never falls below it.'—Johnson. One person excels an-One person excels another; thus formerly the Dutch and Italians excelled the English in painting;

To him the king: How much thy years excel In arts of counsel, and in speaking well.—Pope.

We may surpass without any direct or immediate effort; we cannot excel without effort. Nations as well as individuals will surpass each other in particu lar arts and sciences, as much from local and titious circumstances, as from natural genius and steady application; no one can expect to excel in learning, whose indolence gets the better of his ambition. The derivatives excessive and excellent have this obvious distinction between them, that the former always signifies exceeding in that which ought not to be exceeded. and the latter exceeding in that where it is honourable to exceed; he who is habitually excessive in any of his indulgencies, must be insensible to the excellence of a temperate life.

Transcend, from trans beyond, and scendo or scando to climb, signifies climbing beyond; and outdo signifies doing out of the ordinary course: the former, like surpass, refers rather to the state of things and outdo, like excel, to the exertions of persons: the former rises in sense above surpass; but the latter is only employed in particular cases, that is, to excel in action: excel is however confined to that which is good; outdo to that which is good or bad. The genius of Homer transcends that of almost every other poet;

Auspicious prince, in arms a mighty name But yet whose actions far transcend your fame. DRYDEN.

Heliogabalus outdid every other emperor in extrava

EXCELLENCE, SUPERIORITY.

Excellence is an absolute term; superiority is a relative term: many may have excellence in the same degree, but they must have superiority in different de-grees; superiority is often superious excellence, but in many cas s they are applied to different objects.

There is a moral excellence attainable by all who

have the will to strive after it;

Base envy withers at another's joy, And hates that excellence it cannot reach. THOMSON.

There is an intellectual and physical superiority which is above the reach of our wishes, and is granted to a few only; 'To be able to benefit others is a condition of freedom and superiority.'-TILLOTSON-

PRIMARY, PRIMITIVE, PRISTINE, ORIGINAL

Primary, from primus, signifies belonging to or like the first; primitive, from the same, signifies according to the first; pristine, in Latin pristinus, from prius, signifies in former times; original signifies containing

the origin.

The primary denotes simply the order of succession. and is therefore the generick term; primitive, pristine, and original include also the idea of some other relation to the thing that succeeds, and are therefore modes of the primary. The primary has nothing to mones of the premary. The premary has nothing to come before it; in this manner we speak of the primary cause as the cause which precedes secondary causes: the primitive is that after which other things are formed; in this manner a primitive word is that after which, or from which, the derivatives are formed: the pristine is that which follows the primitive, so as to become customary; there are but few specimens of the pristine purity of life among the professors of Christianity: the original is that which either gives birth to the thing or belongs to that which gives birth to the thing; the original meaning of a word is that which was given to it by the makers of the word. The primary subject of consideration is that which should precede all others; 'Memory is the primary and fundamental power, without which there could be no other intellectual operation."—Johnson. The primitive state of society is that which was formed without a model, but might serve as a model;

Meanwhile our primitive great sire to meet His godlike guest walks forth.—Milton.

The pristine simplicity of manners may serve as a just pattern for the imitation of present times;

While with her friendly clay he deign'd to dwell, Shall she with safety reach her pristine seat.

The original state of things is that which is coeval with the things themselves, 'As to the share of power each individual ought to have in the state, that I must deny to se among the direct original rights of man.

SECOND, SECONDARY, INFERIOUR.

Second and secondary both come from the Latin secundus, changed from sequendus and sequer to follow, signifying the order of succession. The former simply expresses this order; but the latter includes the accessory idea of comparative demerit; a person stands second in a list, or a letter is second which immediately succeeds the first;

Fond, foolish man! With fear of death surpris'd, Which either should be wish'd for or despis'd; This, if our souls with bodies death destroy, That, if our souls a second life enjoy .- DENHAM.

A consideration is secondary, or of secondary importance, which is opposed to that which holds the first rank; 'Many, instead of endeavouring to form their own opinions, content themselves with the secondary knowledge which a convenient bench in a coffee-house

gance; 'The last and crowning instance of our love to our enemies is to pray for them. For by this a man would fain to outdo himself.'—South.

can supply.'—Johnson. Secondary and inferiour both designate some lower degree of a quality: but secondary is only applied to the importance or value of things; inferiour is applied generally to all qualities: a man of business reckons every thing as secondary which does not forward the object he has in view; Wheresoever there is moral right on the one hand, no secondary right can discharge it.'-L'ESTRANGE. Men of inferiour abilities are disqualified by nature for high and important stations, although they may be more fitted for lower stations than those of greater abilities:

> Hast thou not made me here thy substitute, And these inferiour far beneath me set? MILTON.

Sometimes second is taken in the sense of inferiour when applied to any particular object compared with another: Who am alone

From all eternity; for none I know Second to me, or like.—Milton.

THEREFORE, CONSEQUENTLY, ACCORDINGLY.

Therefore, that is, for this reason, marks a deduction; consequently, that is, in consequence, marks a consequence; accordingly, that is, according to some thing, implies an agreement or adaptation. Therefore is employed particularly in abstract reasoning; consequently is employed either in reasoning or in the narrative style; accordingly is used principally in the narrative style. Young persons are perpetually liable to fall into errour through inexperience; they ought therefore the more willingly to submit themselves to the guidance of those who can direct them; 'If you cut off the top branches of a tree, it will not therefore cease to grow.'-Hughes. The French nation was reduced to a state of moral anarchy during the revolution; consequently nothing but time and good government could bring the people back to the use of their sober senses; 'Reputation is power; consequently to despise is to weaken.'—South. Every preparation was made, and every precaution was taken; accordingly at the fixed hour they proceeded to the place of destination; 'The pathetick, as Longinus observes, may animate the sublime; but is not essential to it. Accordingly, as he further remarks, we very often find that those who excel most in stirring up the passions, very often want the talent of writing in the sublime manner.'-Addison.

PREVIOUS, PRELIMINARY, PREPARATORY, INTRODUCTORY.

Previous, in Latin pravius, compounded of pra and via, signifies leading the way or going before; preliminary, from præ and limen a threshold, signifies be-longing to the threshold or entrance; preparatory and introductory signify belonging to a preparation or in-

Previous denotes simply the order of succession: the other terms, in addition to this, convey the idea of con-nexion between the objects which succeed each other. Previous applies to actions and proceedings in general; determination: One step by which a temptation apdetermination; One step by which a temptation approaches to its crisis is a previous growing familiarity of the mind with the sin which a man is tempted to.'-SOUTH. Preliminary is employed only for matters of contract; a preliminary article, a preliminary condition, are what precede the final settlement of any question; 'I have discussed the maptial preliminaries so often, that I can repeat the forms in which jointures are settled and pin-money secured.'—Johnson. Preparatory is employed for matters of arrangements; the disposing of men in battle is preparatory to an engagement; the making of marriage deeds and contracts is preparatory to the final solemnization of the marriage: Æschylus is in the practice of holding the spectator in suspense by a preparatory silence in his chief person. -CUMBERLAND. Introductory is employed for matters of science or discussion; as remarks are introductory to the main subject in question; compendiums of grammar, geography, and the like, as introductory to larger works, are useful for young people; 'Consider your selves as acting now, under the eye of God, an introductory part to a more important scene.\(^{1}\)—BLAIR. Prudent people are careful to make every previous inquiry before they scriously enter into engagements with strangers; it is importick to enter into details until all preliminary matters are fiely adjusted; one ought never to undertake any important matter without first adopting every preparatory measure that can facilitate its prosecution; in complicated matters it is necessary to have something introductory by way of explanation,

SERIES, COURSE.

Series, which is also series in Latin, comes from sero or necto to knit together, and the Greek σερφ a chain, and signifies the order and connexion, in which things follow each other; course, in Latin cursus, from the verb curro, signifies here the direction in which things run one after another.

There is always a course where there is a series, but not vice versa. Things must have some sort of connexion with each other in order to form a series, but they need simply to follow in order to form a course; thus a series of events, on the contrary, respects those which flow out of each other, a course of events, on the contrary, respects those which happen unconnectedly within a certain space: so in like manner, the numbers of a book, which serve to form a whole, are a series; and a number of lectures following each other at a given time are a course: hence, likewise, the technical phrase infinite series in algebra.

COURSE, RACE, PASSAGE.

Course, from curro to run, signifies either the act of running, or the space run over; race, from run, signifies the same; passage, from to pass, signifies either the act of passing or the space passed over.

act of passing or the space passed over.

With regard to the act of going, course is taken absolutely and indefinitely; race relates to the object for which we run; passage relates to the place passed over: thus a person may be swift in course, obtain a race, and have an easy passage;

Him neither rocks can crush, nor steel can wound When Ajax fell not on th' ensanguined ground; In standing fight he mates Achilles' force, Excell'd alone in swiftness in the course.—POPE.

Unhappy man whose death our hands shall grace, Fate calls thee hence, and finish'd is thy race.

Between his shoulders pierced the following dart, And held its passage through the panting heart.

We pursue whatever course we think proper: we run the race that is set before us. Course is taken absolutely by itself; race is considered in relation to others: a man pursues a certain course according to discretion; he runs a race with another by way of competition. Course has a more particular reference to the space that is gone over; race includes in it more particularly the idea of the mode of going: we speak of going in, or pursuing a particular course; but always of running a race,

Course is as often used in the improper as the proper sense; race is seldom used figuratively, except in a spiritual application: man's success and respectability in life depend much upon the course of moral conduct which he pursues:

So Mars omnipotent invades the plain (The wide destroyer of the race of man);
Terrour, his best loved son, attends his cour.

Terrour, his best loved son, attends his course, Arm'd with stern boldness, and enormous force.

The Christian's course in this world is represented in Scripture as a race which is set before him;

Remote from towns he ran his godly race, Nor e'er had changed, nor wish'd to change, his place. Goldsmith.

Course may be used in connexion with the object passed over or not; passage is seldom employed but in the direct connexion; we speak of a person's course in a place, or simply of his course; but we always speak of a person's passage through a place;

Direct against which open'd from beneath, Just o'er the blissful seat of paradise, A passage down to earth, a passage wide.

Course and passage are used for inanimate, as well as animate objects; race is used for those only which are animate: a river has its course, and sometimes it is a dangerous passage for vessels; the horse or man runs the race.

WAY, ROAD, ROUT OR ROUTE, COURSE.

Way has the same signification as given under the head of way; road comes no doubt from ride, signifying the place where due rides; route or rout comes in all probability from rotundus round, signifying the round which one goes; course, from the Latin cursus, signifies the place where one walks or runs. Way is here the generick term; it is the path which a person chooses at pleasure for himself;

He stood in the gate, and asked of ev'ry one
Which way she took, and whither she was gone.
DRYDEN.

The road is the regular and beaten roay, whether taken in a proper or improper sense; 'At our first sally into the intellectual world, we all march together along one straight and open road.'—JOHNSON. The route is any roay or road chosen for a particular purpose, either of pleasure or business. An army or a company go a certain route; 'Cortes (after his defeat at Mexico) was engaged in deep consultation with his officers concerning the roate which they ought to take in their retreat.'—Rodertson. The course is chosen in the unbeaten track: foot passengers are seen to take a certain course over fields;

Then to the stream when neither friends nor force, Nor speed, nor art avail, he shapes his course.

DENHAM.

WAY, MANNER, METHOD, MODE, COURSE, MEANS.

All these words denote the steps which are pursued from the beginning to the completion of any work.

The way is both general and indefinite; it is either taken by accident or chosen by design. Whoever attempts to do that which is strange to him, will at first do it in an awkward way; 'His way of expressing and applying them, not his invention of them we must admire.'—ADDISON. The manner and the method are both species of the way. The manner is that which a person chooses for a particular occasion; the manner of conferring a favour is often more than the favour itself; ' My mind is taken up in a more melancholy manner.'-ATTEREURY. The method is that which a person conceives in his own mind; experience supplies men in the end with a suitable method of carrying on their business. The method is said of that which requires contrivance; the mode, of that which requires practice and habitual attention; the former being applied to matters of art, and the latter to mechanical actions: the master has a good method of teaching to write; the scholar has a good or bad mode of holding his pen; 'Modes of speech, which owe their prevalence to modish folly, die away with their inventors.'—Johnson. The course and the means are the way which we pursue in our moral conduct: the course is the course of measures which are adopted to produce a certain result; 'All your sophisters cannot produce any thing better adapted to preserve a rational and manly freedom than the course that we have pursued.'—BURKE. The means collectively for the course which lead to a certain end; 'The most wonderful things are brought about in many instances by means the most absurd and ridiculous." In order to obtain legal redress, we must pursue a certain course in law; law is one means of gaining redress, which must be adopted when all other means fail

SYSTEM, METHOD.

System, in Latin systema, Greek σὺς ημα, from συνίς ημα or σὸν and ἔς ημι to stand together, signifies that which is put together so as to form a whole; method, in Latin methodus, from the Greek μετά and δόδς a way, signifies by distinction the way by which any thing is effected

System expresses more than method, which is but a part of system: system is an arrangement of many single or individual objects according to some given rule, so as to make them coalesce. Method is the manner of this arrangement, or the principle upon which this arrangement takes place. The term system however applies to a complexity of objects, but arrangement, and consequently method, may be applied to every thing that is to be put into execution. All sciences must be reduced to system; for without system there is no science :

If a better system's thine,

Impart it frankly, or make use of mine .- FRANCIS. All business requires method; and without method little can be done to any good purpose, 'The great defect of the Seasons is the want of method, but for this I know not that there was any remedy.'-Johnson.

ORDER, METHOD, RULE.

Order is applied in general to every thing that is disposed (v. To dispose); method (v. System) and rule (v. Guide) are applied only to that which is done; the order lies in consulting the time, the place, and the object, so as to make them accord; the method consists in the right choice of means to an end; the rule consists in that which will keep us in the right way. Where there is a number of objects there must be order in the disposition of them: there must be order in a school as to the arrangement both of the pupils and of the busi-ness: where there is work to carry on, or any object to obtain, or any art to follow, there must be method in the pursuit; a tradesman or merchant must have method in keeping his accounts; a teacher must have a method for the communication of instruction; 'It will be in vain to talk to you concerning the method I think best to be observed in schools.'—Locks. The rule is the part of the method; it is that on which the method rests; there cannot be method without rule, but there may be rule without method; the method varies with the thing that is to be done; the rule is that which is permanent and serves as a guide under We adopt the method and follow all circumstances. the rule. A painter adopts a certain method of pre paring his colours according to the rules laid down by his art; 'A rule that relates even to the smallest part of our life, is of great benefit to us, merely as it is a rule.'-LAW.

Order is said of every complicated machine, either of a physical or a moral kind: the order of the universe, by which every part is made to harmonize to the other part, and all individually to the whole collectively, is that which constitutes its principal beauty as rational beings we aim at introducing the same order into the moral scheme of society: order is therefore that which is founded upon the nature of things. and seems in its extensive sense to comprehend all the rest; 'The order and method of nature is generally very different from our measures and proportions. BURKE. Method is the work of the understanding, mostly as it is employed in the mechanical proces sometimes, however, as respects intellectual objects rule is said either as it respects mechanical and physical actions or moral conduct.

The order of society is preserved by means of go vernment, or authority: laws or rules are employed by authority as instruments in the preservation of order: no work should be performed, whether it be the building a house, or the writing a book, without method; this method will be more or less correct, as it

is formed according to definite rules.

The term rule is, however, as before observed, employed distinctly from either order or method, for it applies to the moral conduct of the individual. The Christian religion contains rules for the guidance of our conduct in all the relations of human society:

Their story I revolv'd; and reverent own'd Their polish'd arts of rule, their human virtues MALLET.

As epithets, orderly, methodical, and regular, are applied to persons and even to things, according to the above distinction of the nouns: an orderly man, or an erderly society, is one that adheres to the established erder of things: the former in his domestick habits. the latter in their publick capacity, their social meetings, and their social measures;

Then to their dams Lets in their young, and wondrous orderly, With manly haste, dispatch this house wifery. CHAPMAN.

A methodical man is one who adopts methods in all he A methodical main's one who despise methods in an ne-sets about; such a one may sometimes run into the extreme of formality, by being precise where precision is not necessary. We cannot however speak of a methodical society, for method is altogether a personal quality. A man is regular, inasmuch as he follows a certain rule in his moral actions, and thereby pre serves a uniformity of conduct: a regular society is one founded by certain prescribed rules.

A disorderly person in a family discomposes its do mestick economy: a man who is disorderly in his business throws everything into confusion. It is of peculiar importance for a person to be methodical who has the superintendence of other people's labour: much time is lost and much fruitless trouble occa sioned by the want of method; 'To begin methodically, I should enjoin you travel; for absence doth remove the cause, removing the object.'-Suckling. Regularity of life is of as much more importance than order and method, as a man's durable happiness is of more importance than the happiness of the moment: the orderly and methodical respect only the transitory modes of things; but the regular concerns a man both for body and soul; 'He was a mighty lover of regularity and order, and managed his affairs with the ut most exactness.'—ATTERBURY.

These terms are in like manner applied to that which is personal; we say, an orderly proceeding, or an orderly course for what is done in due order: a regular proceeding, or a regular course, which goes on according to a prescribed rule; a methodical grammar, a methodical delineation, and the like, for what is done

according to a given method.

CLASS, ORDER, RANK, DEGREE.

Class, in French classe, Latin classis, very probably from the Greek κλάσις, a fraction, division, or class; order, in French ordre, Latin ordo, comes from the Greek δρχος a row, which is a species of order; rank, in German rang, is connected with row, &c.; degree, in French degré, comes from the Latin gradus a

Class is more general than order; degree is more

specifick than rank.

Class and order are said of the body who are dis-Crass and orear are said of the body with the un-tinguished; rank and degree of the distinction itself; men belong to a certain class or order; they hold a certain rank; they are of a certain degree; among the Romans all the citizens were distinctly divided into classes according to their property; but in the modern constitution of society, classes are distinguished from each other on general, moral, or civil grounds; there are reputable or disreputable classes; the labouring class, the class of merchants, mechanicks, &c.; ' are by our occupations, education, and habits of life, divided almost into different species. Each of these classes of the human race has desires, fears, and com Each of these versation, vexations and merriment, peculiar to itself. -Johnson. Order has a more particular significa-tion; it is founded upon some positive civil privilege or distinction; the general orders are divided into higher, lower, or middle, arising from the unequal distribution of wealth and power; the particular orders are those of the nobility, of the clergy, of freemasonry, and the like; Learning and knowledge are perfections in us, not as we are men, but as we are reasonable creatures, in which order of beings the female world is upon the same level with the male.'—Addison.
Rank distinguishes one individual from another; it is peculiarly applied to the nobility and the gentry: although every man in the community holds a certain rank in relation to those who are above or below him: Young women of humble rank, and small pretensions, should be particularly cautious how a vain ambition of being noticed by their superiours betrays them into an attempt at displaying their unprotected persons on a stage.'—Cumberland. Degree like rank persons on a stage. — Cumbertand. Degree like rank is applicable to the individual, but only in particular cases; literary and scientifick degrees are conferred upon superiour merit in different departments of science; there are likewise degrees in the same rank whence we speak of men of high and low degree;

Then learn, ye fair! to soften splendour's ray, Endure the swain, the youth of low degree.

SHENSTONE.

During the French revolution the most worthless class. from all orders, obtained the supremacy only to deerroy all rank and degree, and sacrifice such as pos-sessed any wealth, power, rank, or degree.

TO CLASS, ARRANGE, RANGE.

To class, from the noun class, signifies to put in a class; arrange and range are both derived from the word rank, signifying to put in a certain rank or

The general qualities and attributes of things are to be considered in classing; their fitness to stand by each other must be considered in arranging them; their capacity for forming a line is the only thing to be

attended to in ranging them.

Classification serves the purposes of science; arrangement those of decoration and ornament; ranging those of general convenience; men are classed into different bodies, according to some certain standard of property, power, education, occupation, &c.; 'We are all ranked and classed by him who seeth into every heart.'—Blair. Furniture is arranged in a room according as it answers either in colour, shade, convenience of situation, &c.; 'In vain you attempt to regulate your expense, if into your amusements, or your society, disorder has crept. You have admitted a principle of confusion which will defeat all your plans, principle of control wind deteat an your plans, and perplex and entangle what you sought to arrange?

—Blair. Men are ranged in order whenever they make a procession, or our ideas are ranged in the mind; 'A noble writer should be born with this faculty, (a strong imagination) so as to be well able to receive lively ideas from outward objects, to retain them long, and to range them together in such figures and representations as are most likely to hit the fancy of the reader.'—Addison. Classification is concerned with mental objects; arrangement with either physical or mental objects; ranging mostly with physical objects: knowledge, experience, and judgement are requisite in classing; taste and practice are indispensable in arranging; care only is wanted in ranging. When applied to spiritual objects, arrangement is the ordinary operation of the mind, requiring only methodical habits: classification is a branch of philosophy which is not attainable by art only; it requires a mind peculiarly methodical by nature, that is capable of distinguishing things by their generick and specifick differences; not separating things that are alike; nor them long, and to range them together in such figures differences; not separating things that are alike; nor blending things that are different: books are classed in a catalogue according to their contents; they are arranged in a shop according to their size or price; they are ranged on a counter for convenience: ideas are classed by the logician into simple and complex, abstract and concrete: they are arranged by the power of reflection in the mind of the thinker: words are classed by the grammarian into different parts of speech; they are suitably arranged by the writer in different parts of a sentence; a man of business arranges his affairs so as to suit the time and season for every thing; a shopkeeper arranges his goods so as to have a place for every thing, and to know its place; he ranges those things before him, of which he wishes to command a view: a general arranges his men for the battle; a drill sergeant ranges his men when he makes them exercise.

TO DISPOSE, ARRANGE, DIGEST.

To dispose signifies the same here as in the preceding article; to arrange, from ar or ad and range is to put in a certain range or order; to digest, in Latin diput in a certain range or order; to argest, in hadin argestus, participle of digero or dis and gero, signifies to gather apart with design.

The idea of a systematick laying apart is common to all and proper to the word dispose.

We dispose when we arrange and digest; but we dispose the apart digest when we dispose.

do not always arrange and digest when we dispose: they differ in the circumstances and object of the ac-There is less thought employed in disposing than in arranging and digesting; we may dispose or dinary matters by simply assigning a place to each; in this manner trees are disposed in a row, but we ar-ange and digest by an intellectual effort; in the first

case by putting those together which ought to go together; and in the latter case by both separating that which is dissimilar, and bringing together that which is similar; in this manner books are arranged in a library according to their size or their subject; the materials for a literary production are digested; or the laws of the land are digested. What is not wanted should be neatly disposed in a suitable place;

Then near the altar of the darting king, Dispos'd in rank their hecatomb they bring.

Nothing contributes so much to beauty and convenience as the arrangement of every thing according to the way and manner in which they should follow; 'There is a proper arrangement of the parts in elastick bodies, which may be facilitated by use.'—CHEYNE. bonnes, which may be tachitated by use.—LEANS. When writings are involved in great intricacy and confusion, it is difficult to digest them; 'The marks and impressions of disenses, and the changes and devastations they bring upon the internal parts, should be very carefully examined and orderly digested in the comparative anatomy we speak of ?—Bacos.

In an extended and moral application of these words,

we speak of a person's time, talent, and the like, being

disposed to a good purpose;

Thus while she did her various power dispose, The world was free from tyrants, wars, and woes. PRIOR.

We speak of a man's ideas being properly arranged, 'When a number of distinct images are collected by these erratick and hasty surveys, the fancy is busied in arranging them.'—Johnson. We speak of a work being digested into a form;

Chosen friends, with sense refin'd Learning digested well.-Thomson.

On the disposition of a man's time and property will depend in a great measure his success in life; on the arrangement of accounts greatly depends his facility in conducting business; on the habit of digesting our thoughts depends in a great measure the correctness of thinking.

DISPOSAL, DISPOSITION.

These words derive their different meanings from the verb to dispose (v. To dispose), to which they owe their common origin.

Disposal is a personal act; it depends upon the will of the individual: disposition is an act of the judge ment; it depends upon the nature of the things

The removal of a thing from one's self is involved in a disposal; the good order of the things is comprehended in their disposition. The disposal of property hended in their disposition. The disposal of property is in the hands of the rightful owner; the success of a battle often depends upon the right disposition of an battle often depends upon the right disposition of an 'In the reign of Henry the Second, if a man died without wife or issue, the whole of his property was at his own disposal?—Blackstone. 'In case a person made no disposition of such of his goods as were testable, he was and is said to die intestate.'-BLACKSTONE.

APPAREL, ATTIRE, ARRAY.

Apparel, in French appareil, like the word appa ratus, comes from the Latin apparatus or adparatus signifying the thing fitted or adapted for another; attire, compounded of at or ad and tire, in French tirer, Latin traho to draw, signifies the thing drawn or put on; array is compounded of ar or ad and ray or row, signifying the state of being in a row, or being in order.
These terms are all applicable to dress or exterior

decoration. Apparel is the dress of every one; attire uecoration. Appare is the cress of every one; active is the dress of the great; array is the dress of particular persons on particular occasions: it is the first object of every man to provide himself with appared suitable to his station; 'It is much, that this depraved custom of painting the face should so long escape the penal laws both of the church and state which have penal laws, both of the church and state, which have been very severe against luxury in apparel.'-BACON. The desire of shining forth in gaudy attire is the pro perty of little minds;

A robe of tissue, stiff with golden wire, An upper vest, once Helen's rich attire. DRYDEN. On festivals and solemn occasions, it may be proper | only of inanimate objects: a person chooses a place, for those who are to be conspicuous to set themselves out with a comely array;

She seem'd a virgin of the Spartan blood, With such array Harpalyce bestrode Her Thracian courser.-DRYDEN.

Apparel and attire respect the quality and fashion of the thing; but array has regard to the disposition of the things with their neatness and decorum: apparel may be costly or mean; attre may be gay or shabby; but array will never be otherwise than neat or comely.

TO PLACE, DISPOSE, ORDER.

To place is to assign a place (v. Place) to a thing: to dispose is to place according to a certain rule; to order is to place in a certain order

Things are often placed from the necessity of being placed in some way or another: they are disposed so as to appear to the best advantage.

Books are placed on a shelf or in a cupboard to be out of the way; they are disposed on shelves according to their size: chairs are placed in different parts of

room; prints are tastefully disposed round a room.

Material objects only are placed, in the proper sense
the term. Sticks are placed at certain distances for of the term. purposes of convenience; persons or things are placed in particular situations;

Our two first parents, yet the only two

Of mankind in the happy garden plac'd .- MILTON

If I have a wish that is prominent above the rest, it is to see you placed to your satisfaction near me.'—Shenstone. It may also be applied in the improper sense to spiritual objects.

Material or spiritual objects are dispos'd;

And last the reliques by themselves dispose, Which in a brazen urn the priests enclose.

DRVDEN.

Spiritual objects only are ordered.

To dispose in the improper sense is a more partial action than to order; one disposes for particular occasions; one orders for a permanency and in complicated matters: our thoughts may be disposed to seriousness in certain cases; our thoughts and wills ought to be ordered aright at all times. An author disposes his work agreeably to the nature of his subject; a tradesman orders his business so as to do every thing in good

PLACE, SITUATION, STATION, POSITION, POST.

Place, in German platz, comes from platt even or open; situation, in Latin situs, comes from the Hebrew niv to put; station, from the Latin status and sto to stand, signifies the manner or place in which an object stands or is put; position, in Latin positio or positus, comes from the same source as situs.

Place is the abstract or general term that comprehends the idea of any given space that may be occustation is the place where one stands or is fixed : pieu : station is the plate where one stands of is mean station respect the object as well as the place, that is, they signify how the object is put, as well as where it is put. A place or a station may be either vacant or otherwise; a situation and a position necessarily suppose some occupied place. A place is either assigned or not assigned, known or unknown, real or supposed; 'Surely the church is a place where one day's ruce ought to be allowed to the dissensions and animosities of mankind.'—Burke. A station is a specifically assigned place;

The planets in their station listening stood. MILTON.

We choose a place according to our convenience, and we leave it again at pleasure; but we take up our station, and hold it for a given period. One inquires for A place which is known only by name; the station is appointed for us, and is therefore easily found out. Travellers wander from place to place; soldiers have always some station.

The terms place and situation are said of objects animate or inanimate; station (roly of animate objects, or objects figuratively considered as such; position

a thing occupies a place, or has a place set apart for it: a station or stated place must always be assigned to each person who has to act in concert with others; 'The seditious remained within their station, which, by reason of the nastiness of the beastly multitude, might more fitly be termed a kennel than a camp.' might more fully be termed a kennel than a camp,'—
HAYWARD. A person chooses a situation according to
his convenience; 'A situation in which I am as unknown to all the world as I am ignorant of all that
passes in it would exactly suit me.'—Cowpers. A situation or position is chosen for a thing to suit the convenience of an individual; the former is said of things as
they stand with regard to others; the latter of things
as they stand with regard to themselves. The situation of a house comprehends the nature of the slages. tion of a house comprehends the nature of the place, whether on high or low ground; and also its relation to other objects, that is, whether higher or lower, nearer or more distant: the position of a window in a house is considered as to whether it is by the side or in front; the position of a book is considered as to whether it stands leaning or upright, with its face or back forward. Situation is moreover said of things that come thither of themselves; position mostly of those things that have been put there at will. The situation of some tree or rock, on some elevated place, is agreeable to be looked at, or to be looked from 'Prince Cesarini has a place in a pleasant situation, and set off with many beautiful walks.'—Addison. The faulty position of a letter in writing sometimes spoils the whole performance. the whole performance; 'By varying the position of my eye, and moving it nearer to or farther from the direct beam of the sun's light, the colour of the sun's re-flected light constantly varied upon the speculum as it did upon my eye.'—Newton.

Place, situation, and station have an improper sig-

nification in respect to men in civil society, that is, either to their circumstances or actions. Post hus no other sense when applied to persons. Place is as inother sense when applied to persons. Place is as in-definite as before; it may be taken for that share which we personally have in society either generally, as when every one is said to fill a place in society; or particularly for a specifick share of its business, so as to fill a place under government: situation is that kind of place which specifies either our share in its business, but with a higher import than the general term place. or a share in its gains and losses, as the prosperous or adverse situation of a man: a station is that kind of place which denotes a share in its relative consequence, power, and honour; in which sense every man holds a certain station: the post is that kind of place in which he has a specifick share in the duties of society: which he has a specime many duties; but the post includes properly one duty only; the word being figuratively employed from the post, or particular spot which a soldier is said to occupy. A clerk in a country of the post of the property of the post of the po ing house fills a place; a clergyman holds a situation by virtue of his office; 'Though this is a situation of the greatest ease and tranquillity in human life, yet this is by no means fit to be the subject of all men's petitions to God.'-Rogers. A clergyman is in the station of a gentleman by reason of his education, as well as his situation; 'It has been my fate to be engaged in business much and often, by the stations in which I have been placed.'--ATTERBURY. A faithful minister will always consider that his post where good is to be done; 'I will never, while I have health, be wanting to my duty in my post.'—ATTERBURY.

PLACE, SPOT, SITE.

A particular or given space is the idea common to these terms; but the former is general and indefinite, the latter specifick. Place is limited to no size nor quantity, it may be large: but spot implies a very small place, such as by a figure of speech is supposed to be no larger than a spot; the term place is employed upon every occasion; the term spot is confined to very particular cases; we may often know the place in a general way where a thing is, but it is not easy after a course of years to find out the exact spot on which it has happened. The place where our Saviour was buried is to be seen and pointed out, but not the very spot where he lay;

O, how unlike the place from whence they fell! MILTON calculation.

My fortune leads to traverse realms alone, And find no spot of all the world my own.

GOLDSMITH.

The site is the spot on which any thing stands or is situated; it is more commonly applied to a building or any place marked out for a specifick purpose; as the

site on which a camp had been formed;

Before my view appear'd a structure fair,
Its site uncertain if on earth or air.—Pope.

BACK, BACKWARD, BEHIND.

Back and backward are used only as adverbs; bekind either as an adverb or a preposition. Hence we say to go back or backward, to go behind or behind the wall.

Back denotes the situation of being, and the direction of going; backward, simply the manner of going; a person stands back, who does not wish to be in the way; he goes backward, when he does not wish to turn his back to an object;

So rag'd Tydides, boundless in his ire, Drove armies back, and made all Troy retire. Pope.

Whence many wearied e'er they had o'erpast The middle stream (for they in vain have tried) Again return'd astounded and aghast,

No one regardful look would ever backward cast.

Gilbert West.

Back marks simply the situation of a place, behind the situation of one object with regard to another: a person stands back, who stands in the back part of any place; he stands behind, who has any one in the front of him: the back is opposed to the front, behind to before:

Forth flew this hated fiend, the child of Rome, Driv'n to the verge of Albion, lingered there. Then, with her James receding, cast behind One angry frown, and sought more servile climes. Sherstone (on Cruelly).

AFTER, BEHIND.

After respects order; behind respects position. One runs after a person, or stands behind his chair; after is used either figuratively or literally: behind is used only literally. Men hunt after anusements; misfortunes come after one another: a garden lies behind a house; a thing is concealed behind a bush;

Good after ill, and after pain delight,
Alternate, like the scenes of day and night.

DRYDEN.

He first, and close behind him followed she, For such was Proserpine's severe decree.—DRYDEN.

UNDER, BELOW, BENEATH.

Under, like hind in behind, and the German unter, kinter, &c., are all connected with the preposition in implying the relation of enclosure; below denotes the state of being low; and beneath from the German nieder, and the Greek veoße or èvepôt downwards, has the same original signification. It is evident, therefore, from the above, that the preposition under denotes any situation of retirement or concealment; below any situation of inferiority or lowness; and beneath, the same, only in a still greater degree. We are covered or sheltered by that which we stand under; we excel or rise above that which is below us; we look down upon that which is beneath us; we live under the protection of government; the sun disappears when it is below the horizon; we are apt to trend upon that which is altogether beneath us; 'The Jewish writers in their chronological computations often shoot under or over the truth at their pleasure.'—Prideaux. 'All sublunary comforts imitate the changeableness, as well as feel the influence, of the planet they are under.'—Sourm.

Our minds are here and there, below, above; Nothing that 's mortal can so quickly move.

'How can any thing better be expected than rust and canker when men will rather dig their treasure from beneath than fetch it from above.'—South.

ABOVE, OVER, UPON, BEYOND,

When an object is above another, it exceeds it in height; when it is over another, it extends along its superiour surface; when it is upon another, it comes in contact with its superiour surface; when it is beyond another, it lies at a greater distance. These frequently grow above a wall, and sometimes the branches hang over the wall or rest upon it, but they seldom stretch much beyond it;

So when with crackling flames a caldron fries, The bubbling waters from the bottom rise, Above the brim they force their fiery way; Black vapours climb aloft and cloud the day.

The geese fly o'er the barn, the bees in arms
Drive headlong from their waxen cells in swarms.

DRYPEN.

As I did stand my watch upon the hill I look'd toward Birnan, and anon methought The wood began to move.—Shakspeare
He that sees a dark and shady grove
Stays not, but looks beyond it on the sky.

In the figurative sense the first is mostly employed to convey the idea of superiority, the second of authority, the third of immediate influence, and the fourth of extent. Every one should be above falsehood, but particularly those who are set over others, who may have an influence on their minds beyond all

SITUATION, CONDITION, STATE, PREDICA-MENT, PLIGHT, CASE.

Situation (v. Place) is said generally of objects as they respect others; condition (v. Condition) as they respect themselves. Whatever affects our property our honour, our liberty, and the like, constitutes our situation; 'The man who has a character of his own is little changed by varying his situation.'-Mrs. Mon-TAGUE. Whatever affects our person immediately is our condition: a person who is unable to pay a sum of money to save himself from a prison is in a bad situation; a traveller who is left in a ditch robbed and wounded is in a had condition; 'It is indeed not easy to prescribe a successful manner of approach to the distressed or necessitous, whose condition subjects every kind of behaviour equally to miscarriage."

Johnson. The situation and condition are said of JOHNSON. The situation and condition are said of that which is contingent and changeable; the state, from the Latin sto to stand, signifying the point that is stood upon, is said of that which is comparatively stable or established. A tradesman is in a good situs. stane of established. A tradestian is in a good state-tion who is in the way of carrying on a good trade; his affairs are in a good state if he is enabled to answer every demand and to keep up his credit. Hence it is that we speak of the state of health, and the state of the mind; not the situation or condition, because the body and mind are considered as to their general frame, and not as to any relative or particular circumstances; so likewise we say a state of infancy, a state of guilt, a state of innocence, and the like; not either a situation or a condition; 'Patience itself is one virtue by which we are prepared for that state in which evil shall be no more.'—Johnson.

When speaking of bodies there is the same distinction in the terms, as in regard to individuals. An army may be either in a situation, a condition, or a state. An army that is on service may be in a critical situation, with respect to the enemy and its own comparative weakness; it may be in a deplorable condition if it stand in need of provisions and necessaries, an army that is at home will be in a good or bad state, according to the regulations of the commander-in chief. Of a prince who is threatened with invasion from foreign enemies, and with a rebellion from his subjects, we should not say that his condition, but his situation, was critical. Of a prince, however, who like Alfred was obliged to fly, and to seek safety in disguise and poverty, we should speak of his hard condition: the state of a prince cannot be spoken of, but the state of his affairs and government may; hence, likewise, state may with most propriety be said of a nation: but situation seldom, unless in respect to other nations, and condition never. On the other hand,

when speaking of the poor, we seldom employ the term situation, because they are seldom considered as a body in relation to other bodies: we mostly speak of their condition as better or worse, according as they have more or less of the comforts of life; and of their

state as regards their moral habits.

These terms may likewise be applied to inanimate objects; and upon the same grounds, a house is in a good situation as respects the surrounding objects; it is in a good or bad condition as respects the painting, cleaning, and exteriour, altogether; it is in a bad state, as respects the beams, plaster, roof, and interiour structure, altogether. The hand of a watch is in a different situation every hour; the watch listelf may be in a bad condition if the wheels are clogged with dirt; but in a good state if the works are altogether sound and fit for service.

Situation and condition are either permanent or temporary. The predicament, from the Latin predico to assert or declare, signifies to commit one's self by an assertion; and when applied to circumstances, it expresses a temporary embarrassed situation occasioned by an act of one's own: hence we always speak of bringing ourselves into a predicament;

The offender's life lies in the mercy Of the duke only 'gainst all other voice, In which predicament I say thou stand'st.

SHAKSPEARE.

Plight, contracted from the Latin plicatus, participle of plico to fold, signifies any circumstance in which one is disagreeably entangled; and case (v. Case) signifies any thing which may befall us, or into which we fall mostly, though not necessarily contrary to our inclination. Those two latter terms therefore denote a species of temporary condition; for they both express that which happens to the object itself, without reference to any other. A person is in an unpleasant situation who is shut up in a stage coach with disagreeable company. He is in an awkward predicament when attempting to please one friend he displeases another. He may be in a wretched plight if he is overturned in a stage at night, and at a distance from any habitation;

Satan beheld their plight

And to his mates thus in derision call'd.—MILTON.

He will be in evil case if he is compelled to put up with a spare and poor diet; 'Our case is like that of a traveller upon the Alps, who should fancy that the top of the next hill must end his journey, because it terminates his prospect.'—Addison.

CASE, CAUSE.

Case, in Latin casus, from cado to fall, chance, happen, signifies the thing falling out; cause, in French cause, Latin causa, is probably changed from case, and the Latin casus.

The case is matter of fact; the cause is matter of question: a case involves circumstances and consequences; a cause involves reasons and arguments: a case is something to be learned; a cause is something

to be decided.

A case needs only to be stated; a cause must be defended: a cause may include cases, but not vice versă: in all causes that are to be tried, there are many legal cases that must be cited: 'There is a double praise due to virtue when it is lodged in a body that seems to have been prepared for the reception of vice: in many such cases the soul and body do not seem to be fellows.'—Addison. Whoever is interested in the cause of humanity will not be heedless of those cases of distress which are perpetually presenting themselves; 'I was myself an advocate so long, that I never mind what advocates say, but what they prove, and I can only examine proofs in causes brought before me.'—Sir William Jones

CONDITION, STATION.

Condition, in French condition, Latin conditio, from condo to build or form, signifies properly the thing formed; and in an extended sense, the manner and circumstances under which a thing is formed; station, in French station, Latin statio, from sto to stand, signifies the standing place or point.

Condition has most relation to the circumstances, education, birth, and the like; station refers rather to the rank, occupation, or mode of life which one pursues. Riches suddenly acquired are calculated to make a man forget his original condition; 'The common charge against those who rise above their original condition, is that of pride.'—Joinson. There is nothing which men are more apt to forget than the duties of their station; 'The last day will assign to every one a station suitable to the dignity of his character.'—Addition.

The condition of men in reality is often so different from what it appears, that it is extremely difficult to form an estimate of what they are, or what they have been. I is the folly of the present day, that every man is unwilling to keep the station which has been assigned to him by Providence. The rage for equality destroys every just distinction in society; the low aspire to be, in appearance, at least, equal with their superiours; and those in elevated stations do not hesitate to put themselves on a level with their inferiours.

TO PUT, PLACE, LAY, SET.

Put is in all probability contracted from positus, participle of pono to place; place signifies the same as in the preceding articles; lay, in Saxon legam, German legen, Latin loco, and Greek $\lambda \xi \gamma \omega \mu \alpha_i$, signifies to cause to lie; set, in German setzen, Latin sisto, from sto to stand, signifies to cause to stand.

Put is the most general of all these terms;

The labourer cuts

Young slips, and in the soil securely puts.—DRYDEN. Place, lay, and set are but modes of putting; one puts, but the way of putting it is not defined; we may put a thing into one's room, one's desk, one's pocket, and the like; but to place is to put in a specifick manner, and for a specifick purpose; one places a book on a shelf as a fixed place for it, and in a position most suitable to it;

Then youths and virgins, twice as many, join To place the dishes, and to serve the wine.

DRYDEN.

To lay and set are still more specifick than place; the former being applied only to such things as can be made to lie;

Here some design a mole, while others there Lay deep foundations for a theatre.—DRYDEN.

And set only to such as can be made to stand: a book may be said to be laid on the table when placed in a downward position; and set on a shelf when placed on one end; we lay ourselves down on the ground, we set a trunk upon the ground;

Ere I could
Give him that parting kiss, which I had set
Between two charming words, comes in my father.

SHAKSPEARE.

TO LIE, LAY.

By a vulgar errour these words have been so con founded as to deserve some notice. To lie is neuter, and designates a state: to lay is active, and denotes an action on an object; it is properly to cause to lie: a thing lies on the table; some one lays it on the table: he lies with his fathers; they laid him with his fathers. In the same manner, when used idiomatically, we say, a thing lies by us until we bring it into use: we lay it by for some future purpose: we lie down in order to repose ourselves; we lay money down by way of deposite: the disorder lies in the constitution; we lay the ill treatment of others to heart: we lie with the person when we stake our money against his; 'Anta bite off all the buds before they lay it up, and, therefore, the corn that has lain in their nests will produce nothing.'—Additional against the highest obligations imaginable.'—Beveredee.

TO DISORDER, DERANGE, DISCONCERT, DISCOMPOSE.

Disorder signifies to put out of order; derange, from de and range or rank, signifies to put out of the rank in

which it was placed; disconcert, to put out of the concert or harmony; discompose, to put out of a state of

composure.

All these terms express the idea of putting out of order; but the three latter vary as to the mode or object of the action. The term disorder is used in a perfectly indefinite form, and might be applied to any object. . As every thing may be in order, so may every thing be disordered; yet it is seldom used except in regard to such things as have been in a natural order. Derange and disconcert are employed in speaking of such things as have been put into an artificial order. To derange is to disorder that which has been systematically arranged, or put in a certain range; and to disconcert is to disorder that which has been put together by concert or contrivance: thus the body may be disby contert of contivative this the body may be use-ordered; a man's affairs or papers deranged; a scheme disconcerted. To discompose is a species of derange-ment in regard to trivial matters: thus a tucker, a frill, or a cap may be discomposed. The slightest change of diet will discorder people of tender constitutions: misfortunes are apt to derange the affairs of the most prosperous: the unexpected return of a master to his home disconcerts the schemes which have been formed by the domesticks: those who are particular as to their appearance are careful not to have any part of their dress discomposed.

When applied to the mind disorder and derange are said of the intellect; disconcert and discompose of the ideas or spirits: the former denoting a permanent state; the latter a temporary or transient state. The mind is said to be disordered when the faculty of ratiocination is in any degree interrupted; 'Since devotion itself may disorder the mind, unless its heats are tempered with caution or prudence, we should be particularly careful to keep our reason as cool as possible.'-Appl-The intellect is said to be deranged when it is SON. brought into a positive state of incapacity for action: persons are sometimes disordered in their minds for a time by particular occurrences, who do not become actually deranged; 'All passion implies a violent emoactuary aerangea; 'An passion implies a violent emo-tion of mind; of course it is apt to derange the regular course of our ideas.'—BLAIR. A person is said to be disconcerted who suddenly loses his collectedness of thinking; 'There are men whose powers operate only at leisure and in retirement; and whose intellectual vigour deserts them in conversation; whom merriment confuses, and objection disconcerts.'—JOHNSON. A person is said to be discomposed who loses his regularity of feeling;

But with the changeful temper of the skies, As rains condense, and sunshine rarefies, So turn the species in their alter'd minds, Compos'd by calms, and discompos'd by winds. DRYDEN.

A sense of shame is the most apt to disconcert: the more irritable the temper the more easily one is discomposed.

DERANGEMENT, INSANITY, LUNACY, MADNESS, MANIA.

Derangement, from the verb to derange, implies the first stage of disorder in the intellect; insanity, or unsoundness, implies positive disease, which is more or less permanent; lunacy is a violent sort of insanity, which was supposed to be influenced by the moon madness and mania, from the Greek μαίνομαι to rage implies insanity or lunacy in its most furious and confirmed stage. Deranged persons may sometimes be perfectly sensible in every thing but particular subjects. Insane persons are sometimes entirely restored. Lunaticks have their lucid intervals, and maniacks their intervals, of reposes. intervals of repose.

Derangement may sometimes be applied to the temporary confusion of a disturbed mind, which is not in full possession of all its faculties: madness may some-times be the result of violently inflamed passions: and mania may be applied to any vehement attachment which takes possession of the mind; 'The locomotive mania of an Englishman circulates his person, and of course his cash, into every quarter of the kingdom.

JUMBERLAND

MADNESS, PHRENSY, RAGE, FURY.

Madness (v. Derangement); phrensy, in Latin phrenesis, Greek φρενῖτις from φρὴν the mind, signifies a disordered mind; rage, in French rage, Latin rabies; fury, in Latin furor, comes in all probability from feror to be carried, because fury carries a person away.

Madness and phrensy are used in the physical and moral sense; rage and fury only in the moral sense: in the first case, madness is a confirmed derangement in the mst case, manness is a confirmed derangement in the organ of thought; phrensy is only a temporary derangement from the violence of fever: the former lies in the system, and is, in general, incurable; the latter is only occasional, and yields to the power of medicine.

In the moral sense of these terms the cause is put for the effect, that is, madness and phrensy are put for that excessive violence of passion by which they are caused; and as rage and fury are species of this passion, namely, the angry passion, they are therefore to madness and phreasy sometimes as the cause is to the effect: the former, however, are so much more violent than the latter, as they altogether destroy the reasoning faculty, which is not expressly implied in the stripfice and the stripfice of the stripfice o signification of the latter terms. Moral madness dif-fers both in degree and duration from phrensy; if it spring from the extravagance of rage, it bursts out into every conceivable extravagance, but is only transitory; if it spring from disappointed love, or any other disap pointed passion, it is as permanent as direct physical madness

'T was no false heraldry when madness drew Her pedigree from those who too much knew.

DENHAM.

Phrensy is always temporary, but even more impetuous than madness; in the phrensy of despair men commit acts of suicide: in the phrensy of distress and grief, people are hurried into many actions fatal to themselves or others;

What phrensy, shepherd, has thy soul possessed?

Rage refers more immediately to the agitation that exists, within the mind; fury refers to that which shows itself outwardly: a person contains or stifles his rage; but his fury breaks out into some external mark of violence: rage will subside of itself; fury spends itself: a person may be choked with rage; but his fury finds a vent: an enraged man may be pacified; a furious one is deaf to every remonstrance,

To allay my rages and revenges with Your colder reasons.—SHAKSPEARE.

Rage, when applied to persons, commonly signifies highly inflamed anger; but it may be employed for in-flamed passion towards any object which is specified, as a rage for musick, a rage for theatrical performances, a fashionable rage for any whim of the day. Fury, though commonly signifying rage bursting out, yet may be any impetuous feeling displaying itself in yet may be any injectious recting uspraying meet in extravagant action: as the Divine fury supposed to be produced upon the priestess of Apollo, by the inspi-ration of the god, and the Bacchanalian fury, which expression depicts the influence of wine upon the body and mind:

Confin'd their fury to those dark abodes .- DRYDEN

In the improper application, to inanimate objects, the words rage and fury preserve a similar distinction the rage of the heat denotes the excessive height to which it is risen; the fury of the winds indicates their violent commotion and turbulence: so in like manner the raging of the tempest characterizes figuratively its burning anger; and the fury of the flames marks their impetuous movements, their wild and rapid spread.

TO CONFOUND, TO CONFUSE.

Confound and confuse are both derived from different parts of the same verb, namely, confundo and its par ticiple confusus, signifying to pour or mix together without design that which ought to be distinct.

Confound has an active sense; confuse a neuter or reflective sense: a person confounds one thing with another .

I to the tempest make the poles resound, And the conflicting elements confound.—Dryden.

Objects become confused, or a person confuses him-: it is a common errour among ignorant people to confound names, and among children to have their ideas confused on commencing a new study;

A confus'd report passed through my ears; But full of hurry, like a morning dream, It vanished in the bus'ness of the day.—Lee.

The present age is distinguished by nothing so much as by confounding all distinctions, which is a great source of confusion in men's intercourse with each other, both in publick and private life.

CONFUSION, DISORDER.

Confusion signifies the state of being confounded or confused (v. To confounds); disorder, compounded of the privative dis and order, signifies the reverse of order.

Confusion is to disorder as the species to the genus: confusion supposes the absence of all order; disorder the derangement of order: there is always disorder in confusion, but not always confusion in disorder: a routed army, or a tumultuous mob, will be in confusion and will create confusion:

Now seas and earth were in confusion lost, A world of waters, and without a coast

A whisper or an ill-timed motion of an individual constitutes disorder in a school, or in an army that is drawn up; 'When you behold a man's affairs through negligence and misconduct involved in disorder, you naturally conclude that his ruin approaches.'-BLAIR.

DIFFERENCE, VARIETY, DIVERSITY, MEDLEY.

Difference signifies the cause or the act of differing: Difference signines the cause or the act of differing: variety, from various or vary, in Latin varius, probably comes from varus a speck or speckle, because this is the best emblem of variety; diversity, in Latin diversitas, comes from diverto, compounded of di and verto, signifying the quality of being asunder; medley comes from the word meddle, which is but a change from mingle, mix, &c.

Difference and variety seem to lie in the things them-

Difference and variety seem to lie in the things themselves; diversity and medley are created either by accident or design: a difference may lie in two objects only; a variety cannot exist without an assemblage: a difference is discovered by means of a comparison which the mind forms of objects to prevent confusion; variety strikes on the mind, and pleases the imagination with many agreeable images; it is opposed to dull uniformity: the acute observer traces differences, however minute, in the objects of his research, and by this means is enabled to class them under their general or particular heads; Where the faith of the Holy Church particular heads; Where the tain of the following is one, a difference between customs of the church doth no harm.—Hooker. * Nature affords such an infinite variety in every thing which exists, that if we do not have the such as the s perceive it, the fault is in ourselves; 'Homer does not only outshine all other poets in the variety, but also in the novelty, of his characters.'—Addison. Diversity arises from an assemblage of objects naturally con Diversity. trasted; 'The goodness of the Supreme Being is no less seen in the diversity, than in the multitude of living creatures.'—Addison. A medley is produced by an assemblage of objects so ill suited as to produce a ludicrous effect; 'What unnatural motions and counter-ferments must such a medley of intemperance produce in the body ?'-ADDISON.

Diversity exists in the tastes or opinions of men; a medley is produced by the concurrence of such tastes or opinions as can in no wise coalesce: where the minds of men are disengaged from the control of au-thority, there will be a great diversity of opinions; where a number of men come together with different habits, we may expect to find a medley of characters; good taste may render a diversity of colour agreeable to the eye; caprice or bad taste will be apt to form a

ridiculous medley of colours and ornaments. A diversity of sounds heard at a suitable distance in the sillness of the evening, will have an agreeable effect on the ear; a medley of noises, whether heard near or at a distance, must always be harsh and offensive.

DIFFERENCE, DISTINCTION.

Difference (v. Difference) lies in the thing; distinction (v. To abstract) is the act of the person; the tormer is, therefore, to the latter as the cause to the effect; the distinction rests on the difference; those are equally bad logicians who make a distinction without a difference, or who make no distinction where there is a difference. Sometimes distinction is put for the ground of distinction, which brings it nearer in sense to difference, in which case the former is a species of the latter: a difference is either external or internal; a distinction is always external; we have differences in character, and distinctions in dress: the difference between profession and practice, though very considerable, is often lost sight of by the professors of Christianity; in the sight of God, there is no rank or distinction that will screen a man from the con sequences of unrepented sins;

O son of Tydeus, cease! be wise, and see How yast the diff'rence of the gods and thee.

When I was got into this way of thinking, I presently grew conceited of the argument, and was just prepar-ing to write a letter of advice to a member of parliament, for opening the freedom of our towns and trades for taking away all manner of distinctions between the natives and foreigners.'—Steele.

DIFFERENT, DISTINCT, SEPARATE.

Difference (v. To differ, vary) is opposed to similitude; there is no difference between objects absolutely alike: distinctness (v. To abstract) is opposed to identity; there can be no distinction where there is only one and the same being: separation is opposed to unity; there can be no separation between objects that coalesce or adhere: things may be different and not distinct, or distinct and not different: different is said altogether of the internal properties of things; distinct is said of things as objects of vision, or as they appear either to the eye or the mind: when two or more things are seen only as one, they may be different, but they are not distinct; but whatever is seen as two or more things, each complete in itself, is distinct, although it may not be different: two roads are said to be different which run in different directions, but they may not be distinct when seen on a map: on the other hand, two roads are said to be distinct when they are observed as two roads to run in the same direction, but they need not in any particular to be different : two stars of different magnitudes may, in certain directions, appear as one, in which case they are different, but not distinct; two books on the same subject, and by the same author, but not written in continuation of each other, are distinct books, but not different :

No hostile arms approach your happy ground; Far diff'rent is my fate.—DRYDEN.

What is separate must in its nature be generally distinct; but every thing is not separate which is distinct; when houses are separate they are obviously distinct; but they may frequently be distinct when they are not positively separated; the distinct is marked out by some external sign, which determines its beginning and its end; the separate is that which is set apart, and to be seen by itself: distinct is a term used only in determining the singularity or plurality of objects; the separate only in regard to their proximity or to distance from each other; we speak of having a distinct household, but of living in separate apartments; of dividing one's subject into distinct heads or of making things into separate parcels: the body and soul are different, inasmuch as they have dif and soul are appearing massinuous as they have aff ferent properties, they are distinct inasmuch as they, have marks by which they may be distinguished, and at death they will be sevarate;

^{*} Vide Abbe Girard : " Difference, diversité, varieté, bigarrure."

His sep'rate troops let every leader call, Each strengthen each, and all encourage all; What chief or soldier of the num'rous band, Or bravely fights or ill obeys command, When thus distinct they war, soon shall be known.

DIFFERENT, SEVERAL, DIVERS, SUNDRY, VARIOUS.

All these terms are employed to mark a number (v. To differ, vary): but different is the most indefinite of all these terms, as its office is rather to define the quality than the number, and is equally applicable to few and many; it is opposed to singularity, but the other terms are employed positively to express many. Several, from to sever, signifies split or made into many; they may be either different or alike: there may be several different things, or several things alike; but there cannot be several different. Sandry, from asunder or apart, signifies many things scattered or at a distance, whether as it regards time or space. Various expresses not only a greater number, but a greater diversity than all the rest.

The same thing often affects different persons differently; an individual may be affected several times in the same way; or particular persons may be affected at sundry times and in divers manners; the ways in which men are affected are so various as not to admit of enumeration: it is not so much to understand different languages; 'It is astonishing to consider the different degrees of care that descend from the parent to the young, so far as is absolutely necessary for the leaving a posterity.'—Addison. 'The bishop has several courts under him, and may visit at pleasure every part of his diocess.'—BLACKSTONE. Divers modes have been suggested and tried for the good education of youth, but most of too theoretical a nature to admit of being reduced successfully to practise; 'In the frame and constitution of the ecclesiastical polity, there are divers ranks and degrees.'—BLACKSTONE. An incorrect writer omits sundry articles that belong to a statement;

Fat olives of sundry sorts appear,
Of sundry shapes their unctuous berries bear.
Dryden

We need not wonder at the misery which is introduced into families by extravagance and luxury, when we notice the infinitely various allurements for spending money which are held out to the young and the thoughtless; 'As land is improved by sowing it with various seeds, so is the mind by exercising it with different studies.'—MELMOTH (Letters of Pling).

DIFFERENT, UNLIKE.

Different is positive, unlike is negative: we look at what is different, and draw a comparison; but that which is unlike needs no comparison: a thing is said to be different from every other thing, or unlike to any thing seen before; which latter mode of expression obviously conveys less to the mind than the former; 'How different is the view of past life in the man who is grown old in knowledge and wisdom from that of him who is grown old in ignorance and folly.'—AD-DISON.

How far unlike those chiefs of race divine,
How vast the diff'rence of their deeds and mine.
POPE.

TO CHANGE, ALTER, VARY.

Change, in French changer, is probably derived from the middle Latin cambio to exchange, signifying to take one thing for another; alter, from the Latin alter another, signifies to make a thing otherwise; vary, in Latin vario to make various, comes in all probability from varus a spot or speckle, which destroys uniformity of appearance in any surface.

from varus a spot or speckle, Which destroys unformity of appearance in any surface.

We change a thing by putting another in its place; we alter a thing by making it different from what it was before: we vary it by altering it in different manners and at different times. We change our clothes whenever we put on others: the tailor alters

clothes which are found not to fit; and he varies the fashion of making them whenever he makes new. A man changes his habits, atters his conduct, and varies his manner of speaking and thinking, according to circumstances; 'The general remedy of those who are uneasy without knowing the cause is change of place'—Johnson.

All things are but alter'd, nothing dies: And here and there th' unbodied spirit flies; By time, or force, or sickness, dispossess'd, And lodges, where it lights, in man cr beast. DRYDEN.

'In every work of the imagination, the disposition of parts, the insertion of incidents, and use of decorations, may be varied a thousand ways with equal propriety.'—Johnson.

A thing is changed without altering its kind; it is altered without destroying its identity; and it is varied without destroying the similarity. We change our habitation, but it still remains a habitation; we alter our house, but it still remains the same house; we vary the manner of painting and decoration, but it may strongly resemble the manner in which it has been before executed.

CHANGE, VARIATION, VICISSITUDE.

Change (v. To change, alter) is both to vicissitude and variation as the genus to the species. Every variation or vicissitude is a change, but every change is not a variation or vicissitude; vicissitude, in French vicissitude, Latin vicissitude, from vicissim by turns, signifies changing alternately.

Change consists simply in ceasing to be the same: variation consists in being different at different times; vicissitude in being alternately or reciprocally different and the same. All created things are liable to change; old things pass away, all things become new: the humours of men, like the elements, are exposed to perpetual variations: human affairs, like the seasons,

are subject to frequent vicissitudes.

Changes in governments or fannilies are seldom attended with any good effect; 'How strangely are the opinions of men altered by a change in their condition.'—Blair. Variations in the state of the atmosphere are indicated by the barometer or thermometer; 'One of the company affirmed to us he had actually enclosed the liquor, found in a coquette's heart, in a small tube made after the manner of a weather-glass; but that instead of acquainting him with the variations of the atmosphere, it showed him the qualities of those persons who entered the room where it stood.'—Addison. Vicissitudes of a painful nature are less dangerous than those which elevate men to an unusual state of grandeur. By the former they are brought to a sense of themselves; by the latter they are carried beyond themselves;

It makes through heaven Grateful vicissitude, like day and night.

VARIATION, VARIETY.

Variation denotes the act of varying (v. To change); variety denotes the quality of varying, or the thing varied. The astronomer observes the variations in the heavens; the philosopher observes the variations in the climate from year to year; 'The idea of variation (as a constituent in beauty), without attending so accounted to the manner of variation, has led Mr. Hogarth to consider angular figures as beautiful:—Burke. Variety is pleasing to all persons, but to none so much as the young and the fickle: there is an infinite variety in every species of objects animate or inanimate; 'As to the colours usually found in beautiful bodies, it may be difficult to ascertain them, because in the several parts of nature there is an infinite variety.—Burke.

INDISTINCT, CONFUSED.

Indistinct is negative; it marks simply the want of distinctness; confused is positive; it marks a positive degree of indistinctness. A thing may be indistinct without being confused; but it cannot be confused without being indistinct: two things may be indistinct, or not easily distinguished from each other;

but many things, or parts of the same things, are conbut many things, or parts of the same things, are con-fused; two letters in a word may be indistinct; but the whole writings or many words are confused; sounds are indistinct which reach our ears only in part; but they are confused if they come in great numbers and out of all order. We see objects indis-tinctly when we cannot see all the features by which they would be distinguished from all objects; When a volume of travels is opened, nothing is found but such general accounts as leave no distinct idea behind them.'—Johnson. We see an object confusedly when every part is so blended with the other that no one feature can be distinguished; 'He that enters a town at night and surveys it in the morning, then hastens to another place, may please himself for a time with a hasty change of scene and a confused remembrance of palaces and churches.'—Johnson. By means of great distance objects become indistinct; from a defect in sight objects become more confused.

TO MIX, MINGLE, BLEND, CONFOUND.

Mix is in German mischen, Latin misceo, Greek μίσγω, Hebrew 17D; mingle, in Greek μιγνύω, is but a variation of mix; blend, in German blenden to dazzle, comes from blind, signifying to see confusedly, or confuse objects in a general way; confound, (v. Confound).

Mix is here a general and indefinite term, signifying simply to put together: but we may mix two or several things; we mingle several objects: things are mixed so as to lose all distinction; but they may be mingled and yet retain a distinction: liquids mix so as to become one, and individuals mix in a crowd so as to be

Can imagination boast, Amid its gay creation, hues like hers, Or can it mix them with that matchless skill, And lose them in each other ?- Thomson.

Things are mingled together of different sizes if they lie in the same spot, but they may still be distinguished:

There as I pass'd with careless steps and slow, The mingling notes came soften'd from below.

To blend is only partially to mix, as colours blend

which fall into each other: to confound is to miz in a wrong way, as objects of sight are confounded when they are erroneously taken to be joined.

To mix and mingle are mostly applied to material objects, except in poetry: to blend and confound are mental operations, and principally employed on spiritual subjects: thus, events and circumstances are blended together in a narrative;

But happy they! the happiest of their kind, Whom gentler stars unite, and in one fate Their hearts, their fortunes, and their beings blend. THOMSON.

The ideas of the ignorant are confounded in most cases, but particularly when they attempt to think for themselves;

And long the gods, we know Have grudg'd thee, Cæsar, to the world below, Where fraud and rapine, right and wrong, confound.
DRYDEN.

MIXTURE, MEDLEY, MISCELLANY.

Mixture is the thing mixed (v. To mix); medley, from meddle or middle, signifies what comes between another; miscellany, in Latin miscellaneus, from misceo to miz, signifies also a mixture.

missee to mix, signifies also a mixture. The mixture is general; whatever objects can be mixed will form a mixture; a medley is a mixture of things not it to be mixed; and a miscellany is a mixture of many different things. Flour, water, and eggs may form a mixture, in the proper sense; but if to these were added all sorts of spices, it would form a medley; 'In great villanies, there is often such a mixture of the fool, as quite spoils the whole project of the knave.'—South.

intellectual subjects: the miscellaneous is opposed to that which is systematically arranged: essays are miscellaneous in distinction from works on one particular subject; 'A writer, whose design is so comprehensive and miscellaneous as that of an essayist, may accommodate himself with a topick from every scene of life." -Johnson.

PROMISCUOUS, INDISCRIMINATE.

Promiscuous, in Latin promiscuus, from promisceo or pro and misceo to mingle, signifies thoroughly mingled; indiscriminate, from the Latin in privative and discrimen a difference, signifies without any difference. Promiscuous is applied to any number of different

objects mixed together; Victors and vanquish'd join promiscuous cries

Indiscriminate is only applied to the action in which one does not discriminate different objects: a multitude is termed promiscuous, as characterizing the thing; the use of different things for the same pur-pose, or of the same things for different purposes, is termed indiscriminate, as characterizing the person: things become promiscuous by the want of design in any one; they are indiscriminate by the fault of any one; plants of all descriptions are to be found promiscuously situated in the beds of a garden: it is folly to level any charge indiscriminately against all the members of any community or profession; 'From this indiscriminate distribution of misery, moralists have always derived one of their strongest moral arguments for a future state. - Johnson.

IRREGULAR, DISORDERLY, INORDINATE, INTEMPERATE.

Irregular, that is literally not regular, marks merely Irregular, that is literally not regular, marks merely the absence of a good quality; disorderly, that is literally out of order, marks the presence of a positively bad quality. What is irregular may be so from the nature of the thing; what is disorderly is rendered so by some external circumstance. Things are planted irregularly for want of design: the best troops are apt to be disorderly in a long march. Irregular and Irregular and disorderly are taken in a moral as well as a natural sense; inordinate, which signifies also put out of order, is employed only in the moral sense. What is order, is employed only in the moral sense. What is irregular is contrary to the rule that is established, or ought to be; what is disorderly is contrary to the order that has existed; what is inordinate is contrary to the order that is prescribed; what is intemperate is contrary to the temper or spirit that ought to be encouraged. Our habits are irregular which are not conformable to the laws of social society; 'In youth conformable to the laws of social society; 'In youth there is a certain irregularity and agitation by no means unbecoming.'—MELMOTH (Letters of Plany). Our practices will be disorderly when we follow the blind impulse of passion; 'The minds of bad men are disorderly.'—BLAIR. Our desires will be inordinate when they are not under the control of reason guided by religion; 'Inordinate passions are the great disturbers of life.'—Blair. Our indulgencies will be intemperate when we consult nothing but our appetites; Persuade but the covetous man not to deify his money, the intemperate man to abandon his revels, and I dare undertake all their giant-like objections shall vanish. -South. Young people are apt to contract irregular habits if not placed under the care of discreet and sober people, and made to conform to the regulations of domestick life: children are naturally prone to become disorderly, if not perpetually under the eye of a master: it is the lot of human beings in all ages and stations to have inordinate desires, which require a constant check so as to prevent intemperate conduct of any kind.

SEQUEL, CLOSE.

Sequel is a species of close; it is that which follows by way of termination; but the close is simply that which closes, or puts an end to anything. There can not be a sequel without a close, but there may be a the knave.—South.

More oft in fools' and madmen's hands than sages,
She seems a medley of all ages.—Swift.

Miscellany is a species of mixture applicable only to

When a work is published in distinct parts, those which follow at the end may be termed the sequel: it appears all at once, the concluding pages are the close. The same distinction between these words is preserved in their figurative application;

If black scandal or foul-fac'd reproach Attend the sequel of your imposition, Your meer enforcement shall acquittance me. SHAKSPEARE.

Speedy death, The close of all my miseries, and the balm. MILTON.

TO END, CLOSE, TERMINATE.

To bring any thing to its last point is the common

idea in the signification of these terms.

To end is the simple action of putting an end to, without any collateral idea; it is therefore the generick term. To close is to end gradually, or by shutting in, hence we speak of closing the rear, or of a scene closing ;

Orestes, Acamas, in front appear, And Œnomaus and Thoon close the rear.—Pope.

To terminate is to end in a specifick manner, hence we speak with propriety of a road or a line termi-nating; 'As I had a mind to know how each of these roads terminated, I joined myself with the assembly that were in the flower and vigour of their age, and called themselves the band of lovers."—ADDISON. They preserve this distinction in the moral application. There are persons even in civilized countries so ignorant as, like the brutes, to end their lives as they began them, without one rational reflection:

Greece in her single heroes strove in vain, Now hosts oppose thee, and thou must be slain;

So shall my days in one sad tenour run,

And end with sorrows as they first begun .- Pope. The Christian closes his career of active duty only with the failure of his bodily powers;

One frugal supper did our studies close .- DRYDEN.

A person ends a dispute, or puts an end to it, by yielding the subject of contest; he terminates the dispute by entering into a compromise; 'The wisdom of this world, its designs and efficacy, terminate on this side heaven.'-South.

END, EXTREMITY.

Both these words imply the last of those parts which constitute a thing; but the end designates that part generally; the extremity marks the particular point. The extremity is from the Latin extremus the very last end, that which is outermost. Hence the end may be said of that which bounds any thing; but extremity of that which extends farthest from us: we may speak of the ends of that which is circular in its form, or of that which has no specifick form: Now with full force the yielding horn he bends,

We speak of the extremities of that only which is supposed to project lengthwise; 'Our female pro-jectors were all the last summer so taken up with the improvement of their petticoats, that they had not time to attend to any thing else; but having at length sufficiently adorned their lower parts, they now begin to turn their thoughts upon the other extremity.'-AD

The end is opposed to the beginning; the extremity to the centre or point from which we reckon. When a man is said to go to the end of a journey or to the end of the world, the expression is in both cases indeunite and general; but when he is said to go to the extremities of the earth or the extremities of a kingdom, the idea of relative distance is manifestly im-

He who goes to the end of a path may possibly have a little farther to go in order to reach the extremity. In the figurative application end and extremity differ so widely as not to render any comparison needful.

EXTREMITY, EXTREME.

Extremity is used in the proper or the improper sense; extreme in the improper sense: we speak of

the extremity of a line or an avenue, the extremity of distress, but the extreme of the fashion.

In the moral sense, extremity is applicable to the outward circumstances; extreme to the opinious and conduct of men: in matters of dispute between individuals it is a happy thing to guard against coming to extremities; 'Savage suffered the utnost extremities of poverty, and often fasted so long that he was seized with faintness.'—Johnson. It is the characteristick of volatile tempers to be always in extremes, either the extreme of joy or the extreme of sorrow; 'The two extremes to be guarded against are despotism, where all are slaves, and anarchy, where all would rule and none obey.'—BLAIR.

CLOSE, COMPACT.

Close, in French clos, comes from the Latin clausus participle of claudo to shut; compact, in Latin compactus, participle of compingo to fix or join, signifies jointed close together.

Proximity is expressed by both these terms; the former in a general and the latter in a restricted sense. Two bodies may be close to each other, but a body is

compact with regard to itself.

Contact is not essential to constitute closeness; but a perfect adhesion of all the parts of a body is essential to produce compactness. Lines are close to each other that are separated but by a small space;

To right and left the martial wings display

Their shining arms, and stand in close array; Though weak their spears, though dwarfish be their

Compact they move, the bulwark of the fight. SIR WM. JONES.

Things are rolled together in a compact form that are brought within the smallest possible space; 'Without attraction the dissevered particles of the chaos could never convene into such great compact masses as the planets.'-Bentley.

CLOSE, NEAR, NIGH.

Close signifies the same as in the preceding article; near and nigh are in Saxon near, neah, German, nah. &cc.

Close is more definite than near: houses stand close to each other which are almost joined; men stand close when they touch each other;

Th' unwearied watch their listening leaders keep, And couching close, repel invading sleep .- Pore

Objects are near which are within sight; persons are near each other when they can converse together Near and nigh, which are but variations of each other. in etymology, admit of little or no difference in their use; the former however is the most general. People live near each other who are in the same street; they live close to each other when their houses are adjoining;

O friend! Ulysses' shouts invade my ear;

Distress'd he seems, and no assistance near .- Pope.

From the red field their scatter'd bodies bear. And nigh the fleet a funeral structure rear .- Pope.

Close is annexed as an adjective; near is employed only as an adverb or preposition. We speak of close ranks or close lines; but not near ranks or near lines

STRAIT, NARROW.

Strait, which is otherwise spelled straight, from the Latin strictus bound, signifies bound tight, that is, brought into a small compass: narrow, which is a variation of near, expresses a mode of nearness or closeness. Strait is a particular term; narrow is general; straitness is an artificial mode of narrowness; a coat is strait which is made to compress the body within a small compass; narrow is either the artificial or the natural property of a body; as a narrow is earned to the natural property of a body; as a narrow is the natural property of a body; as a narrow is the natural property of a body; as a narrow is the natural property of a body; as a narrow is the natural property of a body; as a narrow is the natural property of a body; as a narrow is the natural property of a body; as a narrow is the natural property of a body; as a narrow is the natural property of a body; as a narrow is the natural property of a body; as a narrow is the natural property of a body; as a narrow is the natural property of a body; as a narrow is a natural property of a body; as a narrow is a natural property of a body; as a narrow is a natural property of a body; as a narrow is a natural property of a body; as a narrow is a narrow is a natural property of a body; as a narrow is a narrow is a natural property of a body; as a narrow is a natural property of a body; as a narrow is a natural property of a body; as a narrow is a na row ribbon, or a narrow leaf.

That which is strait is so by the means of other bodies; that which is so of itself, as a piece of water confined close on each side by land, is called a strait; 'They are afraid to meet her if they have missed the church; but then they are more afraid to see her, if they are laced as strait as they can possibly be

LAW. Whatever is bounded by sides that are near each other is narrow; thus a piece of land whose proonged sides are at a small distance from each other is narrow:

No narrow frith

He had to pass .- MILTON.

The same distinction applies to these terms in their moral use: a person in straitened circumstances is kept, by means of his circumstances, from incurring even necessary expenses; a person who is in narrow circumstances is represented as having but a small extent of property.

DISTANT, FAR, REMOTE.

Distant is employed as an adjunct or otherwise; far is used only as an adverb. We speak of distant objects, or objects being distant; but we speak of

things only as being far.

Distant, in Latin distans compounded of di and stans standing asunder, is employed only for bodies at rest; far, in German fern, most probably from gefah rest; far, in German fern, most probably from getar-ren, participle of fabren, in Greek #open to go, signifies gone or removed away, and is employed for bodies either stationary or otherwise; hence we say that a thing is distant, or it goes, runs, or flies far. Distant is used to designate great space; far only

that which is ordinary: the sun is ninety-four millions

that which is ordinary, the sun is finely-four millions of miles distant from the earth; a person lives not very far oil, or a person is far from the spot.

Distant is used absolutely to express an intervening space. Remote, in Latin remotus, participle of removeo to remove, rather expresses the relative idea of being gone out of sight. A person is said to live in a distant country or in a remote corner of any country.

These terms hour a simple application for finely finely and the finely significant of the finely significant or supplies to the supplies the supplies the supplies the supplies the supplies to the supplies the supplies to the supplies the supplies the supplies the supplies to the supplies the supplie

These terms bear a similar analogy in the figurative application; when we speak of a remote idea it designates that which is less liable to strike the mind than a distant idea. A distant relationship between indivi-duals is never altogether lost sight of; when the con-nexton between objects is very remote it easily escapes observation; 'It is a pretty saying of Thales, "False hood is just as far distant from truth as the ears from the eyes," by which he would intimate that a wise man would not easily give credit to the reports of actions which he has not seen.'—SPECTATOR.

O might a parent's careful wish prevail. Far, far from Ition should thy vessels sail, And thou from camps remote the danger shun, Which now, alas! too nearly threats my son.

SHORT, BRIEF, CONCISE, SUCCINCT, SUMMARY.

Short, in French court, German kurz, Latin curtus, Greek κυρτός; brief, in Latin brevis, in Greek βραχός: concise, in Latin concisus, signifies cut into a small body; succinct, in Latin succinctus, participle of succingo, signifies brought within a small compass, sum-

mary, v. Abridgement.

Short is the generick, the rest are specifick terms: every thing which admits of dimensions may be short, as opposed to the long, that is, either naturally or artificially; the rest are species of artificial shortness, or that which is the work of art: hence it is that material, as well as spiritual, objects may be termed short; that, as well as spiritual, objects may be termed short; but the brief, concise, succinct, and summary, are intellectual or spiritual only. We may term a stick, a letter, or a discourse, short; 'The widest excursions of the mind are made by short flights frequently repeated.'—Johnson. We speak of brevity only in regard to the mode of speech; 'Premeditation of thought, and brevity of expression, are the great ingredients of that reverence that is required to a pious and acceptable prayer.'—South. Conciseness and succinctness apply to the matter of speech; 'Aristotle has a dry conciseness, that makes one imagine one is perusing a table of contents. - GRAY.

Let all your precepts be succinct and clear, That ready wits may comprehend them soon. Roscommon.

Summary regards the mode either of speaking or action;

Nor spend their time to show their reading, She 'd have a summary proceeding .- Swift. The brief is opposed to the prolix; the concise and succinct to the diffuse; the summary to the circumstantial or ceremonious. It is a matter of comparatively little importance whether a man's life be long or short; but it deeply concerns him that every moment be well spent. Brevity of expression ought to be consulted by speakers, even more than by writers; conciseness is of peculiar advantage in the formation of rules for young persons: and succinctness is a requi-site in every writer, who has extensive materials to digest: a summary mode of proceeding may have the advantage of saving time, but it has the disadvantage of incorrectness, and often of injustice.

TO CLOSE, SHUT.

Close is to make close; shut is in Saxon scuttan,

Dutch schutten, Hebrew Do to stop up.

Close is to shut, frequently as the means to the end. To close signifies simply to put together; to shut signifies to put together so close that no opening is left The eyes are shut by closing the eyelids; the mouth is shut by closing the lips. The idea of bringing near or joining is prominent in the signification of close; that of fastening or preventing admittance in the word shut. By the figure of metonymy, close may be often substituted for shut; as we may speak of closing the eyes or the mouth; closing a book or a door in the sense of shutting, particularly in poetry;

Soon shall the sire Seraglio's horrid gates Close like the eternal bars of death upon thee. JOHNSON

On the other hand, the poets may sometimes use shut where close would be more appropriate;

Behold, fond man!

See here thy pictur'd life: pass some few years Thy flowering spring, thy summer's ardent strength, Thy sober autumn rading into age,

And pale conluding winter comes at last,

And shuts the scene.-Thomson.

In ordinary discourse, however, these words are very distinct.

Many things are closed which are not to be shut, and are shut which cannot be closed. Nothing can be closed but which cannot be closed. Nothing can be closed but what consists of more than one part; nothing can be shut but what has or is supposed to have a cavity. A wound is closed, but cannot be shut; a window or a box is shut, but not closed.

When both are applied to hollow bodies, close im-

plies a stopping up of the whole, shut an occasional stoppage at the entrance. What is closed remains clusted; what is shut may be opened. A hole in a road, or a passage through any place is closed; a gate,

a window, or a door, is shut.

TO CLOSE, FINISH, CONCLUDE.

To close signifies literally to make close, or bring as near together as they ought to be, and in an extended sense, to bring things to the point where they ought to end; to finish, from the Lain finis an end, and con-clude, from con and cludo or cludo to shut, have the same general and literal meaning as close.

To close is to bring to an end; to finish is to make an end: we close a thing by ceasing to have any thing more to do with it; we finish it by really having no more to do to it. We close an account with a person with whom we mean to have no farther transactions;

we finish the business which we have begun.

It is sometimes necessary to close without finishing, but we cannot finish without closing. The want of time will compel a person to close his letter before he this will compete a person to task in state the has finished saying all he wishes. It is a laudable desire in every one to wish to close his career in life honourably, and to finish whatever he undertakes to the satisfaction of himself and others.

To conclude is a species of finishing, that is to say, To conclude is a species of initisting, that is to say, finishing in a certain manner; we always finish when we conclude, but we do not always conclude when we finish. A history is closed at a certain reign; it is finished when brought to the period proposed; it is concluded with a recapitulation of the leading

Close and finish are employed generally, and in the ordinary transactions of life; the former in speaking

of times, seasons, periods, &c. the latter with regard to occupations and pursuits; conclusion is used particularly in speaking of moral and intellectual operations. A reign, an entertainment, an age, a year, may have its close; a drawing, an exercise, a piece of work, may be finished; a discourse, a story, an affair, a negotiation may be concluded. The close of Alfred's reign was more peaceful than the commencement: those who are careful as to what they begin will be careful to finish what they have begun: some preachers seldom awaken attention in their hearers until they come to the conclusion of their discourse;

Destruction hangs on every word we speak, On every thought, till the concluding stroke Determines all, and closes our design.

'The great work of which Justinian has the credit, although it comprehends the whole system of jurisprudence, was finished, we are told, in three years.'—Sir Wm. Jones.

COMPLETE, PERFECT, FINISHED.

Complete, in French complet, Latin completus, participle of compleo to fill up, signifies the quality of being filled, or having all that is necessary; perfect, in Latin perfectus, participle of perficio to perform or do thoroughly, signifies the state of being done thoroughly; finished marks the state of being finished (v. To close).

That is complete which has no deficiency: that is perfect which has positive excellence; and that is

finished which has no omission in it.

That to which any thing can be added is incomplete; when it can be improved it is imperfect; when more labour ought to be bestowed upon it it is unfinished. A thing is complete in all its parts; 'With us the reading of the Scripture is a part of our church liturgy, a special portion of the service which we do to God, and not an exercise to spend the time, when one doth wait for another coming, till the assembly of them that shall afterward worship him be complete. -HOOKER. A thing is perfect as to the beauty and design of the construction; 'It has been observed of children, that they are longer before they can pronounce perfect sounds, because perfect sounds are not pronounced to them.'—HAWKENWORTH. We count those things perfect which want nothing requisite for the end, whereto they are instituted.—Hooker. A thing is finished as it comes from the hand of the workman, and answers his intention. A set of books is not complete when a volume is wanting: there is nothing in the proper sense perfect which is the work of man; but the term is used relatively for whatever makes the greatest approach to perfection: a finished performance evinces care and diligence on the part of the workman; 'I would make what bears your name as finished as my last work ought to be; that is more finished than the rest.'—Pope. A taste is said to be perfect to denote its intrinsick excellence, but it is said to be finished to denote its acquired excellence: 'It is and to be finished to denote its acquired excellence: 'It is necessary for a man who would form to himself a finished taste of good writing, to be well versed in the works of the best criticks, ancient and modern.'—Ap-DISON

A thing may be complete or finished without being perfect; and it may be perfect without being either complete or finished. A sound is said to be perfect, but not complete or finished. The works of the ancients are, as they have been handed down to us, incomplete, and some probably unfinished; and yet the greater part are perfect in their way: the works of the moderns are mostly complete and finished; yet but a small part have any claims even to human perfection. The term complete may be applied in a bad as well as good sense: a complete knave implies one who is versed in every part of knavery;

None better guard against a cheat, Than he who is a knave complete .- LEWIS.

TO COMPLETE, FINISH, TERMINATE.

Complete is to make complete; finish and termisate have been explained in the preceding article

We complete* what is undertaken by continuing to labour at it; we finish what is begun in a state of forwardness by putting the last hand to it; we terminate what ought not to last by bringing it to a close. So that the characteristick idea of completing is the conducting of a thing to its final period; that of finish ing, the arrival at that period; and that of terminating, the cessation of a thing.

Completing has properly relation to permanent works only, whether mechanical or intellectual; we desire a thing to be completed from a curiosity to see it in its entire state; 'It is perhaps kindly provided by nature, that as the feathers and strength of a bird grow together, and her wings are not completed till she is able to fly, so some proportion should be preserved in the human kind between judgement and courage.'— Johnson. To finish is employed for passing occupations; we wish a thing finished from an anxiety to proceed to something else, or a dislike to the thing in which we are engaged; 'The artificer, for the manufacture which he finishes in a day, receives a certain sum; but the wit frequently gains no advantage from a performance at which he has toiled many months.' -HAWKESWORTH. Terminating respects discussions, ifferences, and disputes. Light minds undertake differences, and disputes. Light minds undertake many things without completing any. Children and unsteady people set about many things without finish-Litigious people terminate one dispute only ing any. to commence another.

CONSUMMATION, COMPLETION.

Consummation, Latin consummatio, compounded of con and summa the sum, signifies the summing or winding up of the whole—the putting a final period to any concern; completion signifies either the act of completing, or the state of being completed (v. To complete)

The arrival at a conclusion is comprehended in both these terms, but they differ principally in application; wishes are consummated; plans are completed: we often flatter ourselves that the completion of all our plans will be the consummation of all our wishes, and thus expose ourselves to grievous disappointments: the consummation of the nuptial ceremony is not always the consummation of hopes and joys: it is frequently the beginning of misery and disappointment: It is not to be doubted but it was a constant practice It is not to be doubted but it was a constant practice of all that is praiseworthy, which made her capable of beholding death, not as the dissolution but the consummation of life. "STEELE. We often sacrifice much to the completion of a purpose which we afterward find not worth the labour of attaining; 'He makes it the utmost completion of an ill character to bear a malevolence to the best of men.'-Pope.

As epithets, consummate is employed only in a bad sense, and complete either in a good or bad sense those who are regarded as complete fools are not unfrequently consummate knaves: the theatre is not the only place for witnessing a farce; human life affords many of various descriptions; among the number of which we may reckon those as complete in their kind which are acted at elections, where consummate folly and consummate hypocrisy are practised by turns.

RIPE, MATURE.

Ripe is the English, mature the Latin word; the former has a universal application, both proper and improper; the latter has mostly an improper application. The idea of completion in growth is simply designated by the former term; the idea of moral perfection, as far at least as it is attainable, is marked by the latter: fruit is ripe when it requires no more sustenance from the parent stock; a judgement is mature which requires no more time and knowledge to render it perfect or fitted for exercise: in the same manner a project may be said to be ripe for execution, or a people ripe for revolt;

So to his crowne, she him restor'd againe, In which he dyde, made ripe for death by eld

On the contrary, reflection may be said to be mature to which sufficiency of time has been given, and age

* Vide Girard; "Achever, finir, terminer,"

may be said to be mature which has attained the be taken or considered in the gross, that is, in the large highest pitch of perfection;

Th' Athenian sage, revolving in his mind This weakness, blindness, madness of mankind, Foretold that in maturer days, though late, When time should ripen the decrees of fate, Some god would light us.—Jenyns.

Ripeness is however not always a good quality; but maturity is always a perfection: the ripeness of some fruit diminishes the excellence of its flavour; there are some fruits which have no flavour until they come to maturity.

WHOLE, ENTIRE, COMPLETE, TOTAL, INTEGRAL.

Whole excludes subtraction; entire excludes division; complete excludes deficiency: a whole orange has nad nothing taken from it; an entire orange is not yet cut; and a complete orange is grown to its full size. It is possible, therefore, for a thing to be whole and not entire; and to be both, and yet not complete: an orange cut into parts is whole while all the parts remain together, but it is not entire. Hence we speak of a whole house, an entire set, and a complete book.

the wholeness or integrity of a thing is destroyed at me's pleasure; the completeness depends upon cir-Amstances.

Total denotes the aggregate of the parts; whole the junction of all the parts: the former is, therefore, employed more in the moral sense to convey the idea of extent, and the latter mostly in the proper sense. Hence we speak of the total destruction of the whole city, or of some particular houses; the total amount of expenses; the whole expense of the war. Whole

and total may in this manner be employed to denote things as well as qualities: in regard to material sub-stances wholes are always opposed to the parts of which they are composed; the total is the collected sum of the parts: and the integral is the same as the

integral number.

The first four may likewise be employed as adverbs; The first four may likewise be employed as adverbs; but wholly is a more familiar term than totally in expressing the idea of extent; entirely is the same as undividedly; completely is the same as perfectly, without any thing wanting. We are wholly or totally ignorant of the affair; we are entirely at the disposal or service of another; we are completely at variance in our accounts.

All these terms, except the last, are applied to moral

objects with a similar distinction;

And all so forming an harmonious whole.

THOMSON.

'The entire conquest of the passions is so difficult a work, that they who despair of it should think of a less difficult task, and only attempt to regulate them.' -STEELE.

And oft, when unobserv'd, Steal from the barn a straw, till soft and warm, Clean and complete, their habitation grows THOMSON.

Nothing under a total thorough change in the convert will suffice.'-South.

GROSS, TOTAL.

Gross is connected with the word great: from the dea of size which enters into the original meaning of this term is derived that of quantity: total, from the Latin totus, signifies literally the whole. The gross implies that from which nothing has been taken: the total signifies that to which nothing need be added: the gross sum includes every thing without regard to what it may be: the total includes every thing which one wishes to include: we may, therefore, deduct from the grass that which does not immediately belong to it; but the total is that which admits of no deduction. nt; but the total is that which admits of no deduction. The gross weight is trade is applicable to any article, the whole of which, good or bad, pure or dross, is included in opposition to the neat weight; the total amount supposes all to be included which ought to form a part, in opposition to any smaller amounts or subdivisions; when employed in the improper sense, they preserve the same distinction . things are said to

and comprehensive way, one with another. 'I have more than once found fault with those general reflections which strike at kingdoms or commonwealths in the gross.'—Addison. Things are said to undergo a total change; 'Nature' is either collected into one total, or diffused and distributed.'—Bacox.

TO ACCOMPLISH, EFFECT, EXECUTE. ACHIEVE.

Accomplish, in French accomplir, is compounded of the intensive syllable ac or ad and complir, in Latin compleo to complete, signifying to complete to the end; effect, in Latin effectus, participle of efficio, compound ed of ef and ex out of or up, and facto to make, sig nifies to make up until nothing remains to be done execute, in Latin executus, participle of exequor, compounded of ex and equor or sequor to follow, signifies to follow up or carry through to the end; achieve, in French achever, from chef a chief, signifies to perform

reent acreer, from ener a cinet, signines to perform as a chief, or perfectly.

We accomplish an object, effect a purpose, execute a project, achieve an enterprise. Perseverance is requisite for accomplishing, means for effecting, abilities for executing, and spirit for achieving. Some persons are always striving to attain an end without ever accomplishing the end of the control of the end of the control of the end complishing what they propose; 'It is the first rule in oratory that a man must appear such as he would persuade others to be; and that can be accomplished only by the force of his life.'—Swift. It is the part of wisdom to suit the means to the end when we have of wisdom to suit the means to the end when we have any scheme to effect; 'Reason considers the motive, the means, and the end; and honours courage only when it is employed to effect the purpose of virtue.'—HAWKESWORTH. Those who are readiest in forming pojects are not always the fittest for carrying them into execution; 'We are not to indulge our corporeal appetites with pleasures that impair our intellectual vigour, nor gratify our minds with schemes which we have not lives must fail in attentions to execute.' know our lives must fail in attempting to execute. JOHNSON. That ardour of character which impels to the achievement of arduous undertakings belongs but to very few; 'It is more than probable, that in case our freethinkers could once achieve their glorious design of sinking the credit of the Christian religion, and causing the revenues to be withdrawn which their wiser forefathers had appointed to the support and encouragement of its teachers, in a little time the Shaster would be as intelligible as the Greek Testament.'-BERKELEY.

We should never give up what we have the least chance of accomplishing, if it be worth the labour; nor pursue any plan which affords us no prospect of effecting what we wish; nor undertake what we do not feel ourselves competent to execute, particularly when there is any thing extraordinary to achieve. The friends of humanity exerted their utmost endeavours in hehalf of the enslaved Africans, and after many years' noble struggle at length accomplished their wishes as far as respects Great Britain, by obtaining a legislative enactment against the slave trade; but they have not yet been able to effect the total abolition of this nefarious traffick: the vices of individuals still interfere with the due execution of the laws of their country: yet this triumph of humanity, as far as it has been successful, exceeds in greatness the boldest

achievements of antiquity.

ACCOMPLISHED,* PERFECT.

These epithets express an assemblage of all the qualities suitable to the subject; and mark the qualifica-tion in the highest degree. Accomplished refers only to the artificial refinements of the mind; perfect is said of things in general, whether natural or artificial, mental and corporeal.

mental and corporeal.

An acquaintance with modern languages and the ornamental branches of the arts and selences constitutes a person accomplished; For who expects that, under a tutor, a young gentleman should be an accomplished publick orator or logician. Locke. The highest possible degree of skill in any art constitutes a man a perfect artist;

* Vide Abbe Girard: "Accompli, parfait."

Within a ken our army lies, Our men more perfect in the use of arms.

SHAKSPEARE.

An accomplished man needs no moral endowment to entitle him to the name; 'The English nation in the time of Shakspeare was yet struggling to emerge from barbarity; and to be able to read and write was an Darbarnty; and to be able to read and write was an accomplishment still valued for its rarity.—Johnson. A perfect man, if such a one there could be, must be free from every moral imperfection, and endowed with every virtue; 'A man endowed with great perfections, without good breeding, is like one who has his pocket full of gold, but always wants change for his ordinary occasions.'-STEELE. Accomplished is applied only to persons; perfect is applicable not only to persons but to works, and everything else as occa-sion requires; it may likewise be employed in a bad sense to magnify any unfavourable quality.

QUALIFICATION, ACCOMPLISHMENT.

The qualification serves the purpose of utility; the accomplishment serves to adorn: by the first we enabled to make ourselves useful; by the second we

are enabled to make ourselves agreeable.

The qualifications of a man who has an office to perform must be considered: of a man who has only pleasure to pursue the accomplishments are to be conpleasure to pursue the accomparaments are to be considered. A readiness with one's pen, and a facility at accounts, are necessary qualifications either for a school or a counting-house; 'The companion of an evening, and the companion for life, require very different qualifications. —Johnson. Drawing is one of the most agreeable and suitable accomplishments that can be given to a young person; 'Where nature be-stows genius, education will give accomplishments.'— CUMBERLAND.

TO FULFIL, ACCOMPLISH, REALIZE.

To fulfil is literally to fill quite full, that is, to bring about full to the wishes of a person; accomplish (v. To accomplish) is to bring to perfection, but without reference to the wishes of any one; to realize is to make real, namely, whatever has been aimed at. The application of these terms is evident from their explications: the wishes, the expectations, the intentions, and promises of an individual, are appropriately said to be fulfilled; national projects, or undertakings, prophecies, and whatever is of general interest, are to be accomplished: the fortune, or the prospects of an individual, or whatever results successfully from speindividual, or whatever results successfully from specifick efforts, is said to be realized: the fulfillment of wishes may be as much the effect of good fortune as of design; 'The palsied dotard looks round him, perceives himself to be alone; he has survived his friends, and he wishes to follow them; his wish is fulfilled; he drops torpid and insensible into that gulf which is deeper than the grave.'-HAWKESWORTH. The accomplishment of projects mostly results from extraordinary exertion, as the accomplishment of prophecies results from a miraculous exertion of power: 'God bless you, sweet boy! and accomplish the joyful hope I conceived of you.'—Sir Philip Sidney. The realization of hopes results more commonly from the slow process of moderate well-combined efforts than from any thing extraordinary; 'After my fancy had been busied in attempting to realize the scenes that Shakspeare drew, I regretted that the labour was ineffectual.' HAWKESWORTH.

TO KEEP, OBSERVE, FULFIL.

These terms are synonymous in the moral sense of abiding by, and carrying into execution, what is prescribed or set before one for his rule of conduct: to keep (v. To keep) is simply to have by one in such manner that it shall not depart; to observe, from the Latin observo, i. e. ob and servo to keep in one's view, is to keep with a steady attention; to fulfil (v. To accomplish) is to keep to the end or to the full intent. A comprised is to keep to the end of to the full litterit. At day is either kept or observed; yet the former is not only a more familiar term, but it likewise implies a much less solemn act than the latter; one must add, therefore, the mode in which it is kept, by saying that it is kept holy, kept sacred or kept as a day of pleasure;

the term observe, however, implies always that it is kept religiously; we may keep, but we do not observe a birth-day; we keep or observe the Sabbath.

To keep marks simply perseverance or continuance in a thing; a man keeps his word if he do not depart

It is a great sin to swear unto a sin,
But greater sin to keep a sinful oath.—Shakspeare.

To observe marks fidelity and consideration; we observe a rule when we are careful to be guided by it; 'I doubt whether any of our authors have yet been able for twenty lines together, nicely to observe the true Tofulfil marks definition of easy poetry.'-Johnson. the perfection and consummation of that the perfection and consummation of that which one has kept; we fulfil a promise by acting in strict conformity to it; 'You might have seen this poor child arrived at an age to fulfil all your hopes, and then you might have lost him.'—Gray.

A person is said to keep the law when he does not commit any violent breach of it; he observes every minutia in the law, if he is anxious to show himself a

good citizen; by this conduct he fulfils the intentions of the legislator: St. Paul recommends to Christians to keep the faith, which they can never do effectually to seep the rath, which they can never do effectually, unless they observe all the precepts of our Saviour, and thereby fubil the law: children may keep silence when they are desired; but it is seldom in their power to observe it as a rule, because they have not sufficient

understanding.

TO EXECUTE, FULFIL, PERFORM.

To execute (v. To accomplish) is more than to fulfil To execute (v. To accomplish) is more than to fulfil and to fulfil than to perform, which signifies to form thoroughly or make complete. To execute is to bring about an end; it involves active measures, and is peculiarly applicable to that which is extraordinary, or that which requires particular spirit and talents; schemes of ambition are executed, and great designs are executed.

Why delays His hand to execute what his decree Fix'd on this day?—Milton.

To fulfil is to satisfy a moral obligation; it is appli cable to those duties in which rectitude and equity are involved; we fulfil the duties of citizens, but one may also fulfil purposes good or bad;

To whom the white-arm'd goddess thus replies Enough thou know'st the tyrant of the skies, Severely bent his purpose to fulfil,

Unmov'd his mind, and unrestrain'd his will.—Pope

To perform is to carry through by simple action or labour; it is more particularly applicable to the ordinary and regular business of life; we perform a work or an office:

When those who round the wasted fires remain. Perform the last sad office to the slain .- DRYDEN.

One executes according to the intentions of others; the soldier executes the orders of his general; the merchant executes the commissions of his correspondent; ' He casts into the balance the promise of a reward to such as should execute, and of punishment to such as should neglect, their commission.—South. One fulfils according to the wishes and expectations of others; it is the part of an honest man to enter into no engagements which he cannot fulfil; it is the part of a dutiful son, by diligence and assiduity, to endeavour to fulfil the expectations of an anxious parent;

If on my wounded breast thou drop'st a tear, Think for whose sake my breast that wound did bear, And faithfully my last desires fulfil,

As I perform my cruel father's will.

One performs according to circumstances, what suits one's own convenience and purposes; every good man is anxious to perform his part in life with credit and advantage to himself and others; 'He effectually performed his part with great integrity, learning, and acuteness; with the exactness of a scholar, and the judgement of a complete divine.'--WATERLAND.

TO EFFECT, PRODUCE, PERFORM.

The two latter are in reality included in the former; what is effected is both produced and performed; but

effect (v. Accomplish) signifies to make out affected; effect (v. Accomplish) signifies to make out any thing; produce, from the Latin produce, signifies literally to draw forth; perform, compounded of per and form, signifies to form thoroughly or carry through.

To produce signifies to bring something forth or into originate originates.

into existence; to perform, to do something to the end:
to effect is to produce by performing: whatever is
effected is the consequence of a specifick design; it egectea is the consequence of a specific design; it always requires therefore a conscious agent to effect; 'The united powers of hell are joined together for the destruction of mankind, which they effected in part.'—ADDISON. What is produced may follow incidentally, or arise from the action of an irrational agent or an insulinate object.' Though predene design. inanimate object; 'Though prudence does in a great measure produce our good or ill fortune, there are many unforeseen occurrences which pervert the finest schemes that can be laid by human wisdom."—Addi-son. What is performed is done by specifick efforts it is therefore like what is effected, the consequence of design, and requires a rational agent; 'Where there is a power to perform, God does not accept the will.' -South.

Effect respects both the end and the means by which it is brought about; we speak of the object to be effected, and the way of effecting it: produce has a particular reference to the end or the thing produced; perform to the means or to the course pursued. No person ought to calculate on effecting a reformation in the morals of men, without the aid of religion. Small changes in society often produce great evils. The perchanges in society often produce great evils. The per-formance of a person's duty is estimated according as it is faithful or otherwise.

It is taithful or otherwise.

To effect is said of that which emanates from the mind of the agent himself; to perform, of that which is marked out by rule, or prescribed by another. We effect a purpose; we perform a part, a duty, or office. A true Christian is always happy when he can effect a reconciliation between parties who are at variance: it is a laudable ambition to strive to perform one's part

creditably in society.

EFFECTIVE, EFFICIENT, EFFECTUAL, EFFICACIOUS.

Effective signifies capable of effecting; efficient signifies literally effecting; effectual and efficacious signify having the effect, or possessing the power to effect. The former two are used only in regard to physical objects, the latter two in regard to moral objects. An army or a military force is effective; 'I should suspend my congratulations on the new liberties of France, until I was informed how it had been combined with until I was informed now it had been combined with government, with the discipline of the armies, and the collection of an effective revenue.'—BURKE. A cause is efficient; 'No searcher has yet found the efficient cause of sleep.'—Johnson. A remedy or cure is effectual; 'Nothing so effectually deadens the taste of the mathematical and the control of the sublime, as that which is light and radiant.'-BURKE. A medicine is efficacious, and in the moral

tense motives or measures are termed efficacious.

The end or result is effectual, the means are efficacious. No effectual stop can be put to the vices of the lower orders, while they have a vicious example from their superiours; 'Sometimes the sight of the altar, and decent preparations for devotion, may compose and recover the wandering mind more effectually than and recover the wandering mind more effectually than a sermon.'—Sourm. A seasonable exercise of severity on an offender is often very efficacious in quelling a spirit of insubordination. When a thing is not found effectual, it is requisite to have recourse to farther measures; that which has been proved to be incfificacious should never be adopted; 'He who labours to lessen the dignity of human nature, destroys many efficacious motives for practising worthy actions.'—Warton.

VAIN, INEFFECTUAL, FRUITLESS.

Vain, v. Idle; ineffectual, that is, not effectual (e. Effective); fruitless, that is, without fruit, signifies not producing the desired fruit of one's labour.
These epithets are all applied to our endeavours;

but the term vain is the most general and indefinite; the other terms are particular and definite. What we aim at, as well as what we strive for, may be vain; but ineffectual and fruitless refer only to the termina-

what is produced or performed is not always effected; tion of our labours. When the object aimed at is effect (v. Accomplish) signifies to make out any thing; general in its import, it is common to term the endeaproduce, from the Latin produce, signifies literally to vour vain when it cannot attain this object: it is vain to attempt to reform a person's character until he is convinced that he stands in need of reformation;

> Vain is the force of man To crush the pillars which the piles sustain. DRYDEN.

Nature aloud calls out for balmy rest, But all in nain .- GENTLEMAN.

When the means employed are inadequate for the at tainment of the particular end, it is usual to call the endeavour ineffectual; cool arguments will be ineffectual in convincing any one inflamed with a parti

cular passion;
Thou thyself with scorn And anger would resent the offer'd wrong, Though ineffectual found.—MILTON.

When labour is specifically employed for the attainment of a particular object, it is usual to term it fruit-less if it fail: peace-makers will often find themselves in this condition, that their labours will be rendered fruitless by the violent passions of angry opponents; 'After many fruitless overtures, the Inca, despuiring of any cordial union with a Spaniard, attacked him by surprise with a numerous body.'—Robertson.

EFFECT, CONSEQUENCE, RESULT, ISSUE, EVENT.

Effect signifies that which is effected or produced by an operating cause; consequence, in French consequence, Latin consequentia, from consequor to follow, signifies that which follows in connexion with something else; result, in French resulte, Latin resulto or resultus and resilio to rebound, signifies that which springs or bounds back from another thing; event has the same signification as given under the head of Accident; issue signifies that which issues or flows out of another thing.

Effect and consequence agree in expressing that which follows any thing, but the former marks what follows from a connexion between the two objects; the term consequence is not thus limited: an effect is that which necessarily flows out of the cause, between which the connexion is so intimate that we cannot think of the one without the other. In the nature of things, causes will have effects; and for every effect there will be a cause: a consequence, on the other hand, may be either casual or natural; it is that on which we cannot calculate. Effect applies either to physical or moral objects, consequence only to moral subjects.

There are many diseases which are the effects of mere intemperance: an imprudent step in one's first setting out in life is often attended with fatal conse-quences. A mild answer has the effect of turning queness. A find answer has the eyect of turning away wrath; 'A passion for praise produces very good effects.'—Abdison. The loss of character is the general consequence of an irregular life; 'Were it possible for any thing in the Christian faith to be erroneous, I can find no ill consequences in adhering to it.' -ADDISON.

Consequences flow of themselves from the nature of things; results are drawn. Consequences proceed from actions in general; results proceed from particular efforts and attempts. Consequences are good or bad; 'Jealousy often draws after it a fatal train of consequences. Addison. Results are successful or unsuccessful; 'The state of the world is continually changing, and none can tell the result of the next vicissitude. Jourson.

We endeavour to avert consequences which threaten to be bad; we endeavour to produce results that are according to our wishes. Not to foresee the consequences which are foreseen by others, evinces a more than ordinary share of indiscretion and infatuation To calculate on a favourable result from an ill-judges and ill-executed enterprise, only proves a consistential

The term event respects great undertakings; issue particular efforts; consequence respects every thing which can produce a consequence. Hence we speak of the event of a war: the issue of a negotiation and the consequences of either. The measures of

government are often unjustly praised or blamed ac- | objects; yet we may say, in conformity to the original cording to the event; 'It has always been the practice of mankind to judge of actions by the events.'--Johnson. The fate of a nation sometimes hangs on the issue of a battle; 'A mild, unruffled, self-possessing mind is a blessing more important to real felicity than all that can be gained by the triumphant issue of some all that can be gained by the triumphant issue of some violent contest. "BLAIR. The conquest of a nation is one of the consequences which follow the defeat of its armies; 'Henley in one of his advertisements had mentioned Pope's treatment of Savage; this was supposed by Pope to be the consequence of a complaint made by Savage to Henley, and was therefore mentioned by him with much resentment."—Johnson. We must be prepared for events, which are frequently above our control: we must exert ourselves to bring about a favourable *issue*; address and activity will go far towards ensuring success: but if after all our efforts we still fail, it is our duty to submit with patient resignation to the consequences.

TO ARISE, PROCEED, ISSUE, SPRING, FLOW, EMANATE.

Arise in its original meaning signifies to go upwards (v. To arise), but is here taken in the sense of coming out from; proceed, in Latin procedo, that is pro and cedo to go, signifies to go forth; issue, in French issue, comes from the Latin isse or ivisse, infinite of eo, and the Hebrew XY to go out; spring, in German springen, comes from rinnen to run like water, and is connected with the Greek $\beta \rho \omega \epsilon \nu$ to pour out; $\beta \rho \omega_r$ in Saxon Reorean, Low German flogran, High German fleessen, Latin fluo, &cc., all from the Greek βλύω or βλύζω, which is an onomatopeia expressing the murmur of waters; *emanate*, in Latin *emanatus*, participle of *emano*, compounded of *mano* to flow, from the Hebrew מים and Chaldee מין waters, expressing the motion of waters.

The idea of one object coming out of another is ex-

pressed by all these terms, but they differ in the circumstances of the action. What comes up out of a body and rises into existence is said to arise, as the mist which rises or arises out of the sea;

From roots hard hazels, and from scions rise Tall ash, and taller oak that mates the skies.

What comes forth as it were gradually into observation is said to proceed;

Teach me the various labours of the moon, And whence proceed the eclipses of the sun. DRYDEN.

Thus the light proceeds from a certain quarter of the heavens, or from a certain part of a house: what comes out from a small aperture is said to issue; perspiration issues through the pores of the skin; water issues sometimes from the sides of rocks: what comes out in a sudden or quick manner, or comes from some remote source, is said to spring; thus blood springs from an artery which is pricked; water springs up out of the earth: what comes out in quantities or in a stream is said to flow; thus blood flows from a wound; to emanate is a species of flowing by a natural operation, when bodies send forth, or seem to send forth, particles of their own composition from themselves; thus light emanates from the sun.

This distinction in the signification of these terms s kept up in their moral acceptation, where the idea of one thing originating from another is common to them all; but in this case arise is a general term, which simply implies the coming into existence; but proceed conveys also the idea of a progressive movement into existence. Every object therefore may be said to arise out of whatever produces it; but it proceeds from it only when it is gradually produced: evils are continually arising in human society for which there is no specifick remedy; 'The greatest misfortunes men fall into arise from themselves.'—STEELE. In complicated disorders it is not always possible to say precisely from what the complaint of the patient proceeds :

But whence proceed these hopes, or whence this dread, If nothing really can affect the dead ?- JENYNS.

Issue is seldom used but in application to sensible

meaning, that words issue from the mouth;

As when some huntsman with a flying spear From the blind thicket wounds a stately deer. Down his cleft side while fresh the blood distils, He bounds aloft and scuds from hills to hills, Till life's warm vapour issuing through the wound Wild mountain wolves the fainting beast surround.

' Providence is the great sanctuary to the afflicted who maintain their integrity: and often there has issued from this sanctuary the most seasonable relief.'-Blair. The idea of the distant source or origin is kept up in the moral application of the term spring, when we say that actions spring from a generous or corrupt

All from utility this law approve, As every private bliss must spring from social love.

The idea of a quantity and a stream is preserved in the moral use of the terms flow and emanate: but the former may be said of that which is not inherent in the body: the latter respects that only which forms a component part of the body: God is the spring whence all our blessings flow: all authority emanates from God, who is the supreme source of all things: theologians, when speaking of God, say that the Son emanates from the Father, and the Holy Ghost from the Father and the Son, and that grace flows upon us incessantly from the inexhaustible treasures of Divine Incessanty from the hexanustible treasures of Divine mercy; 'As light and heat flow from the sun as their centre, so bliss and joy flow from the Deity.'—BLAIR. 'As in the next world so in this, the only solid blessings are owing to the goodness of the mind, not the extent of the capacity; friendship here is an emanation from the same source as beatitude there.'—

TO RISE, ISSUE, EMERGE.

To rise (v. To arise) may either refer to open or To rise (v. To arise) may either refer to open or enclosed spaces; issue (v. To arise) and emerge, in Latin emergo to rise out of, have both a reference to some confined body: a thing may either rise in a body, without a body, or out of a body, but they issue and emerge out of a body. A thing may either rise in a plain or a wood; it issues out of a wood: it may either rise in water or out of the water; it emerges from the water; that which rises out of a thing comes into view by becoming higher: in this manner an air balloon might rise out of a wood;

Ye mists and exhalations that now rise, In honour to the world's great author rise

That which issues comes out in a line with the object: horsemen issue from a wood; that which issues comess from the very depths of it, and comes as it were ou Does not the earth quit scores with all the elements in the noble fruits and productions that issue from it?—South. That which emerges proceeds from the thing in which it has been, as it were, concealed;

Let earth dissolve, you ponderous orbs descend, And grind us into dust, the soul is safe, The man emerges .- Young.

Hence in a moral or extended application, a person is said to rise in life without a reference to his former condition; but he emerges from obscurity: colour rises in the face; but words issue from the mouth

OFFSPRING, PROGENY, ISSUE.

Offspring is that which springs off or from : progeny that which is brought forth or out of; issue that which issues or proceeds from; and all in relation to the family or generation of the human species. Offspring is a familiar term applicable to one or many children; progeny is employed only as a collective noun for a progeny is employed only as a collective notin for a number; issue is used in an indefinite manner without particular regard to number. When we speak of the children themselves, we denominate them the of-spring; 'The same cause that has drawn the hatred of God and man upon the father of liers may justly entail it upon his offspring too'—South. When we their progeny;

The base, degen'rate iron offspring ends, A golden progeny from Heav'n descends DRYDEN.

A child is said to be the only offspring of his parents, or he is said to be the offspring of low parents; a man is said to have a numerous or a healthy progeny, or to leave his progeny in circumstances of honour and prosperity. The issue is said only in regard to a man prosperity. that is deceased: he dies with male or female issue, with or without issue; his property descends to his male issue in a direct line;

Next him King Leyr, in happy place long reigned, But had no issue male him to succeed.—Spenser.

ORIGIN ORIGINAL, BEGINNING, RISE, SOURCE.

Origin or original both come from the Latin orior to rise: the former designating the abstract property of rising: the latter the thing that is risen. The origin rising; the latter the thing that is risen. The origin is said only of things that rise; the original is said of those which give an origin to another: the original serves to date the existence of a thing; the original serves to show the author of a thing, and is opposed to the copy. The origin of the world is described in the first chapter of Genesis; Adam was the original from whom all the human race has sprung;

And had his better half, his bride, Carv'd from th' original, his side. BUTLER.

The origin has respect to the cause; the beginning to the period of existence: every thing owes its existence to the origin; it dates its existence from the beginning: there cannot be an origin without a beginning; but there may be a beginning where we do not speak of an origin. We look to the origin of a thing speak of an origin. We look to the origin of a thing in order to learn its nature; 'Christianity explains the origin of all the disorders which at present take place on earth.'—BLAIR. We look to the beginning in order to learn its duration or other circumstances;

But wit and weaving had the same beginning, Pallas first taught in poetry and spinning.-Swift.

When we have discovered the origin of a quarrel, we are in a fair way of becoming acquainted with the aggressors; when we trace a quarrel to the beginning, we may easily ascertain how long it has lasted.

The origin and the rise are both employed for the primary state of existence; but the latter is a much more familiar term than the former: we speak of the origin of an empire, the origin of a family, the origin of a dispute, and the like; but we say that a river takes its rise from a certain mountain, that certain disorders take their rise from particular circumstances which happen in early life: it is moreover observable that the origin is confined solely to the first commencement of a thing's existence; but the rise comprehends its gradual progress in the first stages of its existence 'The friendship which is to be practised or expected by common mortals must take its rise from mutual by common the state origin of the noblest fam-pleasure.'—Johnson. The origin of the noblest fam-lies is in the first instance sometimes ignoble; the look to the origin as to the cause of existence: look to the rise as to the situation in which the thing commences to exist, or the process by which it grows up into existence. It is in vain to attempt to search the *crigin* of evil, unless as we find it explained in the word of God. Evil diseases take their *rise* in certain parts of the body, and after lying for some time dormant, break out in after-life.

The origin and rise are said of only one subject; the source is said of that which produces a succession of objects: the *origin* of evil in general has given *rise* to much speculation; the love of pleasure is the *source* of incalculable mischiefs to individuals, as well as to society at large;

Famous Greece. That source of art and cultivated thought Which they to Rome, and Romans hither brought. WALLER.

The origin exists but once; the source is lasting; 'One source of the sublime is infinity.'—BURKE. The

speak of the parents, we denominate the children | origin of every family is to be traced to our first parent, Adam: we have a never-failing source of consolation in religion.

TO BEGIN, COMMENCE, ENTER UPON.

Begin, in German beginnen, is compounded of be and ginnen, probably a frequentative of gehen to go, signifying to go first to a thing; commence, in French commencer, is not improbably derived from the Latin commendo, signifying to betake one's self to a thing; enter, in Latin intro within, signifies, with the prepo-

sition upon, to go into a thing.

Begin and commence are so strictly allied in signinification, that it is not easy to discover the difference in their application; although a minute difference does exist. To begin respects the order of time; 'When beginning to act your part, what can be of greater moment than to regulate your plan of conduct with the most serious attention?—Blair. To commence implies the exertion of setting about a thing; 'By the destination of his Creator, and the necessities of his nature, man commences at once an active, not merely a contemplative, being. "Blatm. Whoever begins a dispute is termed the aggressor; no one should commence a dispute unless he can calculate the consequences, and as this is impracticable, it is better never decided by law. Begin is opposed to end: commence to complete: a person begins a thing with a view of ending it; he commences a thing with a view of com pleting it.

To begin is either transitive or intransitive; to com mence is mostly transitive: a speaker begins by apologizing; he commences his speech with an apology: happiness frequently ends where prosperity begins whoever commences any undertaking, without emating his own power, must not expect to succeed.

To begin is used either for things or persons; to commence for persons only: all things have their be ginning; in order to effect any thing, we must make a commencement: a word begins with a particular letter, or a line begins with a particular word; a person commences his career. Lastly, begin is more colloquial than commence: thus we say, to begin the work; to commence the operation: to begin one's play; to commence the pursuit: to begin to write; to commence the

To commence and enter upon are as closely allied in sense as the former words; they differ principally in application: to commence seems rather to denote the making an experiment;

If wit so much from ign'rance undergo. Ah! let not learning too commence its foe!

To enter upon, that of first doing what has not been tried before: we commence an undertaking; 'If any man has a mind to enter upon such a voluntary abstinence, it might not be improper to give him the caution of Pythagoras, in particular: Abstine a fabis, tion of rythagoras, in particular: Assume a Jacas, that is, say the interpreters, "meddle not with elections." "-Addison. We enter upon an employment: speculating people are very ready to commence schemes, considerate people are always averse to entering upon any office, until they feel themselves fully adequate to displayers its duties. discharge its duties.

TO MAKE, FORM, PRODUCE, CREATE.

The idea of giving birth to a thing is common to all these terms, which vary in the circumstances of the action: to $make (v. \ To \ make)$ is the most general and unqualified term; to form signifies to give a form to 2 thing, that is, to make it after a given form (v. Form); to produce (v. To effect) is to bring forth into the light to call into existence; to create (v. To cause) is tt bring into existence by an absolute exercise of power to make is the simplest action of all, and comprehend a simple combination by the smallest efforts; to forn requires care and attention, and greater efforts; to produce requires time, and also labour: whatever is put together so as to become another thing, is made: a put together so as to become another thing, is manae: a chair or a table is made: whatever is put into any distinct form is formed; the potter forms the clay into an earthen vessel: whatever emanates from a thing, so as to become a distinct object, is produced; fire is often produced by the violent friction of two pieces of wood with each other. The process of making is always performed by some conscious agent, who employs either mechanical means, or the simple exercise of power: a bird makes its nest; man makes various things, by the exercise of his understanding and his limbs; the Almighty Maker has made every thing by his word. The process of freezing does not always require a conscious agent; things are likewise formed of themselves; or they are formed by the active operations of other bodies; melted lead, when thrown into water, will form itself into globules and masses of various shapes: hard substances are formed in the numan body which give rise to the disease termed the gravel. What is produced is oftener produced by the process of nature, than by any express design; the earth produces all kinds of vegetables from seed; 'animals, by a similar process, produce their young. Create, in this natural sense of the term, is employed as the act of an intelligent being, and that of the Supreme Being only; it is the act of making by a simple effort of power, without the use of materials, and without any process.

They are all employed in the moral sense, and with a similar distinction: make is indefinite; we may make a difficult or easy, simple or complex; we may make a letter, or make a poem; we may make a word, or make a contract; 'In every treaty those concessions which he (Charies I.) thought he could not maintain, he never could by any motive or persuasion be induced to make.'—Hume. To form is the work either of intelligence, or of circumstances: education has much to do in forming the habits, but nature has more to do in forming the disposition and the mind altogether; sentiments are frequently formed by young people before they have sufficient naturity of thought and knowledge to justify them in coming to any decision; 'Homer's and Virgil's heroes do not form a resolution without the conduct and direction of some deity.'—Additions. To produce is the effect of great mental exertion; or it is the natural operation of things: no industry could ever produce a poem or a work of the imagination: but a history or a work of science may be produced by the force of mere labour. All things, both in the moral and intellectual world, are linked together upon the simple principle of cause and effect, by which one thing is the producer, and the other the thing produced. 'quarrels produce inflammation and fever, or disease produces death; 'A supernatural effect is that which is above any natural power, that we know of, to produce.'—Tillorson. Since genius is a spark of the Divine power that acts by its own independent agency, the property of creation has been figuratively ascribed to it: the creatine power of the human mind is a faint emblem of than power which brought everything into existence out of nothing.

A wondrous hieroglyphic robe she wore, In which all colours and all figures were, That nature or that fancy can create.—Cowley.

FORM, FIGURE, CONFORMATION.

Form, in French forme, Latin forma, most probably from φόσημα and φορίω to bear, signifies properly the image borne or stamped; figure (v. Figure) signifies the image feigned or conceived; conformation, in French conformation, in Latin conformatio, from conform, signifies the image disposed or put together.

form, signifies the image engaged or put together.

* Form is the generick term; figure and conformation are special terms. The form is the work either of nature or art; it results from the arrangement of the parts; the figure is the work of design: it includes the general contour or outline: the conformation includes such a discosition of the parts of a body as is adapted for performing certain functions. Form is the property of every substance; and the artificial form approaches nearest to perfection, as it is most natural:

Matter, as wise logicians say, Cannot without a form subsist, And form, say I as well as they, Must fail if matter brings no grist.—Swift.

* Vide Girard: "Façon, figure, forme, conforma-

The figure is the fruit of the imagination; it is the representation of the actual form that belongs to things; it is more or less just as it approaches to the form of the thing itself; 'When Casar was one of the masters of the Roman mint, he placed the figure of an elephant upon the reverse of the publick money; the word Casar signifying an elephant in the Punick language.'—Addison. Conformation is said only with regard to animal bodies; nature renders it more or less suitable according to the accidental occurrence of physical causes; 'As the conformation of their organs are nearly the same in all men, so the manner of perceiving external objects is in all men the same.'—Burks. The erect form of man is one of the distinguishing marks of his superiority over every other terrestrial being: the human figure when well painted is an object of admiration: the turn of the mind is doubtless influenced by the conformation of the bodily organs. A person's form is said to be handsome or ugly, common or uncommon; his figure to be correct or incorrect; a conformation to be good or bad. Heathens have worshipped the Deity under various forms: mathematical figures are the only true figures with which we are acquainted: the craniologist affects to judge of characters by the conformation of the skull.

Form and figure are used in a moral application, although conformation is not.

We speak of adopting a form of faith, a form of words, a form of godliness;

O ceremony! show me but thy worth, Art thon aught else but place, degree, and form, Creating fear and awe in other men? SHAKSPRARE.

We speak of cutting a showy, a dismal, or ridiculous figure; 'Those who make the greatest figure in most arts and sciences are universally allowed to be of the British nation.'—Addison. Form may also sometimes be taken for the person who presents the form;

Lo, in the deep recesses of the wood,
Before my eyes a beauteous form appears;
A virgin's dress, and modest looks, she wears.

WYNNE.

The word figure is also used in a similar manner.

TO FORM, FASHION, MOULD, SHAPE.

To form is to put into a form, which is here as be fore (v. Form) the generick term: to faskion is to put into a particular or distinct form: to mould is to put into a set form; to shape is to form simply as it re spects the exteriour. As every thing receives a form when it receives existence, to form conveys the idea of producing; 'Horace was intimate with a prince of the greatest goodness and humanity imaginable: and his court was formed after his example.'—Stelle. When we wish to represent a thing as formed in any distinct or remarkable way, we may speak of it as faskioned: 'By the best information that I could get of this matter, I am apt to think that this prodigious pile was faskioned into the shape it now bears by several tools and instruments, of which they have a wonderful variety in this country.'—Addison. God formed math out of the dust of the ground; he fashioned him after his own image. When we wish to represent a thing as formed according to a precise rule, we should say it was monlded; thus the habits of a man are moulded at the will of a superiour;

How dare you, mother, endless date demand, For vessels moulded by a mortal hand?—DRYDEN.

When we wish to represent a thing as receiving the accidental qualities which distinguish it from others, we talk of shaping it: the potter shapes the clay; the milliner shapes the bonnet; a man shapes his actions to the humours of another; 'Those nature hath shaped with a great head, narrow breast, and shoulders sticking out, seem much inclined to a consumption.'—Harkey.

Nature has formed all animated beings with an in stinctive desire of self-preservation. Creatures fashioned like ourselves with flesh and blood cannot attain to the perfection of spiritual beings. It is supposed by some that the human mind may be moulded upon the principles of art at the will of the instructer, with the same ease that wax may be shaped into the

figure of a bird, a beast, or a man, at the pleasure of the artist. This is however true only in part.

TO FORM, COMPOSE, CONSTITUTE.

Form (v. Form, figure) signifies to give a form; compose has the same signification as given under the head To compose, settle; and constitute that given under the head of To constitute.

Form is a generick and indefinite term. To compose and constitute are modes of forming. words may be employed either to designate modes of action, or to characterize things. Things may be formed either by persons or things; they are composed and constituted only by conscious agents: thus persons form things, or things form one another: thus we form a circle, or the reflection of the light after rain forms a rainbow. Persons compose and constitute: thus a musician composes a piece of musick, or men constitute laws. Form in regard to persons is the act of the will and determination;

The liquid ore he drained Into fit molds prepar'd; from which he form'd First his own tools.—MILTON.

Compose is a work of the intellect; 'Words so pleasing to God as those which the Son of God himself hath composed, were not possible for men to frame.— HOOKER. Constitute is an act of power, which men must submit to. We form a party; we form a plan; we compose a book; men constitute governments,

offices, &c.
When employed to characterize things, form signifies simply to have a form, be it either simple or com-plex; compose and constitute are said only of those things which have complex forms; the former as respecting the material, the latter the essential parts of an object: thus we may say that an object forms a circle, or a semicircle, or the segment of a circle; 'All animals of the same kind which form a society are more knowing than others.'—Addison. A society is composed of individuals;

Nor did Israel 'scape

Th' infection, when their borrow'd gold composed The calf in Oriel .-- MILTON.

Law and order constitute the essence of society; 'To receive and to communicate assistance constitutes the happiness of human life.'—Johnson. So letters and syllables compose a word; but sense is essential to constitute a word.

FORMAL, CEREMONIOUS.

Formal and ceremonious, from form and ceremony (v. Form, ceremony), are either taken in an indifferent sense with respect to what contains form and ceremony, or in a bad sense, as expressing the excess of form and ceremony. A person expects to have a formal dismissal before he considers himself as dismissed; people of fashion pay each other ceremonious wisits, by way of keeping up a distant intercourse.

Whatever communications are made from one government to another must be made in a formal manner;
As there are formal and written leagues, respective to certain enemies; so there is a natural and tacit con-To certain entennes; so there is a thront and the common enemies of human society.'—Bacon. It is the business of the church to regulate the ceremonious part of religion.

Under a different economy of religion, God was more tender of the shell and ceremonious part of his worship.'-South.

Formal, in the bad sense, is opposed to easy: ceremonious to the cordial. A formal carriage prevents a person from indulging himself in the innocent familiarities of friendly intercourse;

Formal in apparel, In gait and countenance surely like a father. SHAKSPEARE.

A ceremonious carriage puts a stop to all hospitality and kindness. Princes, in their formal intercourse with each other, know nothing of the pleasures of sowith each other, know nothing of the pleasures of so-ciety; eeremonious visitants give and receive enter-tainments, without tasting any of the enjoyments which flow from the reciprocity of kind offices; 'From the moment one sets up for an author, one must be treated as ceremoniously, that is, as unfaithfully, "as a king's favourite, or as a king."—Pope.

TO CAUSE, OCCASION, CREATE.

To cause, from the substantive cause, naturally sig nifies to be the cause of; occasion, from the noun oc casion, signifies to be the occasion of; create; in Latin creatus, participle of creo, comes from the Greek κρέω to command, and κεραίνω to perform.

What is caused seems to follow naturally; what is occasioned follows incidentally; what is created receives its existence arbitrarily. A wound causes pain; accidents occasion delay; busy-bodies create mischief.

The misfortunes of the children cause great afflic

tion to the parents;

Scarcely an ill to human life belongs But what our follies cause, or mutual wrongs. JENYNS.

Business occasions a person's late attendance at a place; 'The good Psalmist condemns the foolish thoughts which a reflection on the prosperous state of his affairs had sometimes occasioned in him.'-AT TERBURY. Disputes and misunderstandings create ani-TERRURY. Disputes and misunderstandings create animosity and ill-will; 'As long as the powers or abilities which are ascribed to others are exerted in a sphere of action remote from ours, and not brought into competition with talents of the same kind to which we have pretensions, they create no jealousy.'—Blair. The cause of a person's misfortunes may often be traced to his own misconduct: the improper behaviour of one person may occasion an ther to ask for an explanation: jealousies are created in the minds of relatives by an unnecessary reserve and distance.

TO MAKE, DO, ACT.

Make, in Dutch maken, Saxon macan, &c., comes from the Greek $\mu\eta\chi\alpha\nu\dot{\eta}$ art, signifying to put together with art; do_1 in German thun, comes probably from the Greek θείναι to put, signifying to put, or put in order, to bring to pass; act, in Latin actus, from ago to direct, signifies literally to put in motion.

We cannot make without doing, but we may do (v. To act) without making: to do is simply to move for a certain end; to make is to do, so as to bring something into being, which was not before: we make a thing what it was not before; we do a thing in the same manner as we did it before: what is made is either better or worse, or the same as another;

Empire! thou poor and despicable thing! When such as these make and unmake a king. DRVDEN

What is done, is done either wisely or unwisely;

What shall I do to be for ever known, And make the age to come my own.—Cowley.

We act whenever we do any thing, but we may act without doing any thing. 'The verb act is always intransitive; and do transitive; we do something, but not act something. The act approaches nearest to the idea of move; it is properly the exertion of power corporeal or mental: do is closely allied to effect; it is the producing an effect by such an exertion. They act very unwisely who attempt to do more than their abilities will enable them to complete: whatever we do, let us be careful to act considerately; 'We have an, let us be careful in the considerably; We have made this a maxim, "That a man who is commonly called good-natured is hardly to be thanked for what he does, because half that is acted about him is done rather by his sufferance than approbation." "STREE

ACTION, ACT, DEED.

The words action, act, and deed, though derived from the preceding verbs, have an obvious distinction

in their meaning

* We mark the degrees of action which indicate energy; we mark the number of acts which may serve to designate a habit or character: we speak of a lively, vehement, or impetuous action; a man of action, in distinction from a mere talker or an idler; whatever rests without influence or movement has lost its action: we speak of many acts of a particular kind; we call him a fool who commits continued acts of folly; and him a niggard who commits nothing but acts of meanness.

Action is a continued exertion of power: act is

Roubaud: "Acte, action"

single exertion of power; the physical movement; the simple exertion of power, the physical movement, the strict sense of the word; our actions are our works in the strict sense of the word; our acts are the operations of our faculties. The character of a man must be judged by his actions; the merit of actions depends on the motives that give rise to them: the act of speaking is peculiar to man; but the acts of walking, running, eating, &c. are common to all animals.

Actions may be considered either singly or col-lectively; acts are regarded only individually and specifically: we speak of all a man's actions, but not all his acts; we say a good action, a virtuous action, a charitable action; but an act, not an action of goodness, an act of virtue, an act of faith, an act of charity, and the like. It is a good action to conceal the faults of our neighbours; but a rare act of charity among men. Many noble actions are done in private, the consciousness of which is the only reward of the doer; the wisest of men may occasionally commit doer; the wisest of men may occasionally commit acts of folly which are not imputable to their general character; 'Many of those actions which are apt to procure fame are not in their nature conducive to our ultimate happiness.'—Addison. Nothing can be a greater act of imprudence than not to take an occasional review of our past actions; 'I desire that the same rule may be extended to the whole fraternity of heathen gods; it being my design to condemn every poem to the flames, in which Jupiter thunders or exercises any act of authority which does not belong to him.'—Addison.

Action* is a term applied to whatever is done in

general; act to that which is remarkable or that requires to be distinguished. The sentiments of the heart are easier to be discovered by one's actions than by one's words: it is an heroick act to forgive our enemy, when we are in a condition to be revenged on him The good man is cautious in all his actions to avoid even the appearance of evil: a great prince is anxious to mark every year by some distinguished act of wis-

dom or virtue.

Act and deed are both employed for what is remarkable; but act denotes only one single thing done;

Who forth from nothing call'd this comely frame, His will and act, his word and work the same.

Deed implies some complicated performance, some thing achieved: we display but one quality or power in performing an act; we display many, both physical and mental, in performing a deed. A prince distinguishes himself by acts of mercy; the commander of an army by martial deeds;

I on the other side

Us'd no ambition to commend my deeds; The deeds themselves, though mute, spoke loud the doer .- MILTON.

Acts of disobedience in youth frequently lead to the perpetration of the foulest deeds in more advanced

DEED, EXPLOIT, ACHIEVEMENT, FEAT.

Deed, from do, expresses the thing done; exploit, in French exploit, most probably changed from explica-tus, signifies the thing unfolded or displayed; achievement, from achieve, signifies the thing achieved; feat, in French fait, Latin factum, from facio, signifies the thing done

The first three words rise progressively on each other: deeds, compared with the others, is employed for that which is ordinary or extraordinary; exploit and achievement are used only for the extraordinary; the latter in a higher sense than the former.

Deeds must always be characterized as good or bad,

magnanimous or atrocious, and the like, except in poetry, where the term becomes elevated;

Great Pollio! thou for whom thy Rome prepares

The ready triumph of thy finish'd wars; Is there in fate an hour reserv'd for me
To sing thy deeds in numbers worthy thee?

Exploit and achievement do not necessarily require any epithets; they are always taken in the proper cuse for something great. Exploit, when compared

* Girard " Action, acte."

with achievement, is a term used in plain prose; it designates not so much what is great as what is real: achievement is most adapted to poetry and romance affords scope for the imagination. Martial deeds are as interesting to the reader as to the performer: the pages of modern history will be crowded with the exploits of Englishmen both by sea and land, as those of ancient and fabulous history are with the achievements of their heroes and deni-gods. An exploit marks only personal bravery in action; an achieve-ment denotes elevation of character in every respect, grandeur of design, promptitude in execution, and valour in action.

An exploit may be executed by the design and at the will of another; a common soldier or an army may

perform exploits;

High matter thou enjoin'st me, O prime of men? Sad task and hard; for how shall I relate To human sense th' invisible exploits Of warring spirits ?-MILTON.

An achievement is designed and executed by the achiever; Hercules is distinguished for his achieve-ments: and in the same manner we speak of the achievements of knights-errant or of great commanders:

Great spoils and trophies gain'd by thee they bear, Then let thy own achievements be thy share.

DRYDEN.

Feat approaches nearest to exploit in signification; the former marks skill, and the latter resolution. feats of chivalry displayed in justs and tournaments were in former times as much esteemed as warlike exploits;

Much I have heard Of thy prodigious might, and feats perform'd. MILTON.

Exploit and feat are often used in derision, to mark the absence of those qualities in the actions of indivi-The soldier who affects to be foremost in situaduals. The soldier who affects to be foremost in stuations where there is no danger cannot be more properly derided than by terming his action an *exploit*: he who prides himself on the display of skill in the performance of a paltry trick may be laughed at for having performed a *feat*.

ACTION, GESTURE, GESTICULATION, POS TURE, ATTITUDE, POSITION.

Action is either the act of acting, or the manner of acting; gesture, in French geste, Latin gestus, par ticiple of gero to carry one's self, signifies the manner of carrying one's body; gesticulation, in Latin gesticulatio, comes from gesticulor to make many gestecuatio, comes from gesticulor to make many ges-tures; posture, in French posture, Latin positura a position, comes from positus, participle of pono, signi-fying the manner of placing one's self; attitude, in French attitude, Italian attitudine, is changed from aptitude, signifying a propriety as to disposition. All these terms are applied to the state of the body;

the former three indicating a state of motion; the latter two a state of rest. Action respects the move-ments of the body in general; gesture is an action indicative of some particular state of mind; gesticu-lation is a species of artificial gesture. Raising the

arm is an action : bowing is a gesture.

Actions may be ungraceful; gestures indecent. suitable action sometimes gives great force to the words shtane action sometimes gives great ofter to the works that are uttered; 'Cicero concludes his celebrated book "de Oratore" with some precepts for pronunciation and action, without which part he affirms that the best orator in the world can never succeed.'—HUGHES. Gestures often supply the place of landary that the control of the supply the place of landary that the control of the supply the place of landary that the control of the supply the place of landary that the supply that the supply the place of landary that the sup guage between people of different nations; "Our best actors are somewhat at a loss to support themselves with proper gesture, as they move from any considera-ble distance to the front of the stage.'—STEELE. Aetions characterize a man as vulgar or well-bred; ges-tures mark the temper of the mind. There are many actions which it is the object of education to prevent from growing into habits: savages express the vehe-ment passions of the mind, by vehement gestures on every occasion, even in their amusements. An extra-vagant or unnatural gesture is termed a gesticulation; a sycophant, who wishes to cringe into favour with

the great, deals largely in gesticulation to mark his devotion; a buffoon who attempts to imitate the gestupon, when it approaches still nearer to agency; 'It tures of another will use gesticulation; and the montures of another will use gesteatation, and the mor-key who apes the actions of human beings does so by means of gesticulations; 'Neither the judges of our laws, nor the representatives of the people, would be much affected by laboured gesticulation, or believe any man the more, because he rolled his eyes, or puffed his checks.'—Johnson.

Posture* is a mode of placing the body more or less differing from the ordinary habits; attitude is the manner of keeping the body more or less suitable to the existing circumstances. A posture, however convenient, is never assumed without exertion; it is therefore willingly changed: an attitude, though not usual, is still according to the nature of things; it is therefore readily preserved. A posture is singular; it has something in it which departs from the ordinary carriage of the body, and makes it remarkable; 'Palsehood in a short time found by experience, that her superiority consisted only in the celerity of her course, and the change of her posture.'—Johnson. An attitude is striking; it is the natural expression of character or impression; 'Falsehood always endeavoured to copy the mien and attitudes of truth.'—Johnson. A brave man will put himself into a posture of defence, without assuming an attitude of defiance.

Strange and forced positions of the body are termed postures; noble, agreeable, and expressive forms of carriage, are called attitudes: mountebanks and clowns carriage, are called attitudes: mountenants and clowns put themselves into ridiculous postures in order to excite laughter; actors assume graceful attitudes to represent their characters. Postures are to the body what grimaces are to the face; attitudes are to the body what air is to the figure: he who in attempting to walk assumes the attitude of a dancer, puts himself into a ridiculous posture; a graceful and elegant attitude in dancing becomes an affected and laughable sectives in apother case.

posture in another case.

Postures are sometimes usefully employed in stage Fosture's are sometimes used by employed by painters, sculptors, dancing masters, and other artists.

Posture is said of the whole body; the rest, of particular limbs or parts. Attitude and posture are figuratively applied to other objects besides the body: armies assume a menacing attitude; in a critical posture of affairs, extraordinary skill is required on the part of the government; 'Milton has presented this violent spirit (Moloch) as the first that rises in that assembly to give his opinion upon their present pos-ture of affairs.'—Addison.

Position, when compared with posture, is taken only in regard to persons, in which case the posture, as ob served above, is a species of position, namely, an artificial position: if a person stands tiptoe, in order to see to a greater distance, he may be said to put him-self into that position; but if a dancer do the same, sen into that postton; but it a dualized to the same, as a part of his performance, it becomes a posture: so, likewise, when one leans against the wall it is a leaning position; 'Every step, in the progression of existence, changes our position with respect to the things about us.'—Johnson. But when one theatrically bends his body backward or forward, it is a posture: one may, in the same manner, sit in an erect position, or in a reclining posture; 'When I entered his room, he was sitting in a contemplative posture, with his eyes fixed upon the ground; after he had continued in his reverie near a quarter of an hour, he rose up and seemed by his gestures to take leave of some invisible guest.'-HAWKESWORTH.

ACTION, AGENCY, OPERATION.

Action (v. To act) is the effect, agency the cause. Action is inherent in the subject;

noble English, that could entertain With half their forces the full power of France, And let another half stand laughing by All out of work, and cold for action .- SHAKSPEARE.

Agency is something exteriour; it is, in fact, putting a thing into action. In this manner, the whole world is in action through the agency of the Divine Being; 'A few advances there are in the following papers tending to assert the superintendence and agency of Providence in the natural world.'-Woodward, Some

* Roubaud . "Posture, attitude."

own centre, and make those useful vicissitudes of night and day, than expose always the same side to the action of the sun. —Bentley. Operation, from the Latin operatio, and opera labour or opus need, signifying the work that is needful, is action for a specifick end, and according to a rule; as the operation of nature in the article of vegetation;

The tree whose operation brings Knowledge of good and ill, shun thou to taste.

ACTIVE, DILIGENT, INDUSTRIOUS, ASSIDU-OUS, LABORIOUS.

Active, from the verb to act, implies a propensity to act, to be doing something without regard to the nature of the object; diligent, in French diligent, Latin diligens, participle of diligo to choose or like, implies an attachment to an object, and consequent attention to attachment to an object, and consequent attention to it; industrious, in French industrieux, Latin industrius, is probably formed from intro within and struot build, make, or do, signifying an inward or thorough inclination to be engaged in some serious work; assiduous, in French assidu, in Latin assiduus, is compounded of as or ad and siduus from sedeo to sit, signifying to sit close to a thing; laborious, in French laborieux, Latin laboriosus, from labour, implies be-

longing to labour, or the inclination to labour. We are active if we are only ready to exert our powers, whether to any end or not; 'Providence has made the human soul an active being.'—JOHNSON. We are diligent when we are active for some specifick end; 'A constant and unfailing obedience is above the reach of terrestrial diligence.'—JOHNSON. We are industrious when no time is left unemployed in some serious pursuit; 'It has been observed by writers of morality, that in order to quicken human industry, Providence has so contrived that our daily food is not to be procured without much pains and labour.'—
Addison. We are assiduous if we do not leave a thing until it is finished; 'If ever a cure is performed on a patient, where quacks are concerned, they can claim no greater share in it than Virgil's Iapis in the curing of Æneas; he tried his skill, was very assi-duous about the wound, and indeed was the only visible means that relieved the hero; but the poet assures us it was the particular assistance of a deity that speeded the operation."—PEARCE. We are laborious when the bodily or mental powers are regularly employed in some hard labour; 'If we look into the employed in some hard labour; 'If we look into the brute creation, we find all its individuals engaged in a painful and laborious way of life to procure a necessary subsistence for themselves.'—Addison.

A man may be active without being diligent, since he may employ himself in what is of no importance; but he can scarcely be diligent without being active, since diligence supposes some degree of activity in one's application to a useful object. A man may be diligent without being industrious, for he may diligently employ himself about a particular favourite object without employing himself constantly in the same way; and he may be industrious without being diligent, since diligence implies a free exercise of the mental as well as corporeal powers, but industry applies principally to manual labour. Activity and dili-gence are therefore commonly the property of lively or strong minds, but industry may be associated with moderate talents. A man may be diligent without being assiduous; but he cannot be assiduous without being diligent, for assiduity is a sort of persevering diligence. A man may be industrious, without being laborious, but not vice versa; for laboriousness is a severer kind of industry

The active man is never easy without an employthe diligent man is contented with the employment he has; the industrious man goes from one employment to the other; the assiduous man seeks to attain the end of his employment; the laborious man spares no pains or labour in following his employment.

Activity is of great importance for those who have the management of public concerns: diligence in business contributes greatly to success: industry is of great value in obtaining a livelihood: without ussiduity no advances can be made in science or literature; and

without laborious exertions, considerable attainments are not to be expected in many literary pursuits.

Active minds set on foot inquiries to which the in-

dustrious, by assiduous application, and deligent if not laborious research, often afford satisfactory answers.

ACTIVE, BRISK, AGILE, NIMBLE.

ACTIVE, BRISK, AGILE, MIBBLE.

Active signifies the same as in the preceding article;
brisk has a common origin with fresh, which is in
Saxon fersh, Dutch frisch or bersk, Danish frisk,
fersk, &c.; agile, in Latin agilis, comes from the same
verb as active, signifying a fitness, a readiness to act or
move; nimble is probably derived from the Saxon
nemen to take, implying a fitness or capacity to take
any thing by a celerity of movement.

Activity respects one's transactions; briskness, one's
Saxons, men are active in carving on husiness; chile

sports: men are active in carrying on business; children are brisk in their play. Agility refers to the light and easy carriage of the body in springing; nimbleness to its quick and gliding movements in running.

A rope-dancer is agile; a female moves nimbly.

Activity results from ardour of mind; 'There is not a more painful action of the mind than invention; yet in dreams it works with that ease and activity, that we are not sensible when the faculty is employed.'-Addison. Briskness springs from vivacity of feeling; 'I made my next application to a widow, and attacked her so briskly that I thought myself within a fortnight of her.'—Butgell. Agailty is produced by corporeal vigour, and habitual strong exertion; 'When the Prince touched his strong and magnetic than the prince touched his strong and the prince to the pri Prince touched his stirrup, and was going to speak, the officer, with an incredible agility, threw himself on the earth and kissed his feet.'—Steele. Nimbleness results from an effort to move lightly;

O friends, I hear the tread of nimble feet Hasting this way .- MILTON.

ACTIVE, BUSY, OFFICIOUS.

Active signifies the same as before; busy, in Saxon gebisged, from bisgian, in German beschäfftigt, from beschaftigen to occupy, and schuffen to make or do, implies a propensity to be occupied; officious, in French officieux, Latin officiosus, from officium duty or service. signifies a propensity to perform some service or office.

Active respects the habit or disposition of the mind; busy and officious, either the disposition of the mind, or the employment of the moment: the former regards every species of employment; the latter only particular kinds of employment. An active person is ever ready to be employed; a person is busy, when he is actually employed in any object; he is afficious, when he is

employed for others.

Active is always taken in a good, or at least an indifferent sense; it is opposed to lazy; 'The pursuits of the active part of mankind are either in the paths of religion and virtue, or, on the other hand, in the roads to wealth, honour, or pleasures.'—Addison. Busy, as it respects occupation, is mostly in a good sense; as it respects occupation, is mostly in a good sense: "We see multitudes busy in the pursuit of riches, at the expense of wisdom and virtue."—Johnson. It is opposed to being at leisure; as it respects disposition, it is always in a bad sense; "The air-pump, the barometer, the quadrant, and the like inventions, were thrown out to those busy spirits (politicians), as tubs and barrels are to a whale, that he may let the ship sail on without disturbance."—Additions. Officious is never taken in a good sense; it implies being busy without discretion. To an active disposition, nothing is more irksome than inaction: but it is not concerned. is more irksome than inaction; but it is not concerned to inquire into the utility of the action. It is better for a person to be busy than quite unemployed; but a a person to be vasy man quite unemployer; but a busy person will employ himself about the concerns of others, when he has none of his own sufficiently im-portant to engage his attention: an officious person is as unfortunate as he is troublesome; when he strives to serve he has the misfortune to annoy; 'I was forced to quit my first lodgings by reason of an officious land lady, that would be asking me every morning how I had slept.'—Addison.

SEDULOUS, DILIGENT, ASSIDUOUS.

Sedulous, from the Latin sedulus and sedco, signifies sitting close to a thing: diligent, v. Active, diligent, usual usus, v. Active, diligent.

The idea of application is expressed by these epi The fleat of application is expected by these put thets, but sedulous is a particular, diligent is a general term; one is sedulous by habits; one is diligent either habitually or occasionally; a sedulous scholar pursues his studies with a regular and close application; a scholar may be diligent at a certain period, though not invariably so. Schulity seems to mark the very essential property of application, that is, adhering closely to an object; but ditigence expresses one's attachment to a thing, as evinced by an eager pursuit of it: the former, therefore, bespeaks the steadiness of the character; the latter merely the turn of one's inclination: one is sedulous from a conviction of the importance of the thing: one may be diligent by fits and starts, according to the humour of the moment.

Assiduous and sedulous both express the quality of sitting or sticking close to a thing, but the former may, like diligent, be employed on a partial occasion; the latter is always permanent: we may be assiduous in latter is always permanent: We may be assuatous in our attentions to a person; but we are sedulous in the important concerns of life. Sedulous peculiarly respects the quiet employments of life; a teacher may be entitled sedulous; 'One thing I would offer is that he would constantly and sedulously read Tully, which will the service of the proof of the service of th will insensibly work him into a good Latin style.'—
Locke. Diligent respects the active employments; 'I would recommend a diligent attendance on the courts of justice (to a student for the bar).'—Dunning. One is diligent at work: assiduity holds a middle rank; it may be employed equally for that which requires active exertion, or otherwise: we may be assiduous in the pursuits of literature, or we may be assiduous in our attendance upon a person, or the per formance of any office;

And thus the patient dam assiduous sits, Not to be tempted from her tender task. THOMSON.

READY, APT, PROMPT.

Ready, from the German bereiten to prepare, signifies prepared; apt, in Latin aptus, signifies literally fit; prompt, in Latin promptus, from promo to draw forth, signifies literally drawn to a point.

Ready is in general applied to that which has been intentionally prepared for a given purpose

The god himself with ready trident stands And opes the deep, and spreads the moving sands.

Promptness and aptness are species of readiness, which lie in the personal endowments or disposition: hence we speak of things being ready for a journey; hence we speak of things being ready for a journey; persons being apt to learn, or prompt to obey or to reply. Ready, when applied to persons, characterizes the talent; as a ready wit. Apt characterizes the habits; as apt to judge by appearance, or apt to decide hastily; and is also employed in the same sense figuratively; 'Poverty is apt to betray a man into envy, riches into arrogance.'—Appison. Prompt characterizes more commonly the particular action, and denotes the willingness of the agent, and the nickness. denotes the willingness of the agent, and the quickness with which he performs the action; as prompt in exwith which he performs the action, as prompt in ex-ecuting a command, or prompt to listen to what is said; so likewise when applied to things personal;

Let not the fervent tongue. Prompt to deceive, with adulation smooth Gain on your purpos'd will.—Thomson.

ALERTNESS, ALACRITY.

Alertness, from ales a wing, designates corporeal activity or readiness for action; alacrity, from acer sharp, brisk, designates mental activity.

We proceed with alertness, when the body is in its

full vigour; The wings that waft our riches out of sight Grow on the gamester's elbows; and the alert And nimble motion of those restless joints That never tire, soon fans them all away.

We proceed with alacrity when the mind is in full pursuit of an object; 'In dreams it is wonderful to observe with what sprightliness and alacrity the soul exerts herself.'—Addison.

ACTOR, AGENT.

These terms vary according to the different senses of the verb from which they are drawn; actor is used for one who does any thing or acts a part; 'Of all the patriarchal histories, that of Joseph and his brethren is the most remarkable, for the characters of the actors, and the instructive nature of the events.'—Blair. An agent is one who puts other things in action, particu larly as distinguished from the patient or thing acted upon; 'They produced wonderful effects, by the proper application of agents to patients.'—TEMPLE. The agent is also an active being, or one possessing the faculty of action;

Heav'n made us agents free to good or ill, And forc'd it not, tho' he foresaw the will.

An agent in a piece of fiction is the being who performs the actions narrated; 'I expect that no Pagan agent shall' be introduced into the poem, or any fact related which a man cannot give credit to with a good conscience. — Addison. Hence it is that the word actor is taken in the sense of a player, and an agent in the mercantile sense of a factor, or one who acts in another's stead.

ACTOR, PLAYER, PERFORMER.

The actor and player both perform on a stage; but the former is said in relation to the part that is acted, the latter to the profession that is followed. We may be actors occasionally without being players professionally, but we may be players without deserving the name of actors. Those who personate characters for their amusement are actors but not players: those who do the same for a livelihood are players as well as actors; hence we speak of a company of players, not actors. So likewise in the figurative sense, whoever acts a part, real or fictitious, that is, on the stage of life, or the stage of a theatre, is an actor; Ou orators (says Cicero) are as it were the actors of truth itself; and the players the imitators of truth.'— HUGHES. But he only is a player who performs the fictitious part; hence the former is taken* in a bad or good sense, according to circumstances; 'Cicero is known to have been the intimate friend of Roscius the actor.'—HUGHES. Player is always taken in a less favourable sense, from the artificiality which attaches to his profession;

All the world 's a stage And all the men and women merely players. SHAKSPEARE.

The term performer is now used in the sense of one who performs a part in a theatrical exhibition, and for the most part in application to the individual in estimating the merits of his performance, as a good or bad performer.

ACTUAL, REAL, POSITIVE.

Actual, in French actual, Latin actualis, from actio a deed, signifies belonging to the thing done; real, in French real, Latin realis, from res, signifies belonging to the thing as it is; positive, in French positif, Latin positivus, from pono to place or fix, signifies the state

positive s, from pono to piace or nx, signines the state or quality of being fixed, established.

What is actual has proof of its existence within itself, and may be exposed to the eye; what is real may be satisfactorily proved to exist; and what is positive precludes the necessity of a proof. Actual is opposed to the suppositious, conceived or reported; real to the feigned, imaginary; positive to the uncertain, denoted. doubtful.

Whatever is the condition of a thing for the time being is the actual condition; sorrows are real which flow from a substantial cause; proofs are positive which leave the mind in no uncertainty. The actual state of a nation is not to be ascertained by individual instances of poverty, or the reverse; there are but few, if any, real objects of compassion among common beggars; many positive facts have been related of the deception which they have practised. By an actual survey of human life, we are alone enabled to form just opinions of mankind; 'The very notion of

* Vide Girard: 'Acteur, comedien.'

any duration being past implies that it was once pre any duration being past impiles that it was once pre-sent; for the idea of being once present is actually in-cluded in the idea of its being past.—Addison. It is but too frequent for men to disguise their real senti-ments, although it is not always possible to obtain positive evidence of their insincerity; 'We may and do converse with God in person really, and to all the purposes of giving and receiving, though not visibly.'—South. 'Dissimulation is taken for a man's positive professing himself to be what he is not.'-South.

TO PERPETRATE, COMMIT.

The idea of doing something wrong is common to The flee of doing something wrong is common to these terms; but perpetrae, from the Latin perpetra, compounded of per and petro, in Greek πρώττω, signifying thoroughly to compass or bring about, is a much more determined proceeding than that of committing. One may commit offences of various degree and magnitude. one may commit offences of various algree and mag-nitude; but one perpetrates crimes only, and those of the more heinous kind. A lawless banditti, who spend their lives in the perpetration of the most horrid crimes, are not to be restrained by the ordinary course of justice:

Then shows the forest which, in after-times, Fierce Romulus, for perpetrated crimes, A refuge made. DRYDEN.

He who commits any offence against the good order of The who commits any offence against the good order of society exposes himself to the censure of others, who may be his inferiours in certain respects; 'The miscarriages of the great designs of princes are of little use to the bulk of mankind, who seem very little interested in admonitions against errours which they can not commit.'-Johnson.

INACTIVE, INERT, LAZY, SLOTHFUL, SLUGGISH.

A reluctance to bodily exertion is common to all these terms. *Inactive* is the most general and unqualified term of all; it expresses simply the want of a stimulus to exertion; inert is something more positive, from the Latin iners or sine arte without art or mind; it denotes a specifick deficiency either in body mind; it denotes a specific denote by either in body or mind; lazy, which has the same signification as given under the head of Idle; slothful, from slow, that is, full of slowness; and sluggish from slug, that is, like a slug, drowsy and heavy, all rise upon one another to denote an expressly defective temperament of the body which directly impedes action.

To be inactive is to be indisposed to action; that is, to the performance of any office, to the doing any specitick business: to be *inert* is somewhat more; it is to be indisposed to movement: to be *lazy* is to move with pain to one's self: to be *slothful* is never to move otherwise than slowly: to be *sluggish* is to move in a sleepy and heavy manner.

A person may be mactive from a variety of inci-A person may be mactive from a variety of incidental causes, as timidity, ignorance, modesty, and the like, which combine to make him averse to enter upon any business, or take any serious step; a person may be inert from temporary indisposition; but laziness, slothfulness, and sluggishness are inherent physical defects: laziness is however not altogether independent of the mind or the will; but slothfulness and sluggishness are purely the offspring of nature, or, which is the same thing, habit superinduced upon nature. A man of a mild character is frequen ly inactive; he wants that ardour which intels percentally to ac he wants that ardour which impels perpetually to action; he wishes for nothing with sufficient warmth to make action agreeable; he is therefore inactive by a natural consequence;

> Virtue conceal'd within our breast Is inactivity at best .- Swift.

Hence the term inactive is properly applied to matter;

What laws are these? instruct us if you can; There's one design'd for brutes and one for man, Another guides inactive matter's course.

JENVNS.

Some diseases, particularly of the melancholy kind. are accompanied with a strong degree of inertness. since they seem to deprive the frame of its ordinary powers to action, and to produce a certain degree of torpor. Hence the term is employed to express a degree, as displayed in the inanimate part of the crea-

Informer of the planetary train,

Without whose quickening glance their cumbrous orbs

Were brute, unlovely mass, inert and dead.

THOMSON.

Lazy people move as if their bodies were a burden to themselves; they are fond of rest, and particularly averse to be put in action; but they will sometimes averse to be part in action; but they will sometimes move quickly, and perform much when once impelled to move; 'The first cauto (in Thomson's Castle of Indolence) opens a scene of lazy luxury that fills the imagination.'—Jonsson. Slothful people never vary their pace; they have a physical impediment in themselves to quick motion;

Falsely luxurious, will not man awake, And, springing from the bed of sloth, enjoy The cool, the fragrant, and the silent hour?

Sluggish people are with difficulty brought into action; it is their nature to be in a state of stupor; 'Conversation would become dull and vapid, if negligence were not sometimes roused, and sluggishness quickened by due severity of reprehension. —John-SON.

IDLE, LAZY, INDOLENT.

Idle is in German citel vain; lazy, in German lässig, comes from the Latin lassus weary, because weariness naturally engenders laziness; indolent, in Latin indolens, signifies without feeling, having apathy or unconcern.

A propensity to inaction is the common idea by which these words are connected; they differ in the cause and degree of the quality: idle expresses less than lazy, and lazy less than indolent: one is termed idle who will do nothing useful; one is lazy who will do nothing at all without great reluctance; one is indolent who does not care to do any thing or set about There is no direct inaction in the idler for a child is idle who will not learn his lesson, but he for a child is rate who wan not read to its active enough in that which pleases himself: there is active in a lazy man, but is an aversion to corporeal action in a lazy man, not always to mental action; he is lazy at work, lazy in walking, or lazy in sitting; but he may not object to any employment, such as reading or thinking, which -leaves his body entirely at rest: an indolent man, on the contrary, fails in activity from a defect both in the mind and the body; he will not only not move, but he will not even think, if it give him trouble; and trifling exertions of any kind are sufficient, even in prospect, to deter him from attempting to move.

Idleness is common to the young and the thought-less, to such as have not steadiness of mind to set a value on any thing which may be acquired by exersion and regular employment; the idle man is opposed to one that is diligent; 'As pride is sometimes hid under humility, idleness is often covered by turbulence and hurry. - Johnson. Laziness is frequent among those who are compelled to work for others; it is a habit of body superinduced upon one's condition; those who should labour are often the most unwilling to move at all, and since the spring of the mind which should impel them to action is wanting, and as they are continually under the necessity of moving at the will of another, they acquire an habitual reluctance to any motion, and find their comfort in entire inaction. hence laziness is almost confined to servants and the labouring classes: laziness is opposed to industry; 'Wicked condemned men will ever live like rogues, and not fall to work, but be lazy and spend victuals.'—Bacon. Lazy may however be applied figuratively

The rook, and magpie, to the gray-grown oaks, That the calm village in their verdant arms Sheltering embrace, direct their lazy flight. THOMSON.

Indolence is a physical property of the mind, a want of motive or purpose to action: the indolent man is not so fond of his bodily ease as the lazy man, but he shrinks from every species of exertion still more than

want of the power of action in the strongest possible | the latter; indolence is a disease most observable in the higher classes, and even in persons of the highest intellectual endowments, in whom there should be the most powerful motives to exertion; the indolent stands in direct opposition to nothing but the general term active; 'Nothing is so opposite to the true enjoyment of life as the relaxed and feeble state of an indolent mind.'--BLAIR.

The life of a common player is most apt to breed an habitual idleness; as they have no serious employ-ment to occupy their hands or their heads, they grow averse to every thing which would require the exercise of either: the life of a common soldier is apt to breed laziness; he who can sit or lie for twelve hours out of the twenty-four, will soon acquire a disgust to any kind of labour, unless he be naturally of an active turn: the life of a rich man is most favourable to indolence; he who has every thing provided at his hand, not only for the necessities, but the comforts of life, may soon become averse to every thing that wears the face of exertion; he may become indolent, if he be not unfortunately so by nature.

IDLE, LEISURE, VACANT.

Idle signifies here emptiness or the absence of that which is solid; leisure, otherwise spelled leasure, comes from lease, as in the compound release, and the Latin laxo to make lax or loose, that is, loosed or set free; vacant, in Latin vacans, from vaco to free or be empty, signifies the same.

file is opposed here to busy; at leisure simply to employed: he therefore who is idle, instead of being busy, commits a fault; which is not always the case with him who is at leisure or free from his employment. Idle is therefore always taken in a sense more or less unfavourable; leisure in a sense perfectly in-different: if a man says of himself that he has spent an idle hour in this or that place in amusement, coman rate hour in this or that place in anuscement, company, and the like, he means to signify he would have spent it better if any thing had offered; on the other hand, he would say that he spends his *leisure* moments in a suitable relaxation; he who values his time will take care to have as few idle hours as possible. (If the investigation with a little labour, that the sible; 'Life is sustained with so little labour, that the tediousness of idle time cannot otherwise be supported (than by artificial desires).'—Johnson. But since no one can always be employed in severe labour, he will occupy his leisure hours in that which best suits his taste :

Here pause, my Gothick lyre, a little while: The leisure hour is all that thou canst claim. BEATTIE.

Idle and leisure are said in particular reference to the time that is employed; vacant is a more general term, that simply qualifies the thing; an idle hour is without any employment; a vacant hour is in general free from the employments with which it might be filled up; a person has leisure time according to his wishes; but he may have vacant time from necessity, that is, when he is in want of employment; 'Idleness dictates expedients, by which life may be passed unpro-fitably, without the tediousness of many vacant hours' -Johnson

IDLE, VAIN

Idle, v. Idle, lazy; vain, in Latin vanus, is probably changed from vacaneus, signifying empty.

These epithets are both opposed to the solid or substantial; but idle has a more particular reference to what ought or ought not to engage the time or attention; vain seems to qualify the thing without any such reference. A pursuit may be termed either idle or vain: in the former case, it reflects immediately on the agent for not employing his time on something more serious; but in the latter case, it simply charac-terizes the pursuit as one that will be attended with no good consequences: when we consider ourselves as beings who have but a short time to live, and that every moment of that time ought to be thoroughly well spent, we shall be careful to avoid all idle concerns; when we consider ourselves as rational beings, who are responsible for the use of those powers with which we have been invested by our Almighty Maker, we shall be careful to reject all vain concerns: an idla

effort is made by one who does not care to exert him ; self for any useful purpose, who works only to please himself; a vain effort may be made by one who is in a state of desperation. These terms preserve the same distinction when applied to other objects;

And let no spot of idle earth be found, But cultivate the genius of the ground .- DRYDEN. Deluded by vain opinions, we look to the advantages of fortune as our ultimate goods. - BLAIR.

HEAVY, DULL, DROWSY.

Heavy is allied to both dull and drowsy, but the latter have no close connexion with each other.

Heavy and dull are employed as epithets both for persons and things; heavy characterizes the corporeal state of a person; dull qualifies the spirits or the understanding of the subject. A person has a heavy look whose temperament seems composed of gross and weighty materials which weigh him down and impede his movements; he has a dull countenance in whom the ordinary brightness and vivacity of the mind is wanting: heavy is either a characteristick of the constitution, or only a particular state arising from external or internal causes:

Heavy with age, Entellus stands his ground, But with his warping body wards the wound. DRYDEN.

Dullness as it respects the frame of the spirits, is a partial state; as it respects the mental vigour, it is a characteristick of the individual;

O thou dull god! why liest thou with the vile In loathsome beds: and leav'st the kingly couch, A watch-case to a common larum bell? SHAKSPEARE.

It is a misfortune frequently attached to those of a or a mission requestly actuated to mose of a corpulent habit to be very heavy: there is no one who from the changes of the atmosphere may not be occasionally heavy. Those who have no resources in themselves are always dull in solitude: those who are not properly instructed, or have a deficiency of capacity, will appear dull in all matters of learning.

Heavy is either properly or improperly applied to things which are conceived to have an undue tendency to press or lean downwards: dull is in like manner employed for whatever fails in the necessary degree of brightness or vivacity; the weather is heavy when the air is full of thick and weighty materials; it may be

dull from the intervention of clouds.

Heavy and drowsy are both employed in the sense Heavy and aroussy are nour employed in the anico of sleepy; but the former is only a particular state, the latter particular or general; all persons may be occasionally heavy or drowsy; some are habitually drowsy from disease; they likewise differ in degree; the latter being much the greater of the two; and occasionally they are applied to such things as produce

And drowsy tinklings full the distant fold .- GRAY.

TO SLEEP, SLUMBER, DOZE, DROWSE, NAP.

Sleep, in Saxon slæpan, Low German slap, German schlaf, is supposed to come from the Low German slap or slack slack, because sleep denotes an entire relaxation of the physical frame; slumber, in Saxon slumeran, &c. is but an intensive verb of schlummern, which is a variation from the preceding slæpan, &c.; doze, in Low German dusen, is in all probability a variation from the French dors, and the Latin dormio to sleep, which was anciently dermio, and comes from the Greek δέρμα a skin, because people lay on skins when they slept : drowse is a variation of doze ; nap is in all probability a variation of nob and nod.

Sleep is the general term, which designates in an indefinite manner that state of the body to which all animated beings are subject at certain seasons in the course of nature; to slumber is to sleep lightly and softly; to doze is to incline to sleep, or to begin sleep-2no: to nap is to sleep for a time: every one who is not indisposed sleeps during the night, those who are accustomed to wake at a certain hour of the morning commonly s.umber only after that time; there are many who, though they cannot sleep in a carriage

will yet be obliged to doze if they travel in the night in hot climates the middle of the day is commonly chosen for a nup.

SLEEPY, DROWSY, LETHARGICK.

Sleepy (v. To sleep) expresses either a temporary or sterpy (6. 10 steep) expresses entire a temporary or a permanent state: drowsy, which comes from the Low German drusen, and is a variation of doze (v. To sleep) expresses mostly a temporary state: lethargick, from lethargy, in Latin lethargia, Greek $\lambda\eta\theta\alpha\rho\gamma ia$, compounded of $\lambda\eta\theta\eta$ forgetfulness, and $\lambda\rho\gamma\delta\rho$ s swift, significant in the state of the sta nifying a proneness to forgetfulness or sleep, describes a permanent or habitual state.

Sleepy, as a temporary state, expresses also what is natural or seasonable; drowsiness expresses an inclination to sleep at unseasonable hours: it is natural to be sleepy at the hour when we are accustomed to retire to rest; it is common to be drowsy when sitting still Sleepiness, as a permanent state, is an after dinner. infirmity to which some persons are subject constitutionally; lethargy is a disease with which people, otherwise the most wakeful, may be occasionally at

tacked.

INDOLENT, SUPINE, LISTLESS, CARELESS.

Indolent, v. Idle, lazy; supine, in Latin supinus, from super above, signifies lying on one's back, or with one's face upward, which, as it is the action of a lazy or idle person, has been made to represent the qualities themselves; listless, without list, in German lust desire, signifies without desire; careless signifies without care or concern.

These terms represent a diseased or unnatural state of the mind, when its desires, which are the spring of action, are in a relaxed and torpid state, so as to prevent the necessary degree of exertion. has a more comprehensive meaning than supineness, and this signifies more than listlessness or careless ness: indolence is a general indisposition of a person to exert either his mind or his body; supineness is a similar indisposition that shows itself on particular occasions: there is a corporeal as well as a mental cause for indolence; but supineness lies principally in the mind: corpulent and large-made people are apt to be indolent; but timid and gentle dispositions are apt to be supine. An indolent person sets all labour, both corporeal and mental, at a distance from him; it is irksome to him:

Hence reasoners more refined but not more wise Their whole existence fabulous suspect And truth and falsehood in a lump reject Too indolent to learn what may be known, Or else too proud that ignorance to own.

JENYNS.

A supine person objects to undertake any thing which threatens to give him trouble;

With what unequal tempers are we fram'd! One day the soul, supine with ease and fulness, Revels secure.

The indolent person is so for a permanency; he always seeks to be waited upon rather than wait on himways seeks to be watted upon rather than wait on nim-self; and as far as it is possible he is glad for another to think for him, rather than to burden himself with thought; the supine person is so only in matters that require more than an ordinary portion of his exertion; he will defer such business, and sacrifice his interest to his ease. The indolernt and supine are not, however, like the listless, expressly without desire: an indo tent or supine man has desire enough to enjoy what is within his reach, although not always sufficient desire to surmount the aversion to labour in trying to obtain it; the listless man, on the contrary, is altogether without the desire, and is in fact in a state of moral tor por, which is however but a temporary or partial state arising from particular circumstances; after the mind has been wrought up to the highest pitch, it will some-times sink into a state of relaxation in which it ap parently ceases to have any active principle within itself. Indolence is a habit of both body and mind; supineness is sometimes only a mode of inaction flowing out of a particular frame of mind; listlessness is only a certain frame of mind: an active person may some times be supine in setting about a business which runs counter to his feelings; a listless person, on the other hand, if he be habitually so, will never be active in any thing, because he will have no impulse to action;

Sullen, methinks, and slow the morning breaks, As if the sun were listless to appear .- DRYDEN.

Carelessness expresses less than any of the above; for though a man who is indolent, supine, and listless is naturally careless, yet carelessness is properly applicable to such as have no such positive disease of mind or body. The careless person is neither averse to labour or thought, nor devoid of desire, but wants in reality that care or thought which is requisite for his state or condition. Carelessness is rather an errour of the understanding, or of the conduct, than the will; since the eareless would care, be concerned for, or interested about things, if he could be brought to reflect on their importance, or if he did not for a time forget himself;

Pert love with her by joint commission rules, Who by false arts and popular deceits, The careless, fond, unthinking mortal cheats. POMFRET.

TO STIR, MOVE.

Stir, in German storen, old German stiren or steren, Latin turbo, Greek τύρβη or θόρυβος trouble or tumult; move, v. Motion.

Stir is here a specifick, move a generick term; to stir is to move so as to disturb the rest and composure either of the body or mind:

I've read that things inanimate have mov'd. And as with living souls have been inform'd, By magic numbers and persuasive sounds.

At first the groves are scarcely seen to stir. THOMSON.

Hence the term stir is employed to designate an improper or unauthorized motion; children are not allowed to stir from their seats in school hours; a soldier must not stir from the post which he has to defend. Atrocious criminals or persons raving mad are bound hand and foot, that they may not stir-

MOTION, MOVEMENT.

These are both abstract terms to denote the act of moving, but motion is taken generally and abstractedly from the thing that moves: movement, on the other hand, is taken in connexion with the agent or thing that moves; hence we speak of a state of motion as opposed to a state of rest, of perpetual motion, the laws of motion, and the like; on the other hand, to make a movement when speaking of an army, a general move-

ment when speaking of an assembly.

When motion is qualified by the thing that moves, it denotes a continued motion; but movement implies only a particular motion: hence we say, the motion of the heavenly bodies, the motion of the earth; a person is in continual motion, or an army is in motion; but a person makes a movement who rises or sits down, or goes from one chair to another; the different move-ments of the springs and wheels of any instrument; It is not easy to a mind accustomed to the inroads of troublesome thoughts to expel them immediately by putting better images into motion.'-Johnson.

Nature I thought perform'd too mean a part, Forming her movements to the rules of art .- PRIOR.

MOVING, AFFECTING, PATHETICK.

The moving is in general whatever moves the affections or the passions; the affecting and pathetick are what move the affections in different degrees. The good or bad feelings may be moved; the tender feelings only are affected. A field of battle is a moving spectacle; 'There is something so moving in the very image of weeping beauty.'—Strele. The death of King Charles was an affecting spectacle; 'I do not remember to have seen any ancient or modern story more affecting than a letter of Anne of Boulogne.'—Addition. The affecting acts by means of the senses, as well as the understanding. The pathetick applies only to what is addressed to the heart; hence, a sight or a description is affecting; but an address is pathetick; The moving is in general whatever moves the affec-

What think you of the bard's enchanting art, Which whether he attempts to warm the heart With fabled scenes, or charm the ear with rhyme, Breathes all pathetick, lovely, and sublime?

TO COME, ARRIVE.

Come is general; arrive is particular.

Persons or things come; persons only, or what is personified, arrive.

To come specifies neither time nor manner; arrival is employed with regard to some particular period or circumstances. The coming of our Saviour was pre-dicted by the prophets: the arrival of a messenger is expected at a certain hour. We know that evils must come, but we do wisely not to meet them by anticipation; the arrival of a vessel in the haven, after a long and dangerous voyage, is a circumstance of general interest in the neighbourhood where it happens;

Hail, rev'rend priest! to Phæbus' awful dome, A suppliant I from great Atrides come .- POPE. Old men love novelties; the last arriv'd Still pleases best, the youngest steals their smiles.

TO ADVANCE, PROCEED.

To advance (v. Advance) is to go towards some point; to proceed, from the Latin procedo, is to go onward in a certain course. The same distinction is preserved between them in their figurative acceptation

A person advances in the world, who succeeds in his A person advances in the world, who succeeds in his transactions and raises himself in society; he proceeds in his business, when he carries it on as he has done before; 'It is wonderful to observe by what a gradual progress the world of life advances through a prodigious variety of species, before a creature is formed that is complete in all its senses.'—Addison. ' If the scale of being rises by such a regular progress so high as man, we may by a parity of reason suppose that it still proceeds gradually through those beings which are of a superiour nature to him.'—Addison.

One advances by proceeding, and one proceeds in

order to advance.

Some people pass their lives in the same situation without advancing. Some are always doing without

proceeding.

Those who make considerable progress in learning stand the fairest chance of being advanced to dignity and honour.

PACE, STEP.

Pace, in French pas, Latin passus, comes from the Hebrew ywa to pass, and signifies the act of passing. or the ground passed over; step, which comes through the medium of the northern languages, from the Greek gelβειν, signifies the act of stepping, or the ground stepped over.

As respects the act, pace expresses the general man ner of passing on, or moving the body; step implies the manner of treading with the foot; the pace is distinguished by being either a walk or a run; and in regard to horses, a trot or a gallop; the step is distinguished by the right or the left, the forward or the backward. The same pace may be modified so as to be more or The same pace may be mounted so as to be more or less easy, more or less quick; the step may vary as it is light or heavy, graceful or ungraceful, long or short. We may go a slow pace with long steps, or we may go a quick pace with short steps. A slow pace is best suited to the solemnity of a funeral; a long step must be taken by soldiers in a slow march.

As respects the space passed or *strpped* over, the *pace* is a measured distance, formed by a long *stcp*; the *step*, on the other hand, is indefinitely employed for any space stepped over, but particularly that ordinary space which one steps over without an effort. A thousand paces was the Roman measurement for a mile. A step or two designates almost the shortest possible distance;

To-morrow, to-morrow, and to-morrow Creeps in a stealing pace from day to day, SHARSPEARE

Grace was in all her steps, heaven in her eye, In every gesture dignity and love .- MILTON

ONWARD, FORWARD, PROGRESSIVE.

Onward is taken in the literal sense of going nearer to an object: forward is taken in the sense of going from an object, or going farther in the line before one: progressive has the sense of going gradually or step by step before one.

A person goes onward who does not stand still; he

A person goes orward who does not recede; he goes progressively who goes forward at certain intervals.

Ouward is taken only in the proper acceptation of travelling; the traveller who has lost his way feels it necessary to go orward with the hope of arriving at some point;

Remote, unfriended, melancholy, slow Or by the lazy Scheld, or wandering Po Or onward where the rude Carinthian boor Against the houseless stranger shuts the door, Where'er I roam, whatever realms to see, My heart untravell'd fondly turns to thee.

GOLDSMITH.

Forward is employed in the improper as well as the proper application; a traveller goes forward in order to reach his point of destination as quickly as possible; a learner uses his utmost endeavours in order to get forward in his learning; 'Harbood the chairman was much blamed for his rashness; he said the duty of the chair was always to set things forward.—Burnett. Progressively is employed only in the improper application to what requires time and labour in order to bring it to a conclusion: every man goes on progressively in his art, until he arrives at the point of perfection attainable by him;

Reason progressive, instinct is complete.-Young.

EXCURSION, RAMBLE, TOUR, TRIP, JAUNT.

Excursion signifies going out of one's course, from the Latin ex and cursus a course or prescribed path: a ramble, from roam, of which it is a frequentative, is a going without any course or regular path: tour. from the word turn or return, is a circuitous course: a trip, from the Latin tripudio to go on the toes like a dancer, is properly a pedestrian excursion or tour, or

dancer, is properly a peaestrant excursion or tour, or any short journey that might be made on foot: journt, is from the French jourte the felly of a wheel, and jourter to put the felly in motion.

To go abroad in a carriage is an idle excursion, or one taken for mere pleasure: travellers who are not contented with what is not to be seen from a high road make frequent excursions into the interiour of the country, 'I am now so rus-in-urbeish, I believe I shall stay here, except little excursions and vagaries, for a year to come.'—GRAY. Those who are fond of rural scenery, and pleased to follow the bent of their inclinations, make frequent rambles; 'I am going on a short ramble to my Lord Oxford's.'—Popr. Those who set out upon a sober scheme of enjoyment from travelling, are satisfied with making the tour of some traveling, are satisfied with making the *tour* of some one country or more; 'My last summer's *tour* was through Worcestershire, Gloucestershire, Monmouthshire, and Shropshire.'—GRAY. Those who have not much time for pleasure take *trips*; 'I hold the resolution I told you in my last of seeing you if you cannot take a *trip* hither before I go.'—Pope. Those who have no better neare of seeding the interval. who have no better means of spending their time make jaunts; 'If you are for a merry jaunt, I'll try for once who can foot it farthest.'—DRYDEN.

JOURNEY, TRAVEL, VOYAGE.

Journey, from the French journée a day's work, and Latin diurnus daily, signifies the course that is taken in the space of a day, or in general any comparatively short passage from one place to another: travel, from the French travailler to labour, signifies such a course or passage as requires labour, and causes such a course or passage as requires labour, and causes fatigue; in general any long course: voyage is most probably changed from the Latin via a way, and ori-

ginally signified any course or passage to a distance, but is now confined to passages by sea.

We take journeys in different parts of the same country; we make voyages by sea, and travel by land.

Journeys are taken in different parts of the same country for a presidish thesises. country for a specifick business;

To Paradise, the happy seat of man, His journey's end, and our beginning wo .- MILTON.

Travels are made by land for amusement or informa-tion; 'In my travels I had been near their setting out in Thessaly, and at the place of their landing in Carniola.\(^{\text{-}}\)—Brown. \(^{\text{-}}\) \(^{\text{-}}\) or merchants for purposes of commerce; \(^{\text{-}}\) Our ships went sundry \(^{\text{-}}\) ovages as well to the pillars of Hercules as to other parts in the Atlantick and Mediterranean seas.'-BACON.

We estimate journeys by the day, as one or two

days' journey;

Scarce the sun Hath finished half his journey.

We estimate travels and voyages by the months and years that are employed;

Cease mourners; cease complaint, and weep no more, Your lost friends are not dead, but gone before, Advanc'd a stage or two upon that road

Which you must travel in the steps they trode. CUMBERLAND.

Calm and serene, he sees approaching death, As the safe port, th' peaceful silent shore, Where he may rest, life's tedious voyage o'er. JENYNS.

The Israelites are said to have journeyed in the wilderness forty years, because they went but short distances at a time. It is a part of polite education for young men of fortune to travel into those countries of Europe which comprehend the 'grand tour' as it is termed. A voyage round the world, which was at first a formidable undertaking, is now become familiar to the mind by its frequency.

ARISE OR RISE, MOUNT, ASCEND, CLIMB, SCALE

Arise, v. To arise; mount, from the Latin mons a mountain, signifies to go as it were up a mountain; ascend, in Latin ascendo, compounded of ad and scando, signifies to climb up towards a point; climb, in German klimmen, is probably connected with klammer a hook, signifying to rise by a hook; scale, in French escalader, Italian scalare, Latin scala a ladder, signifies to rise by a ladder.

The idea of going upwards is common to all these terms; arise is used only in the sense of simply get

ting up;

Th' inspected entrails could no fates foretell, Nor, laid on altars, did pure flames arise

DEVDEN.

But rise is employed to express a continued motion upward;

To contradict them, see all nature rise! What object, what event the moon beneath, But argues or endears an after-scene ?- Young.

A person arises from his seat or his bed; a bird rises in the air: the silver of the barometer rises; the first three of these terms convey a gradation in their sense; to arise or rise denotes a motion to a less elevated height than to mount, and to mount that which is less elevated than ascend: a person rises from his seat, mounts a hill, and ascends a mountain;

At length the fatal fabrick mounts the walls, Big with destruction .- DRYDEN.

We view a rising land like distant clouds; The mountain tops confirm the pleasing sight, And curling smoke ascending from their height. DRYDEN.

Arise and rise are intransitive only; the rest are likewise transitive; we rise from a point, we mount and ascend to a point, or we mount and ascend some thing; an air balloon rises when it first leaves the ground; it mounts higher and higher until it is out of sight; but if it ascends too high it endangers the life of the aerial adventurer.

Climb and scale express a species of rising : to climb is to rise step by step, by clinging to a certain body; to scale is to rise by an escalade, or species of ladder, employed in mounting the walls of fortified towns: trees and mountains are climbed; walls are

scaled :

While you (a.as, that I should find it so) To shun my sight, your native soil forego. And climb the frozen Alps, and tread the eternal snow. DRYDEN.

But brave Messapus, Neptune's warlike son, Broke down the pallisades, the trenches won, And loud for ladders calls, to scale the town. DRYDEN.

TO FALL, DROP, DROOP, SINK, TUMBLE.

Fall, v. Fall; drop and droop, in German tropfen, Low German, &c. druppen, is an onomatopein of the falling of a drop; sink, in German sinken, is an intensive of siegen to incline downward; tumble, in German tummeln, is an intensive of taumeln to reel backwards and forwards.

Pall is the generick, the rest specifick terms: to drop is to fall suddenly; to droop is to drop in part; to sink is to fall gradually; to tumble is to fall awkwardly or contrary to the usual mode. In cataracts the water falls perpetually and in a mass; in rain it drops partially; in ponds the water sinks low. The head droops, but the body may fall or drop from a height, it may sink down to the earth, it may tumble or accident;

Yet come it will, the day decreed by fates (How my heart trembles, while my tongue relates!) The day when thou, imperial Troy! must bend, And see thy warriours fall and glories end .- POPE. The wounded bird, ere yet she breathed her last, With flagging wings alighted on the mast, A moment hung, and spread her pinions there, Then sudden dropp'd and left her life in air.-Porn. Thrice Dido tried to raise her drooping head,

And fainting, thrice fell grov'ling on the bed. DRYDEN. Down sunk the priest; the purple hand of death

Clos'd his dim eye, and fate suppress'd his breath. Full on his ankle dropp'd the pond'rous stone Burst the strong nerves, and crush'd the solid bone, Supine he tumbles on the crimson'd sands .- Pope.

Fall, drop, and sink are employed in a moral sense; droop in the physical sense. A person falls from a state of prosperity; words drop from the lips, and sink into the heart. Corn, or the price of corn, falls; a subject drops; a person sinks into poverty or in the estimation of the world.

TO SLIP, SLIDE, GLIDE.

Slip is in Low German slipan, from the Latin labor to slip, and libe to pour, which comes from the Greek λείβομαι to pour down as water does, and the Hebrew

לפלפל to turn aside; slide is a variation of slip, and glide of slide.

To slip is an involuntary, and slide a voluntary motion: those who go on the ice in fear will slip; 'A skilful dancer on the ropes slips willingly, and makes a seeming tumble that you may think him in great hazard, while he is only giving you a proof of dexterity. -- DRYDEN. Boys slide on the ice by way of amuse ment:

Thessander bold, and Sthenelus their guide, And dire Ulysses down the cable slide .- DRYDEN.

To slip and slide are lateral movements of the feet: but to glide is the movement of the whole body, and just that easy motion which is made by slipping, sliding, flying, or swimming: a person glides along the surface of the ice when he slides; a vessel glides along through the water;

And softly let the running waters glide .- DRYDEN. In the moral and figurative application, a person slips who commits unintentional errours, or the thoughts slip away contrary to our intention; 'Every one finds that many of the ideas which he desired to retain have that many of the ideas which he desired to retain have irretrievably stapped away."—Johnson. A person slides into a course of life, who wittingly, and yet without difficulty, falls into the practice and habits which are recommended; he glides through life if he pursues his course smoothly and without interruption.

TO STAGGER, REEL, TOTTER.

Stagger is in all probability a frequentative from the German steigen, and the Greek σοιχέω to go, signifying to go backward and forward; to reel signifies to go like a reel in a winding manner; totter most probably comes from the German zittern to tremble, because to totter is a tremulous action.

All these terms designate an involuntary and an un steady motion; they vary both in the cause and the mode of the action; staggering and reeling are occasioned either by drunkenness or sickness;

Natheless it bore his foe not from his sell,

But made him stagger as he were not well.

The clouds, commix'd With stars, swift gliding sweep along the sky: All nature reels.—Thomson.

Tottering is purely the effect of weakness, particularly the weakness of old age: a drunken man always stag gers as he walks; one who is giddy reels from one part to another: to stagger is a much less degree of unsteadiness than to reel; for he who staggers is only thrown a little out of the straight path, but he who reels attogether loses his equilibrium; recling is commonly succeeded by falling. To stagger and reel are said as to the carriage of the whole body; but totter has particular reference to the limbs; the knees and the legs totter, and consequently the footsteps become tottering. In an extended application, the mountains may be said to stagger and to reel in an earthquake: houses may totter from their very bases;

Troy nods from high, and totters to her fall.

DRYDEN.

In a figurative application, the faith or the resolution of a person staggers when its hold on the mind is shaken, and begins to give way: a nation or a govern ment will totter when it is torn by intestine convul sions.

TO DRAW, DRAG, HAUL OR HALE, PULL PLUCK, TUG.

Draw comes from the Latin traho to draw, and the Greek δράσσω to lay hold of; drag through the me dium of the German tragen to carry, comes also from traho to draw; haul or hale comes from the Greek ελκω to draw; pull is in all probability changed from pello to drive or thrust; pluck is in the German plucken, &c.; tug comes from the German ziehen to pull.

Draw expresses here the idea common to the first three terms, namely, of putting a body in motion from behind oneself or towards oneself; to drag is to draw a thing with violence, or to draw that which makes resistance; to haul is to drag it with still greater vio-lence. A cart is drawn; a body is dragged along the ground; or a vessel is hauled to the shore;

Furious he said, and tow'rd the Grecian crew, (Seiz'd by the crest) the unhappy warriour drew; Struggling he follow'd, while th' embroider'd thong, That ty'd his helmet, dragg'd the chief along

Some hoisting levers, some the wheels prepare, And fasten to the horse's feet; the rest With cables haul along the unwieldy beast.

DRYDEN.

To pull signifies only an effort to draw without the idea of motion: horses pull very long sometimes he fore they can draw a heavily laden cart up hill; 'Twa magnets are placed, one of them in the roof and the other in the floor of Mahomet's burying-place at Mecca, and pull the impostor's iron coffin with such an equal attraction, that it hangs in the air between both of them.'—Addison. To pluck is to pull with a sudden twitch, in order to separate; thus feathers are plucked from animals;

Even children follow'd with endearing wile, And pluck'd his gown, to share the good man's smile GOLDSMITH.

To tug is to pull with violence; thus men tug at the

Clear'd, as I thought, and fully fix'd at length To learn the cause, I tugg'd with all my strength. DRYDEN

In the moral application we may be drawn by any 1 thing which can act on the mind to bring us near to an object; we are dragged only by means of force; we pull a thing towards us by a direct effort;

Hither we sail'd, a voluntary throng, To avenge a private, not a publick wrong; What else to Troy the assembled nations draws, But thine, ungrateful! and thy brother's cause.

POPE.

"T is long since I for my celestial wife Loath'd by the gods have dragg'd a lingering life. POPE.

Hear this, remember, and our fury dread Nor pull th' unwilling vengeance on thy head. POPE.

To haul, pluck, and tug are seldom used but in the physical application.

TO CAST, THROW, HURL.

Cast probably comes from casus, participle of cado to fall, signifying to make or to let fall; throw, in Saxon thrawan, is most probably a variation of thrust in Latin trudo, Chaldee terad to thrust repeatedly in Latin rudo, Chainee terda to thrust repeatedly; hurl, like the word whirl, comes from the Saxon hirficen, hiveorfun, German, &c. wirbel, Teutonic wirvel, Danish hvirvel, hvirvler, Latin verto, gyro, which are all derived from the Hebrew juy round,

signifying to turn round.

Cast conveys simply the idea of laying aside, or put-ting from one's self; throw and hurl designate more specifically the mode of the action: cast is an indifferent action, whether it respects ourselves or others; threw always marks a direct motive of dislike or contempt. What is not wanted is cast off; clothes which are no longer worn are cast off; what is worthless or hurtful is thrown away; the dross is separated from the wheat and thrown away; bad habits cannot be thrown off too soon.

Cast, as it respects others, is divested of all per-sonalities; but nothing is thrown at any one without an intention of offending or hurting: a glance is cast at a person, or things are cast before him; but insinuations are thrown out against a person; things are

thrown at him with the view of striking.

Cast requires no particular effort; it amounts in general to no more than let fall or go: throw is frequently accompanied with violence. Money is cast into a bag; stones are thrown from a great distance: animals cast their young at stated periods; a horse throws his rider; a lawless man throws off constraint;

As far as I could cast my eyes Upon the sea, something methought did rise Like bluish mists.—DRYDEN.

O war, thou son of hell! Whom angry heavens do make their minister, Throw in the frozen bosoms of our part Hot coals of vengeance !- SHAKSPEARE.

Hurl is a violent species of throwing employed only on extraordinary occasions, expressive of an unusual degree of vehemence in the agent, and an excessive provocation on the part of the sufferer: the hurler, the thing hurled, and the cause of hurling, correspond in magnitude; a mighty potentate is hurled from his throne by some power superiour to his own; Milton represents the devils as hurled from Heaven by the word of the Almighty; the heathen poets have feigned a similar story of the giants who made war against Heaven, and were hurled by the thunderbolts of Jupiter down to the earth:

Wreath my head With flaming meteors, load my arms with thunder, Which as I nimbly cut my cloudy way I'll hurl on this ungrateful earth.—TATE.

TO SPRING, START, STARTLE, SHRINK.

Spring, v. To spring; start is in all probability an intensive of stir; startle is a frequentative of start; shrink is probably an intensive of sink, signifying to

The idea of a sudden motion is expressed by all these terms, but the circumstances and mode differ in all; spring (v. To arise) is indefinite in these respects.

and is therefore the most general term. To spring and start may be either voluntary or involuntary movements, but spring is mostly voluntary, and start, which is an intensive of stir, is mostly involuntary; a person springs out of a place, or one animal springs upon another

Death wounds to cure; we fall, we rise, we reign, Spring from our fetters, and fasten in the skies.

A person or animal starts from a certain point to begin running, or starts with fright from one side to the other:

A shape within the wat'ry gleam appear'd, Bending to look on me: I started back, It started back .- MILTON.

To startle is always an involuntary action; a ho starts by suddenly flying from the point on which he stands; but if he startles he seems to fly back on himself and stops his course;

T is listening fear and dumb amazement, When to the startled eye the sudden glance Appears far south, eruptive through the cloud.

THOMSON.

To spring and start therefore always carry a person farther from a given point; but startle and shrink are movements within one's self; startling is a sudden convulsion of the frame which makes a person to stand in hesitation whether to proceed or not; shrinking is a contraction of the frame within itself; 'There is a horrour in the scene of a ravaged country which makes nature shrink back at the reflection.'-HERRING. Any sudden and unexpected sound makes a person startle the approach of any frightful object makes him shrink spring and start are employed only in the proper sense of corporeal movements: startle and shrink are employed in regard to the movements of the mind as well as the body.

TO SHAKE, AGITATE, TOSS.

Shake, in German schütten, Latin quatio, Hebrew TTW to shed; agitate, in Latin agito, is a frequentative of ago to drive, that is, to drive different ways; toss is probably contracted from the Latin torsi, preterite of torqueo to twirl.

A motion more or less violent is signified by all these terms, which differ both in the manner and the cause o. the motion. Shake is indefinite, it may differ in degree as to the violence; to agitate and toss rise in sense upon the word shake: a breeze shakes a leaf, a storm agitates the sea, and the waves toss a vessel to large and small bodies may be shaken; and tro: large and small ordice may be staken; large bodies are agitated; a handkerchief may be shaken; the earth is agitated by an earthquake. What is shaken and agitated is not removed from its place; but what is tossed is thrown from place to place. A house may frequently be shaken, while the foundation remains good; An unwholesome blast of air, a cold, nouse may requestly be stated, where the iomination remains good; 'An unwholesome blast of air, a cold, or a surfeit, may shake in pieces a man's hardy fabrick.'—South. The waters are most agritated while they remain within their bounds: 'We all must have observed that a speaker agitated with passion, or an actor, who is indeed strictly an imitator, are perpetually changing the tone and pitch of their voice as the sense of their words varies. —SIR WM. JONES. A ball is tossed from hand to hand;

Toss'd all the day in rapid circles round, Breathless I fell.—Pope.

To shake and toss are the acts either of persons or things; to agitate is the act of things, when taken in the active sense. A person shakes the hand of another, or the motion of a carriage shakes persons in general, and agitates those who are weak in frame; a chile tosses his food about, or the violent motion of a vessel tosses every thing about which is in it. To shake arises from external or internal causes; we may be shaken by others, or shake ourselves from cold; to agitate and toss arise always from some external action, direct or indirect; the body may be agitated by violent concussion from without, or from the action of perturbed feelings: the body may be tossed by various circumstances, and the mind may be tossed to and fro by the violent action of the passions. Hence the propriety of

tion is shaken, as the tree is by the wind:

Not my firm faith

Can by his fraud be shaken or seduc'd .- MILTON. The mind is agitated like troubled waters; 'His mother could no longer bear the agitations of so many passions as thronged upon her.'—TATLER. A person is tossed to and fro in the ocean of life, as the vessel is tossed by the waves:

Your mind is tossing on the sea, There where your argosies Do overpeer the petty traffickers .- SHAKSPEARE.

SHOCK, CONCUSSION.

Shock denotes a violent shake or agitation; concussion, a shaking together. The shock is often instantaneous, but does not necessarily extend beyond the act of the moment; the concussion is permanent in its consequences, it tends to derange the system. Hence the different application of the terms: the shock Hence the different application of the terms: the shock may affect either the body or the mind; the concussion affects properly only the body, or corporeal objects; a violent and sudden blow produces a shock at the moment it is given; but it does not always produce a concussion: the violence of a fall will, however, sometimes produce a concussion in the brain, which may affect the intellects. Sudden news of an exceedingly painful nature will often produce a shock on the mind; but time postly serves to wear away the effect which but time mostly serves to wear away the effect which has been produced.

TO SHOOT, DART.

To shoot and dart, in the proper sense, are clearly distinguished from each other, as expressing different modes of sending bodies to a distance from a given point. From the circumstances of the actions arise their different application to other objects in the imtheir different application to other objects in the importance of the shooting goes proper sense; as that which proceeds by shooting goes unexpectedly, and with great rapidity, forth from a body, so, in the figurative sense, a plant shoots up that comes so unexpectedly as not to be seen; a star is said shoot in the sky, which seems to move in a shooting manner, from one place to another: a dart, on the other hand, or that which is darted, moves through the tir visibly, and with less rapidity: hence the quick movements of persons or animals, are described by the word dart: a soldier darts forward to meet his anta-Jonist; a hart darts past any one in order to make her

TO REBOUND, REVERBERATE, RECOIL.

To rebound is to bound or spring back: a ball rebounds. To reverberate is to verberate or beat back: a sound reverberates when it echoes. To recoil is to recil or whirl back: a snake recoils. They preserve the same distinction in their figurative application; ' Honour is but the reflection of a man's own actions shining bright in the face of all about him, and from thence rebounding upon himself.'—South. 'You seemed to reverberate upon me with the beams of the san.'-Howel

Who in deep mines for hidden knowledge toils, Like guns o'ercharg'd, breaks, misses, or recoils. Denham.

TO SHAKE, TREMBLE, SHUDDER, QUIVER, QUAKE.

Shake, shudder, quiver, and quake, all come from the Latin quatio or cutio to shake, through the medium of the German schutteln, schutten, the Italian scussere, and the like; tremble comes from the Latin tremo.

To shake is a generick term, the rest are but modes of shaking: to trendle is to shake from an inward cause, or what appears to be so: in this manner a person trembles from fear, from cold, or weakness; and a leaf which is imperceptibly agitated by the air is also said to tremble: to shudder is to tremble violently: to quiver tremble: to sauder is to tremble quickly; but the former and quake are both to tremble quickly; but the former denotes rather a vibratory motion, as the point of a spear when thrown against wood; the latter a quick motion of the whole body, as in the case of bodies that

using the terms in the moral application. The resolu- | have not sufficient consistency in themselves to remain

The rapid radiance instantaneous strikes Th' illumin'd mountain, through the forest streams, Shakes on the floods.—Thomson.

The trembling pilot, from his rudder torn, Was headlong hurl'd.—DRYDEN.

He said, and hurl'd against the mountain side His quivering spear .- DRYDEN.

Thereto as cold and dreary as a snake,

That seem'd to tremble evermore and quake. SPENSER.

TO PALPITATE, FLUTTER, PANT, GASP.

Palpitate, in Latin palpitatus, from palpito, is a frequentative of the Greek πάλλω to vibrate; flutter is a frequentative of fly, signifying to fly backward and a frequentiative of the state of suspense, so as not to be able to move backward or forward, as is the case with the breath when one pants? gasp is a variation of gape, which is the ordinary accompaniment in the action of gasping.

These terms agree in a particular manner, as they respect the irregular action of the heart or lungs: the

two former are said of the heart; and the two latter of the lungs or breath; to palpitate expresses that which is strong; it is a strong beating of the blood against the vessels of the heart; 'No plays have oftener filled the eyes with tears, and the breast with palpitation, than those which are variegated with interludes of mirth.'— Johnson. To fluster expresses that which is rapid; it is a violent and alternate motion of the blood backward and forward;

She springs aloft, with elevated pride, Above the tangling mass of low desires, That bind the fluttering crowd.—Thomson.

Fear and suspense produce commonly palpitation, but joy and hope produce a fluttering: panting is, with regard to the breath, what palpitating is with regard to the heart; panting is occasioned by the inflated state of the respiratory organs which renders this palpitating necessary:

All nature fades extinct, and she alone, Heard, felt, and seen, possesses every thought, Fills every sense, and pants in every vein. THOMSON.

Gasping differs from the former, inasmuch as it denotes a direct stoppage of the breath; a cessation of action in the respiratory organs:

Had not the soul this outlet to the skies, In this vast vessel of the universe, How should we gasp, as in an empty void! Young.

ALARM, TERROUR, FRIGHT, CONSTER NATION.

Alarm, in French alarmer, is compounded of al or ad and arms arms, signifying a cry to arms, a signal of danger, a call to defence; terrour, in Latin terror, comes from terreo to produce fear; fright, from the German furcht fear, signifies a state of fear: consternation nation, in Latin consternatus, from consternatolay low or prostrate, expresses the mixed emotion of terrour and amazement which confounds.

Alarm springs from any sudden signal that announces the approach of danger. Terrour springs from any event or phenomenon that may serve as a prognostic of some catastrophe. It supposes a less distinct view of danger than alarm, and affords room to the imagination, which commonly magnifies objects. Alarm there fore makes us run to our defence, and terrour disarms

None so renewn'd With breathing brass to kindle fierce alarms. DRYDEN.

'I was once in a mixed assembly, that was full of noise and mirth, when on a sudden an old woman unluckily observed, there were thirteen of us in company. The remark struck a panick terrour into several of us.'-

Fright is a less vivid emotion than either, as it arises

from the simple appearance of danger. It is more personal than either alarm or tebrour; for we may be alarmed or terrified for others, but we are mostly frightened for ourselves. Consternation is stronger than either terrour or affright; it springs from the view of some very serious evil; 'I have known a solding that has anteed a heach of sighted at his dier that has entered a breach affrighted at his own shadow' .- ADDISON.

The son of Pelias ceased; the chiefs around In silence wrapt, in consternation drown'd .-- POPE.

Alarm affects the feelings, terrour the understanding, and fright the senses; consternation seizes the whole mind, and benumbs the faculties

mind, and bendings the faculties.

Cries alarm; horrid spectacles terrify; a tumult frightens; a sudden calamity fills with consternation.

One is illed with aiarm, seized with terrour, overwhelmed with fright or consternation.

We are alarmed for what we apprehend; we are terrified by what we imagine; we are frightened by what we see; consternation may be produced by what

TO DISMAY, DAUNT, APPAL.

Dismay is probably changed from the French des-Dismay is provably changed from the French aesmouwoir, signifying to move or pull down the spirit; daunt, changed from the Latin domitus conquered, signifies to bring down the spirit; appal, compounded of the intensive up or ad and palleo to grow pale, signifies to make pale with fear.

The effect of fear on the spirit is strongly expressed by all these terms of the part of the party of the p

by all these terms; but dismay expresses less than daunt, and this than appal. We are dismayed by alarming circumstances; we are daunted by terrifying; we are appathed by horrid circumstances. A severe defeat will dismay so as to lessen the force of resistance;

So flies a herd of beeves, that hear, dismay'd, The lions roaring through the midnight shade

The fiery glare from the eyes of a ferocious beast will

daunt him who was venturing to approach; Jove got such heroes as my sire, whose soul No fear could daunt, nor earth, nor hell control .- POPE. The sight of an apparition will appal the stoutest heart;

Now the last ruin the whole host appals; Now Greece had trembled in her wooden walls, But wise Ulysses call'd Tydides forth .- POPE.

BOLD, FEARLESS, INTREPID, UNDAUNTED.

Bold, v. Audacity; fearless signifies without fear (v. To apprehend); intrepid, compounded of m privative and trepidus trembling, marks the total absence of fear; undaunted, of un privative, and duunted, from the Latin domitatus, participle of domitare to impress with fear, signifies unimpressed or unmoved at the prospect of danger.

Boldness is positive; fearlessness is negative; we may therefore be fearless without being bold, or fear-

less through boldness ;

Such unheard of prodigies hang o'er us, As make the boldest tremble.—Young.

Fearlessness is a temporary state: we may be fearless of danger at this, or at that time; fearless of loss, and the like:

The careful hen Calls all her chirping family around, Fed and defended by the fearless cock.—Thomson.

Boldness is a characteristick; it is associated with constant fearlessness;

His party, press'd with numbers, soon grew faint, And would have left their charge an easy prey; While he alone, undaunted at the odds,

Though hopeless to escape, fought well and bravely. Rowe.

Intrepidity and undauntedness denote a still higher degree of fearlessness than boldness : boldness is conndent, it forgets the consequences; intrepidity is col-lected, it sees the danger, and faces it with composure; undauntedness is associated with unconquerable firmmess and resolution; it is awed by nothing: the bold man proceeds on his enterprise with spirit and viva-

city; the intrepid man calmly advances to the scene of death and destruction; 'I could not sufficiently wonder at the intrepidity of those diminutive mortals, who durst venture to walk upon my body, without trembling.'—Swift. The undaunted man keeps his countenance in the season of trial, in the midst of the

most terrifying and overwhelming circumstances.

These good qualities may, without great care, degenerate into certain vices to which they are closely

Of the three, boldness is the most questionable in its nature, unless justified by the absolute urgency of the case; in maintaining the cause of truth against the lawless and oppressive exercise of power, it is an essential quality, but it may easily degenerate into insolent defiance and contempt of superiours; it may lead to the provoking of resentinent and courting of persecution. Intrepidity may become rashness if the contempt of danger lead to an unnecessary exposure of the life and person. Unduratedness, in the presence of a brutal tyrant, may serve to baffle all his malignant purposes of revenge; but the same spirit may be employed by the hardened villain to preserve himself from detection.

MANLY, MANFUL.

Manly, or like a man, is opposed to juvenile or puerile, and of course applied to those who are fitted to act the part of men; 'I love a manly freedom as much as any of the band of cashierers of kings.'—BURKE. Manful, or full of manhood, is opposed to effeminate, many ut, or fun of mannoon, is opposed to elemining, and is applicable to particular persons, or persons in particular cases, 'I opposed his whim manfully, which I think you will approve of.'—CUMBERLAID. A premature manliness in young persons is hardly less inseemly that a want of manfulness in one who is called upon to display his courage.

FEARFUL, DREADFUL, FRIGHTFUL, TRE-MENDOUS, TERRIBLE, TERRIFICK, HORRIBLE, HORRID.

Fearful here signifies full of that which causes fear (v. Alarm); dreadful, full of what causes dread (v. Apprehension); frightful, full of what causes fright (v. Afraid) or apprehension; tremendous, that which causes trembling; treville, or terrifick, causing terrour (v. Alarm); harrible, or horrid, causing horrour. The application of these terms is easily to be discovered by these definitions: the first two affort the The application of these terms the first two affect the mind more than the senses; all the others affect the senses more than the mind: a contest is fearful when the issue is important, but the event doubtful;

She wept the terrours of the fearful wave, Too off, alas! the wandering lover's grave. FALCONER.

The thought of death is dreadful to one who feels himself unprepared;

And dar'st thou threat to snatch my prize away Due to the deeds of many a dreadful day ?- Pope.

The frightful is less than the tremendous; the tre mendous than the terrible; the terrible than the hor rible; shricks may be frightful;

Frightful convulsions writh'd his tortur'd limbs FENTON.

The roaring of a lion is terrible;

Was this a face to be expos'd In the most terrible and nimble stroke Of quick, cross lightning ?- SHAKSPEARE.

Thunder and lightning may be tremendous, or con vulsions may be tremendous: the glare in the eye of a ferocious beast is terrifick; Out of the limb of the murdered monarchy has arisen a vast, tremendous, unformed spectre, in a far more terrifick guise than any which ever yet overpowered the imagination of man.'—BURKE. The actual spectacle of killing is horrible or horrid;

Deck'd in sad triumph for the mournful field O'er her broad shoulders hangs his horrid shield

In their general application, these terms are often em ployed promiscuously to characterize whatever pro-duces very strong impressions: hence we may speak of a frightful, dreadful, terrible, or horrid dream; or ightful, dreadful, or terrible tempest : dreadful, terrible, or horrid consequences.

TO APPREHEND, FEAR, DREAD.

Apprehend, in French apprehender, Latin apprehende, compounded of ap and prehende to lay hold of in a moral sense signifies to seize with the understanding; fear comes in all probability through the medium of the Latin pavor and vercor, from the Greek φρίσσω to feel a shuddering: dread, in Latin territo, comes from the Greek ταράσσω to trouble, signifying to fear with exceeding trouble.

These words rise progressively in their import they mark a sentiment of pain at the prospect of evil but the sentiment of apprehension is simply that of uneasiness; that of fear is anxiety; that of dread is

wretchedness.

We apprehend an unpleasant occurrence; we fear a misfortune; we dread a calamity. What is possible is apprehended; 'Our natural sense of right and wrong produces an apprehension of merited punishment, when we have committed a crime.'—BLAR.
What is probable is feared; 'That which is feared
may sometimes be avoided: but that which is reguetted
to-day may be regretted again to-morrow.'—Johnson. The symptom or prognostick of an evil is dreaded as if the evil itself were present;

All men think all men mortal but themselves, Themselves, when some alarming shock of fate Strikes through their wounded hearts the sudden dread .- Young.

Apprehend respects things only; fear and dread relate to persons as well as things: we fear the person who has the power of inflicting pain or disgrace; we dread him who has no less the will than the power.

Fear is a salutary sentiment in society, it binds men together in their several relations and dependencies, and affords the fullest scope for the exercise of the benevolent feelings; it is the sentiment of a child towards its parent or instructer; of a creature to its Creator; it is the companion of love and respect towards men, of adoration in erring and sinful mortals towards their Maker. Dread is altogether an irksome sentiment; with regard to our fellow-creatures, it arises out of the abuse of power: we dread the tyrant who delights in punishing and tormenting, his image haunts the breast of the unhappy subject, his shadow awakens terrour as the approach of some direful misforune with regard to our Maker it springs from a conscious ness of guilt, and the prospect of a severe and adequate punishment; the wrath of God may justly be dreaded.

AWE, REVERENCE, DREAD

Awe, probably from the German achten, conveys the idea of regarding; reverence, in French reverence, Latin reverentia, comes from revereor to fear strongly dread, in Saxon dread, comes from the Latin territo

to frighten, and Greek ταράσσω to trouble

Ave and reverence both denote a strong sentiment of respect, mingled with some emotions of fear; but the former marks the much stronger sentiment of the two: dread is an unmingled sentiment of fear for one's personal security. Awe may be awakened by the belo of the senses and understanding; reverence by that of the understanding only; and dread principally by that

of the imagination.

Sublime, sacred, and solemn objects awaken awe; they cause the beholder to stop and consider whether he is worthy to approach them any nearer; they rivet his mind and body to a spot, and make him cautious, lest by his presence he should contaminate that which is hallowed; 'It were endless to enumerate all the passages, both in the sacred and profane writers, which establish the general sentiment of mankind concerning the inseparable union of a sacred and reverential awe with our ideas of the Divinity.'—BURKE. Exalted and noble objects produce reverence; they lead to every outward mark of obeisance and humiliation which it is possible for a man to express; 'If the voice of universal nature, the experience of all ages, the light of reason, and the immediate evidence of my senses, cannot awake me to a dependence upon my God, a reverence for his religion, and an humble opinion of myself, what a lost creature am I.—CUMBELLAND. Terifick objects excite dread: they cause a sluddeing of the animal frame, and a revulsion of the mind which, is attended with nothing but pain;

To Phæbus next my trembling steps be led, Full of religious doubts and awful dread.

When the creature places himself in the presence of the Creator; when he contemplates the immeasurable distance which separates himself, a frail and finite mortal, from his infinitely perfect Maker; he approaches with awe; even the sanctuary where he is accustomed thus to bow before the Almighty acquires the power of awakening the same emotions in his nind. Age, wisdom, and virtue, when combined in one person, are never approached without teverence; the possessor has a dignity in himself that checks the haughtiness of the arrogant, that silences the petulance of pride and self-conceit, that stills the noise and giddy mirth of the young, and communicates to all around a sobriety of mien and aspect. A grievous offender is seldom without dread; his guilty conscience pictures every thing as the instrument of vengeance, and every person as denouncing his merited sentence.

The solemn stillness of the tomb will inspire awe, even in the breast of him who has no dread of death. Children should be early taught to have a reverence for the Bible as a book, in distinction from all other books.

AFRAID, FEARFUL, TIMOROUS, TIMID.

Afraid is changed from afeared, signifying in a state of fear; fearful, as the words of which it is com-pounded imply, signifies full of fear; timorous and timid come from the Latin timor fear, timidus fearful, and timeo to fear.

The first denotes a temporary state, the three last a habit of the mind.

Afraid may be used either in a physical or moral application, either as it relates to ourselves only or to others; fearful and timorous are only applied physically and personally; timid is mostly used in a moral

It is the character of the fearful or timorous person to be afraid of what he imagines would hurt himself; it is not necessary for the prospect of danger to sen; the not necessary for the prospect of danger to exist in order to awaken fear in such a disposition; 'To be always afraid of losing life is, indeed, scarcely to enjoy a life that can deserve the care of preservation.—Johnson. It is the characteristick of the tonid person to be afraid of offending or meeting with some thing painful from others; such a disposition is pre-vented from following the dictates of its own mind: ' He who brings with him into a clamorous multitude the timidity of recluse speculation, will suffer himself to be driven by a burst of laughter from the fortresses of demonstration.'-Johnson.

Between fearful and timorous there is little distinction, either in sense or application, except that we say for, enter in sense of apparation, except that we say fearful of a thing; not timorous of a thing; 'By I know not what impatience of raillery, he is wonderfully fearful of being thought too great a believer.' STEELE.

Then birds in airy space might safely move, And tim'rous hares on heaths securely rove.

TO FRIGHTEN, INTIMIDATE.

Between frighten and intimidate there is the same difference as between fright (v. Alarm) and fear (v. To apprehend); the danger that is near or before the eyes frightens; that which is seen at a distance intimidates. hence females are oftener frightened, and men are oftener intimidated: noises will frighten: threats may intimidate; we may run away when we are frightened; we waver in our resolution when we are intimidated; we fear immediate bodily harm when we are frightened; we fear harm to our property as well as our persons when we are intimidated: frighten, therefore, is always applied to animals, but intimidate never;

And perch, a horrour! on his sacred crown. If that such profanation were permitted

Of the bystanders, who with reverend care Fright them away .- CUMBERLAND.

'Cortes, unwilling to employ force, endeavoured alternately to sooth and intimidate Montezuma.'—Ro-BERTSON.

FORMIDABLE, DREADFUL, TERRIBLE, SHOCKING.

Formidable is applied to that which is apt to excite Formacoe is applied to that which is apt to excite fear (v. To apprehend); dreadful (v. To apprehend) to what is calculated to excite dread; terrible (v. Alarm) to that which excites terrour; and shocking from to shake is applied to that which violently shakes or agitates (v. To agitate). The formidable acts neither suddenly nor violently; 'France continued not only powerful but formidable to the hour of the ruin of the monarchy.'—Burke. The dreadful may act violently, but not suddenly: thus the appearance of an army may be formidable; that of a field of battle is dreadful;

Think, timely think, on the last dreadful day. DRYDEN.

The terrible and shocking act both suddenly and vio lently; but the former acts both on the senses and the inagination, the latter on the noral feelings only: thus the glare of a tiger's eye is terrible; the nnexpected news of a friend's death is shocking; 'When men are arrived at thinking of their very dissolution with pleasure, how few things are there that can be terrible to them.—Steele.' Nothing could be more terrible to them.'—Steele. 'Nothing could be more shocking to a generous nobility, than the intrusting to mercenary hands the defence of those territories which had been acquired or preserved by the blood of their ancestors.'—ROBERTSON.

TREMBLING, TREMOUR, TREPIDATION.

All these terms are derived from the very same All these terms are derived from the very some course (v. Agitation), and designate a general state of agitation: trembling is not only the most familiar but also the most indefinite term of the three; trepidation and tremour are species of trembling. Trembling expresses any degree of involuntary shaking of the frame, from the affection either of the hody or the cold, nervous affections, fear, and the like, are mind: the ordinary causes of trembling;

And with unmanly tremblings shook the car.

Tremour is a slight degree of trembling, which arises only from a mental affection; when the spirits are agitated, the mind is thrown into a tremour by any trifling incident; 'Laughter is a vent of any sudden joy that strikes upon the mind, which, being too volatile and strong, breaks out in this tremour of the voice.'—
STERLE. Trepidation is more violent than either of the two, and springs from the defective state of the mind, it shows itself in the action, or the different movements of the body; those who have not the re-quisite composure of mind to command themselves on all occasions are apt to do what is required of them with trepidation; 'The ferocious insolence of Cromwell, the rugged brutality of Harrison, and the general trepidation of fear and wickedness (in the rebel parliament) would make a picture of unexampled variety. -Johnson. Trembling is either an occasional or an habitual infirmity; there is no one who may not be sometimes seized with a trembling, and there are those who, from a lasting disease or from old age, are never rid of it; tremour is but occasional, and consequently depends rather on the nature of the occasion; no one who has a proper degree of modesty can make his first appearance in publick without feeling a tremour; tre-pidation may be either occasional or habitual, but oftener the latter, since it arises rather from the weakness of the mind than the strength of the cause.

Trembling and tremulous are applied as epithets, either to persons or things: a trembling voice evinces trepidation of mind, a tremulous voice evinces a tremour of mind: notes in musick are sometimes tremoting; the motion of the leaves of trees is tremu-Lous :

And rend the trembling unresisting prey .- POPE. As thus th' effulgence tremulous I drank, With cherish'd gaze. - THOMSON.

AGITATION, EMOTION, TREPIDATION, TREMOUR.

Agitation, in Latin agitatio, from agito, signifies the state of being agitated; emotion, in Latin emotio, from emotus, participle of emoveo, compounded of e out of and moveo to move, signifies the state of being moved out of rest or put in motion; trepidation, in Latin trepidatio, from trepido to tremble, compounded of tremo and pede to tremble with the feet, signifies the condition of trembling in all one's limbs from head to foot: tremmers in Trepiblacion. to foot; tremour, v. Trembling.

Agitation refers either to the body or mind, emotion

to the mind only; tremour mostly, and trepidation

only, to the body.

Agitation of mind is a vehement struggle between contending feelings; emotion is the awakening but one feeling; which in the latter case is not so vehement as in the former. Distressing circumstances produce agitation; 'The seventh book affects the imagination like the ocean in a calm, and fills the mind of the reader without producing in it any thing like tumult or agitation.—Apptison (On Milton). Affecting and interesting circumstances produce emotions; 'The description of Adam and Eve as they first appeared to Satan, is exquisitely drawn, and sufficient to make the fallen angel gaze upon them with all those emotions of envy in which he is represented.' son (On Milton).

Agitations have but one character, namely, that of violence: emotions vary with the object that awakens them; they are emotions either of pain or pleasure, of tenderness or anger; they are either gentle or strong,

faint or vivid.

With regard to the body, agitation is more than trepidation, and the latter more than tremour; the two former attract the notice of the bystander; the latter

is scarcely visible.

Agitations of the mind sometimes give rise to distorted and extravagant agitations of the body; emotions of terrour or horrour will throw the body into a a trepidation; or any publick misfortune may produce a trepidation among a number of persons; 'His first action of note was in the battle of Lepanto, where the action of note was in the batter of Lepanto, where the success of that great day, in such trepidation of the state, made every man meritorious.'—Wotton. Emotions of fear will cause a tremour to run through the whole frame: 'He fell into such a universal tremour of all his joints, that when going his legs trembled under him.'—Hervey.

TO ACTUATE, IMPEL, INDUCE

Actuate, from the Latin actum an action, implies to call into action; impel, in Latin impello, is compounded of in towards and pello to drive, signifying to drive towards an object; induce, in Latin induce, is compounded of in and duce, signifying to lead towards an object.

One is actuated by motives, impelled by passions,

and induced by reason or inclination.

Whatever induces by reason or inclination. Whatever actuates is the result of reflection: it is a steady and fixed principle: whatever impels is momentary and vehement, and often precludes reflection: whatever induces is not vehement, though often momentary and reflection. mentary.

We seldom repent of the thing to which we we senom repent of the thing to which we are actuated; as the principle, whether good or bad, is not liable to change; 'It is observed by Cicero, that men of the greatest and the most shining parts are most actuated by ambition.'—Addition. We may frequently be impelled to measures which cause serious repentance:

When youth impell'd him, and when love inspir'd The listening nymphs his Dorick lays admir'd. SIR WM. JONES.

The thing to which we are induced is seldom of sufficient importance to call for repentance;

Induced by such examples, some have taught That bees have portions of ethereal thought.

Revenge actuates men to commit the most horrid deeds; anger impels them to the most imprudent actions; phlegmatick people are not easily induced to take any one measure in preference to another

TO EXCITE, INCITE, PROVOKE,

Excite, v. To awaken; incite, v. To encourage; provoke, v. To aggravate.

To excite is said more particularly of the inward

feelings; incite is said of the external actions; provoke is said of both.

A person's passions are excited; he is incited by any particular passion to a course of conduct; a particular feeling is provoked, or he is provoked by some feeling to a particular step. Wit and conversation excite

Can then the sons of Greece (the sage rejoin'd) Excite compassion in Achilles' mind ?-Pope.

Men are incited by a lust for gain to fraudulent prac-

To her the god: Great Hector's soul incite To dare the boldest Greek to single fight,
Till Greece provok'd from all her numbers show A warriour worthy to be Hector's foe -Pope.

Men are provoked by the opposition of others to intemperate language and intemperate measures; 'Among the other torments which this passion produces, we may usually observe, that none are greater mourners than jealous men, when the person who provoked their jealousy is taken from them.'—Addison. To excite is jealousy is taken from them.'—Addison. To excite is very frequently used in a physical acceptation; incite always, and provoke mostly, in a moral application. We speak of exciting hunger, thirst, or perspiration; of inciting to noble actions; of provoking impertinence, provoking scorn or resentment.

When excite and provoke are applied to similar objects, the former designates a much stronger action than the latter. A thing may excite a smile, but it remarks a laughter; it may excite displeasive, but it

provokes laughter; it may excite displeasure, but it provokes anger; it may excite joy or sorrow, but it provokes to madness.

TO PRESS, SQUEEZE, PINCH, GRIPE.

Press, in Latin pressus, participle of premo, which probably comes from the Greek $\beta\acute{a}\rho\eta\mu a$; squeeze, in Saxon quisan, Latin quasso, Hebrew yun to press tegether; pinch is but a variation from pin, spine; gripe, from the German greifen, signifies to seize, like the word grapple or grasp, the Latin rapio, the Greek γοιπίζω to fish or catch, and the Hebrew 271 to catch.

The forcible action of one body on another is included in all these terms. In the word press this is the only idea; the rest differ in the circumstances. We may press with the foot, the hand, the whole body, or any particular limb; one squeezes commonly with the hand; one pinches either with the fingers, or an instrument constructed in a similar form; one gripes with teeth, claws, or any instrument that can gain a hold of the object. Inanimate as well as animate objects press or pinch; but to squeeze and gripe are more properly the actions of animate objects; the former is always said of persons, the latter of animals; stones press that on which they rest their weight; a door which shuts of itself may pinch the fingers; one squeezes the hand of a friend; lobsters and many other shell-fish gripe whatever comes within their claws.

In the figurative application they have a similar distinction; we press a person by importunity, or by some coercive measure; 'All these women (the thirty wives of Orodes) pressed hard upon the old king, each soliciting for a son of her own. - PRIDEAUX. An extortioner squeezes in order to get that which is given with reluctance or difficulty; 'Ventidius, receiving great sums from Herod to promote his interest, and at the same time greater to hinder it, squeezed each of them to the utmost, and served neither.'-PRI-DEAUX. A miser pinches himself by contracting his subsistence

Better dispos'd to clothe the tatter'd wretch, Who shrinks beneath the blast, to feed the poor Pinch'd with afflictive want .- SomeRVILLE.

A covetous person gripes all that comes within his possession; 'How can he be envied for his felicity who is conscious that a very short time will give him up to the gripe of poverty.'—Johnson. TO RUB, CHAFE, FRET, GALL.

To rub, through the medium of the northern lauguages, comes from the Hebrew 377. It is the generick term, expressing simply the act of moving bodies when in contact with each other; to chafe, from the French chauffer, and the Latin calfacere to make hot, signifies to rub a thing until it is heated; to fret, like the word fritter, comes from the Latin frio to crumble, signifying to wear away by rubbing: to gall, from the noun gall, signifies to make as bitter or painful as gall, that is, to wound by rubbing. Things are rubbed sometimes for purposes of convenience; but they are chafed, fretted, and galled injuriously: the skin is liable to chafe from any violence; leather will fret from the motion of a carriage; when the skin is once broken, animals will become galled by a continuance of the friction. These terms are likewise used in the moral or figurative sense to denote the actions of things on the mind, where the distinction is clearly We meet with rubs from the opposing senkept up. timents of others; 'A boy educated at home meets with continual rubs and disappointments (when he comes into the world).'—Beatthe. The angry humours are chafed;

Accoutred as we were, we both plung'd in The troubled Tiber, chafing with the shores. SHAKSPEARE.

The mind is fretted and made sore by the frequent repetition of small troubles and vexations;

And full of indignation frets, That women should be such coquettes .- Swift The pride is galled by humiliation and severe degradations;

Thus every poet in his kind Is bit by him that comes behind, Who, tho' too little to be seen, Can tease and gall, and give the spleen .- Swift.

EBULLITION, EFFERVESCENCE, FERMENT-ATION.

These technical terms have a strong resemblance in their signification, but they are not strictly synony-mous; having strong characteristick differences.

Ebullition, from the Latin ebullitio and ebullio, compounded of e and bullio to boil forth, marks the commotion of a liquid acted upon by fire, and in chymistry it is said of two substances, which by penetrating each other occasion bubbles to rise up: effervescence, from the Latin effervescentia and effervesco to grow hot, marks the commotion which is excited in liquors by a combination of substances; such as of acids, which are mixed and commonly produce heat; fermentation, from the Latin fermentatio and fermen-tum or fervimentum, from ferveo to grow hot, marks the internal movement which is excited in a liquid of itself, by which its components undergo such a change or decomposition, as to form a new body.

Ebullition is a more violent action than effervescence; fermentation is more gradual and permanent than either. Water is exposed to ebullition when acted upon by any powerful degree of external heat; iron in aqua fortis occasions an effervescence; beer and wine undergo a fermentation before they reach a

state of perfection.

These words are all employed in a figurative sense, which is drawn from their physical application. passions are exposed to *cbullitions*, in which they break forth with all the violence that is observable in break forth with all the violence that is observable in water agitated by excessive heat; 'Milbourn, indeed, a clergyman, attacked it (Dryden's Virgil), but his outrages seem to be the ebullitions of a mind agitated by stronger resentment than bad poetry can excite."

JOHNSON. The heart and affections are exposed to effervescence when powerfully awakened by particular 'Dryden's was not one of the gentle bosoms: he hardly conceived love but in its turbulent effer-vescence with some other desires.—Johnson. Minds are said to be in a ferment which are agitated by con-flicting feelings; 'The turnult of the world raises that eager fermentation of spirit which will ever be sending

* Vide Beauzée: "Ebullition, effervescence, fermentation."

forth the dangerous fumes of folly.'-Blair. Ebullition and therescence are applicable only to indivi-

duals; fermentation to one or many.

If the angry humours of an ira-cible temper be not restrained in early life, they but too frequently break forth in the most dreadful ebullitions in maturer years; religious zeal, when not constrained by the sober exerrengious zear, when not constrained by the soule exer-cise of judgement, and corrected by sound knowledge, is an unhappy effernescence that injures the cause which it espouses, and often proves fatal to the indi-vidual by whom it is indulged; the ferment which was produced in the publick mind by the French revolution exceeded every thing that is recorded in history of popular commotions in past ages, and will, it is to be hoped, never have its parallel at any future period. There can be no challition or fermentation without effervescence; but there may be effervescence without either of the former.

INTOXICATION, DRUNKENNESS, INFATUA-TION.

Intoxication, from the Latin toxicum a poison, signifies imbued with a poison; drunkenness signifies the state of having drunk overmuch; infatuation, from fatuus foolish, signifies making foolish.

Interception and drunkenness are used either in the proper or the improper sense; infatuation in the improper sense only. Interication is a general state; drunkenness a particular state. Interication may be produced by various causes; drunkenness is produced only by an immoderate indulgence in some intoxicating liquor: a person may be intoxicated by the smell of strong liquors, or by vapours which produce a similar effect; he becomes dranken by the drinking of wine or other spirits. In the improper sense a deprivation of strong liquors, or the first property of the companying faculting is the companying faculting in the companying faculting is the companying faculting in the companying faculting in the companying faculting is the companying faculting in the companying faculting in the companying faculting in the companying in the sentence of the companying faculting in the companying facultin of one's reasoning faculties is the common idea in the signification of all these terms. The intervention and drunkenness spring from the intemperate state of the feelings; the infatuation springs from the ascendancy of the passions over the reasoning powers. A person is intoxicated with success, drunk with joy, and infatuated by an excess of vanity, or an in-petuosity of character; 'This plan of empire was not taken up in the first interication of unexpected success.'-BURKE. 'Passion is the drunkenness of the mind.'—South.
'A sure destruction impends over those infatuated princes, who, in the conflict with this new and unheard of power, proceed as if they were engaged in a war that hore a resemblance to their former contests.'-BURKE.

A person who is naturally intoxicated reels and is giddy; he who is in the moral sense intoxicated is disgood; he who is in the moral sense translate is dis-orderly and unsteady in his conduct: a dranken man's deprived of the use of all his senses, and in the moral sense he is bewildered and unable to collect himself. An inflatated man is not merely foolish but wild he carries his folly to the most extravagant pitch.

TO AWAKEN, EXCITE, PROVOKE, ROUSE, STIR UP.

To awaken is to make awake or alive; to exerte, in Latin exerte, compounded of the intensive syllables ex and cito, in Hebrew AD to move, signifies to move out of a state of rest; provoke, from the Latin provoce to call forth, signifies to call forth the feelings; to rouse is to cause them to rise; and to ster, from the Ger man storen, and the Latin turbo, is to put in commotion.

To excite and provoke convey the idea of producing something; rouse and stir up that of only calling into action that which previously exists; to awaken is used

in either sense.

To awaken is a gentler action than to excite, and this is gentler than to provoke. We awaken by a simple effort; we excite by repeated efforts or forcible means; we provoke by words, looks, or actions. The tender feelings are awakened; affections or the passions in general are excited; the angry passions are commonly provoked. Objects of distress unaken a sentiment of pity; competition among scholars excites a spirit of emulation; taunting words provoke auger

Awaken is applied only to the individual and what easses within him; excite is applicable to the outward circumstances of one or many; provoke is applicable

to the conduct or temper of one or many. The attention is awakened by interesting sounds that strike upon the ear; the conscience is awakened by the voice of the preacher, or by passing events; The soul has its curiosity more than ordinarily awakened when it turns its thoughts upon the conduct of such who have behaved themselves with an equal, a resigned, a cheer ful, a generous, or heroic temper in the extremity of death. STELLE. A commotion, a tumult, or a re bellion is excited among the people by the active efforts of individuals; 'In our Saviour was no form of come liness than men should desire, no artifice or trick to catch applause, or to excite surprise.'—Cumberland. Laughter or contempt is provoked by preposterous conduct:

See, Mercy! see with pure and loaded hands Before thy shrine my country's genius stands. When he whom e'en our joys provoke, The fiend of nature join'd his yoke, And rush'd in wrath to make our isles his prey; Thy form from out thy sweet abode. O'ertook him on the blasted road .- Collins.

To awaken is, in the moral, as in the physical sense, to call into consciousness from a state of unconsciousness; to rouse is forcibly to bring into action that which is in a state of inaction; and stir up is to bring into a state of agitation or commotion. We are awakened from an ordinary state by ordinary means; we are roused from an extraordinary state by extra ordinary means; we are stirred up from an ordinary to an extraordinary state. The mind of a child is avankened by the action on its senses as soon as it is

The spark of noble courage now awake (awaken) And strive your excellent self to excel.-Spenser. Some persons are not to be roused from their stupor by any thing but the most awful events;

Go, study virtue, rugged ancient worth; Rouse up that flame our great forefathers felt. SHIRLEY.

The passions, particularly of anger, are in some persons strered up by trilling encumstances; 'The use of the passions is to stir up the mind, and put it upon action, to awake the understanding, and to enforce the will.'-ADDISON.

The conscience is sometimes awakened for a time, but the sinner is not roused to a sense of his danger, or to any exertions for his own safety, until an intem perate zeal is stirred up in him by means of enthu-siastic preaching, in which case the vulgar proverb is verified, that the remedy is as bad as the disease. Death is a scene calculated to awaken some feeling in the most obdurate breast;

Repairs her smiles, awakens ev'ry grace, And calls forth all the wonders of her face.—Pope.

The tears and sighs of the afflicted excite a sentiment of commiseration; the most equitable administration of justice may excite murmurs among the discontented the relation of worthy deeds may excite to honour and virtue; 'That kind of poetry which excites to virtue the greatest men, is of greatest use to human kind.'—DRYDEN. A haish and uncessonable reproof will provoke a reply; or affronts provoke resentment;

Such acts

Of contunacy will provoke the Highest .- MILTON. Continued provocations and affronts may rouse a sense

of injuries in the meekest breast; 'The heat with which Luther treated his adversaries, though strained too far, was extremely well fitted by the providence of God to rause up a people, the most philegmatick of any in Christendom.'—ATTERBURY. Nothing is so calculated to stir up the rebellious spirits of men as the harangues of political demagogues; 'The turbulent and dangerous are for embroiling councils, stirring up The tarbulent sections, and subverting constitutions, out of a mere restlessness of temper.'—STEELE.

TO ENCOURAGE, COUNTENANCE, SANC-TION, SUPPORT.

Encourage has here the same general signification as in the preceding article; countenance signifie- to keep in countenance; sanction, in French sanction, decree or ordinance; in an extended sense to make any thing binding; support, in French supporter, Latin supports, compounded of sup or sub and ports to bear, signifies to bear from underneath, to bear up.

These terms are allied in their application to persons or things personal; persons or things are encouraged and supported; persons are countenanced; things are sanctioned; measures or persons are encouraged and supported by every means which may forward the object; persons are countenanced in their proceedings by the apparent approbation of others; measures are sanctioned by the consent or approbation of others.

To encourage is a general and indefinite term, we may encourage a person or his conduct by various ways: 'Every man encourages the practice of that vice which he commits in appearance, though he avoids it in fact.'-HAWKESWORTH. Countenancing is a direct mode of encouragement, it consists of some outward demonstration of regard or good will towards the person; 'A good man acts with a vigour and suffers with a patience more than human, when he believes himself countenanced by the Almighty.'-Blair. There is most of authority in sanctioning; it is the lending of a name, an authority, or an influence, in order to strengthen and confirm the thing; 'Men of the greatest sense are always diffident of their private judgement, until it receives a sanction from the publick.'-Addison. There is most of assistance and cooperation in support; it is the employment of means to an end; 'The apparent insufficiency of every individual to his own happiness or safety compels us to seek from one another assistance and support.'--Johnson. Persons in all conditions may encourage and support; superiours only can countenance or sanction; those who countenance evil doers give a sanction to their evil deeds; those who support either an individual or a cause ought to be satisfic are entitled to support.

TO ENCOURAGE, ANIMATE, INCITE, IMPEL, URGE, STIMULATE, INSTIGATE.

Encourage, compounded of en or in and courage, signifies to inspire with courage; animate, in Latin animatus, participle of animo and anima the soul, signifies in the proper sense to give life, and in the moral sense to give spirit; incite, from the Latin cito, and the Hebrew DD to stir up, signifies to put into motion towards an object; *impel* signifies the same as in the preceding article; *urge*, in Latin *urgeo*, comes from the Greek root εργέω to set to work; stimulate, from the Latin stimulus a spur or goad, and instigate, from the Latin stigo, and Greek $\varsigma(\xi\omega)$, signify literally to goad.

The idea of actuating, or calling into action, is common to these terms, which vary in the circumstances

of the action.

Encouragement acts as a persuasive, animate as an impelling or enlivening cause: those who are weak require to be encouraged; those who are strong become stronger by being animated: the former require to have their difficulties removed, their powers renovated, their doubts and fears dispelled; the latter may have their hopes increased, their prospects brightened, and their powers invigorated; we are encouraged not to give up or slacken in our exertions; we are uni-mated to increase our efforts: the sinner is encouraged by offers of pardon, through the merits of a Redeemer. to turn from his sinful ways; 'He would have women follow the camp, to be spectators and encouragers of noble actions.'—Burton. The Christian is animated by the prospect of a blissful eternity, to go on from perfection to perfection; 'He that prosecutes a lawful purpose, by lawful means, acts always with the approbation of his own reason; he is animated through the course of his endeavours by an expectation which he knows to be just.'-Johnson.

What encourages and animates acts by the finer feelings of our nature; what incites acts through the medium of our desires: we are encouraged by kindness; we are animated by the hope of reward; we are incited by the desire of distinction or the love of gain; 'While a rightful claim to pleasure or to affluence must be procured either by slow industry or un-certain hazard, there will always be multitudes whom cowardice or impatience incite to more safe and speedy

Latin sanctio from sanctus sacred, signifies to ratify a | methods of getting wealth.'-Johnson. What ampels urges, stimulates, and instigates, acts forcibly, be the cause internal or external: we are impelled and stimulated mostly by what is internal; we are urged and instigated by both the internal and external, but particularly the latter: we are impelled by motives; we are stimulated by passions; we are urged and instigated by the representations of others: a benevolent man is impelled by motives of humanity to relieve the wretched:

> So Myrrha's mind, impell'd on either side, Takes ev'ry bent, but cannot long abide.

An ardent mind is stimulated by ambition to great and attent minutes scienciated by amount to great efforts; 'Some persons from the secret stimulations of vanity or envy, despise a valuable book, and throw contempt upon it by wholesale.'—Watts. We are urged by entreaties to spare those who are in our power; one is instigated by malicious representations to take revenge on a supposed enemy.

We may be impelled and urged though not properly stimulated or instigated by circumstances; in this case the two former differ only in the degree of force in the impelling cause: less constraint is laid on the will when we are impelled, than when we are urged, which leaves no alternative or choice: a monarch is sometimes impelled by the state of the nation to make a peace less advantageous than he would otherwise

Thus, while around the wave-subjected soil Impels the natives to repeated toil, Industrious habits in each bosom reign. GOLDSMITH.

A prince may be urged by his desperate condition to throw himself upon the mercy of the enemy;

What I have done my safety urg'd me to.

A man is impelled, by the mere necessity of choosing, to take one road in preference to another; he is urged by his pecuniary embarrassments to raise money at a

We may be impelled, urged, and stimulated to that which is good or bad; we are never instigated to that which is good: we may be impelled by curiosity to by the that which does not concern us; we may be urged by the entreaties of those we are connected with to take steps of which we afterward repent, or have afterward reason to approve; 'The magistrate cannot urge obedience upon such potent grounds as the minis--South. We may be stimulated by the desire of distinction or by necessity;

For every want that stimulates the breast Becomes a source of pleasure when redres'd. GOLDSMITH.

Those who are not hardened in vice require the insti pation of persons more abandoned than themselves, before they will commit any desperate act of wickedness; 'There are few instigations in this country to a breach of confidence.'—Hawkesworth.

The encouragement and incitement are the abstract nouns either for the act of encouraging or inciting, or the thing that encourages or incites; the encouragement of laudable undertakings is itself laudable; a single word or look may be an encouragement;

For when he dies, farewell all honour, bounty, All generous encouragement of arts .- OTWAY

The incitement of passion is at all times dangerous, but particularly in youth; money is said to be an incitement to evil; the prospect of glory is an incitement to great actions;

Let his actions speak him, and this shield, Let down from heaven, that to his youth will yield Such copy of incitement .- B. Jonson.

Incentive, which is another derivative from incite, has a higher application for things that incite, being mostly applied to spiritual objects: a religious man wants no incentives to virtues; his own breast furnishes him with those of the noblest kind; 'Even the wisdom of God hath not suggested more pressing motives, more powerful incentives to charity, than these, that we shall be judged by it at the last dreadful day.'—Ar-TERBURY. Impulse is the derivative from impel, and denotes the act of impelling or the thing that impels:

stimulus, which is the root of the word stimulate, naturally designates the instrument, namely, the spur or goad with which one is stimulated: hence we speak of acting by a blind impulse, or of wanting a stimulus to exertion; 'If these little impulses set the great wheels of devotion on work, the largeness and height of that shall not at all be prejudiced by the smallness of the occasion.'—South.

TO ENCOURAGE, ADVANCE, PROMOTE, PREFER, FORWARD.

To encourage signifies the same as in the preceding article; advance, from the Latin advenio to come near signifies here to cause to come near a point; promote, from the Latin promoveo, signifies to move forward prefer, from the Latin prafero, or fero and præ, to set before, signifies to set up before others; to forward is to put forward.

The idea of exerting one's influence to the advan-

tage of an object is included in the signification of all these terms, which differ in the circumstances and mode of the action: to encourage, advance, and pro-mote are applicable to both persons and things; prefer

to persons only; forward to things only.

First, as to persons, encourage is partial as to the end, and indefinite as to the means: we may encourage a person in any thing, however trivial, and by any means: thus we may encourage a child in his rudeness, by not checking him; or we may encourage an artist or a man of letters in some great national work; but to advance, promote, and prefer are more general in their end, and specifick in the means: a person may advance himself, or may be advanced by others; he is promoted and preferred only by others: a person's advancement may be the fruit of his industry, or result from the efforts of his friends; promotion and preferencent are the work of one's friends; the former in regard to offices in general, the latter mostly in regard to ecclesiastical situations: it is the duty of every one to encourage, to the utmost of his power, those among the poor who strive to obtain an honest livelihood; Religion depends upon the encouragement of those that are to dispense and assert it.'-South. It is every man's duty to advance himself in life by every legiti-mate means; 'No man's lot is so unalterably fixed in this life, but that a thousand accidents may either forward or disappoint his advancement."—Ilughes. It is the duty and the pleasure of every good man in the state to promote those who show themselves deserving of promotion; 'Your zeal in promoting my interest deserves my warmest acknowledgments.'—BEATTIE. It is the duty of a minister to accept of preferment when it offers, but it is not his duty to be solicitous for it; 'If I were now to accept preferment in the church, I should be apprehensive that I might strengthen the hands of the gainsayers.'—BEATTIE.

When taken in regard to things, encourage is used in an improper or figurative acceptation; the rest are applied properly: we encourage an undertaking by giving courage to the undertaker; 'The great encouragement which has been given to learning for some years last past, has made our own nation as glorious upon this account as for its late triumphs and con-quests.'—Addison. But when we speak of advancing a cause, or promoting an interest, or forwarding a purpose, the terms properly convey the idea of keeping things alive, or in a motion towards some desired end: to advance is however generally used in relation to whatever admits of extension and aggrandizement; promote is applied to whatever admits of being brought to a point of maturity or perfection; 'I love to see a man zealous in a good matter, and especially when his zeal shows itself for advancing morality, and promoting the happiness of mankind.'—Addison. Forward is but a partial term, employed in the sense of promote in regard to particular objects; thus we adpromote in regard to particular objects; thus we advance religion or learning; we promote an art or an invention; we forward a plan; 'It behooves us not to be wanting to ourselves in forwarding the intention of nature by the culture of our minds.'—Berkeley.

TO ENCOURAGE, EMBOLDEN.

To encourage is to give courage, and to embolden to make bold; the former impelling to action in general,

the latter to that which is more difficult or dangerous: we are encouraged to persevere; the resolution is thereby confirmed: we are emboldened to begin; the spirit of enterprise is roused. Success encourages; the chance of escaping danger embolders.

Outward circumstances, however trivial, serve to

Intrepid through the midst of danger go, Their friends encourage and amaze the foe. DRYDEN.

The urgency of the occasion, or the importance of the subject, serves to embolden;

Embolden'd then, nor hesitating more, Fast, fast they plunge amid the flashing wave. THOMSON.

A kind word or a gentle look encourages the suppliant to tender his petition; where the cause of truth and religion is at stake, the firm believer is emboldened to speak out with freedom: timid dispositions are not to be encouraged always by trivial circumstances, but sanguine dispositions are easily emboldened; the most flattering representations of friends are frequently ne cessary to encourage the display of talent; the confidence natural to youth is often sufficient of itself to embolden men to great undertakings.

TO DETER, DISCOURAGE, DISHEARTEN.

Deter, in Latin deterreo, compounded of de and terreo, signifies to frighten away from a thing; discourage and dishearten, by the privative dis, signify to

deprive of courage or heart.

One is deterred from commencing any thing, one is discouraged or disheartened from proceeding. A va-riety of motives may deter any one from an under-taking; but a person is discouraged or disheartened mostly by the want of success or the hopelessness of The wicked are sometimes deterred from the case. committing enormities by the fear of punishment; projectors are discouraged from entering into fresh speculations by observing the failure of others; there are few persons who would not be disheartened from renewing their endeavours, who had experienced nothing but iil success. The prudent and the fearful are alike easily to be deterred ;

But thee or fear deters, or sloth detains. No drop of all thy father warms thy veins

Impatient people are most apt to be discouraged; and proud people are the most apt to discourage the humble; 'The proud man discourages those from approaching him who are of a mean condition, and who must want his assistance.'—Addison. Faint-hearted people are easiest disheartened :

Be not disheartened then, nor cloud those looks, That wont to be more cheerful and serene,

Than when fair morning first smiles on the world.

MILTON.

The fool-hardy and the obdurate are the least easily deterred from their object; the persevering will not suffer themselves to be discouraged by particular failures; the resolute and self-confident will not be disheartened by trifling difficulties.

TO EXHORT, PERSUADE.

Exhort, in Latin exhortor, is compounded of ex and hortor, from the Greek ωρται, perfect passive of δρω to excite or impel; persuade has the same signification as given under the head of Conviction.

Exhortation has more of impelling in it; persuasion

more of drawing: a superiour exhorts; his carry authority with them, and rouse to action; his words

Their pinions still In loose librations stretch'd, to trust the void Trembling refuse, till down before them fly The parent guides, and chide, exhort, command.

THOMSON.

A friend or an equal persuades; he wins and draws by the agreeableness or kindness of his expressions; 'Gay's friends persuaded him to sell his share in the South Sea stock, but he dreamed of dignity and splendour.'—JOHNSON. Exhortations are employed only

in matters of duty or necessity; persuasions are employed in matters of pleasure or convenience.

TO PERSUADE, ENTICE, PREVAIL UPON.

Persuade (v. Conviction) and entice (v. To allure) are employed to express different means to the same are employed to express diagram means to the same end; namely, that of drawing any one to a thing; one persuades a person by means of words; one entices him either by words or actions; one may persuade either to a good or bad thing; 'I beseech you let me have so much credit with you as to persuade you to companying any doubt or securely which occur to you. communicate any doubt or scruple which occur to you, before you suffer them to make too deep an impression upon you.'-CLARENDON. One entices commonly to that which is bad;

If gaming does an aged sire entice, Then my young master swiftly learns the vice.

One uses arguments to persuade, and arts to entice.

Persuade and entice comprehend either the means or the end or both: prevail upon comprehends no more than the end: we may persuade without prevailing upon, and we may prevail upon without per-Many will turn a deaf ear to all our persuasugaing. many will turn a dear ear to all our persua-sions, and will not be prevailed upon, although per-suaded: on the other hand, we may be prevailed upon by the force of remonstrance, authority, and the like; and in this case we are prevailed upon without being persuaded. We should never persuade another to do that which we are not willing to do ourselves; creduthat which we are not wining to do ourselves; credu-lous or good-natured people are easily prevailed upon to do things which tend to their own injury; 'Herod, hearing of Agrippa's arrival in Upper Asia, went thither to him and prevailed with him to accept an invitation.'—PRIDEAUX.

DELIGHTFUL, CHARMING.

Delightful is applied either to material or spiritual objects; charming mostly to objects of sense.

When they both denote the pleasure of the sense, delightful is not so strong an expression as charming; a prospect may be delightful or charming; but the latter raises to a degree that carries the senses away

captive. Of musick we should rather say that it was charming han delightful, as it acts on the senses in so powerful a manner; 'Nothing can be more magnificent than the figure Jupiter makes in the first Iliad, nor more charming than that of Venus in the first Æneid.'—AD-DISON. On the other hand, we should with more propriety speak of a delightful employment to relieve dispriety speak of a accignification and in releve dis-tress, or a delightful spectacle to see a family living together in love and harmony; 'Though there are several of those wild scenes that are more delightful than any artificial shows, yet we find the works of nature still more pleasant the more they resemble those of art.'—Appison.

BECOMING, COMELY, GRACEFUL.

Becoming, v. Becoming, decent; and comely, or come like, signifies coming or appearing as one would have it; graceful signifies full of grace.

These epithets are employed to mark in general what is agreeable to the eye. Becoming denotes less than comely, and this less than graceful; nothing can be comely or graceful which is unbecoming; although many things are becoming which are neither comely nor graceful.

Becoming respects the decorations of the person, and the exteriour deportment; comely respects natural embellishments; graceful natural or artificial accomplishments: manner is becoming; figure is comely; air,

figure, or attitude is graceful.

Becoming is relative; it depends on taste and opinion; on accordance with the prevailing sentiments or particular circumstances of society; comely and graceful are absolute; they are qualities felt and acknow-

ledged by ail.

is becoming is confined to no rank; the highest and the lowest have, alike, the opportunity of doing or being that which becomes their station; 'The care of doing nothing unbecoming has accompanied the greatest minds to their last moments. Thus Cæsar

gathered his robe about him that he might not fall in a manner unbecoming of himself.'-Spectator. What is comely is seldom associated with great refinement and culture; 'The comeliness of person, and the decency of behaviour, add infinite weight to what is pronounced by any one. -Spectator. What is grace-ful is rarely to be discovered apart from high rank, noble birth, or elevation of character; 'To make the acknowledgment of a fault in the highest manner graceful, it is lucky when the circumstances of the offender place him above any ill consequences from the resentment of the person offended.'—Stelle.

BEAUTIFUL, FINE, HANDSOME, PRETTY.

Beautiful, or ful! of beauty, in French beauté. comes Beauty u_i or the total points fair, and benus or from beau, bette, in Latin bettus fair, and benus or bonus good; fine, in French fin, German fein, &c. not improbably comes from the Greek ϕavo_{i} origint, splendid, and ϕaiv_{i} to appear, because what is fine is by distinction clear; handsome, from the word hand, denotes a species of beauty in the body, as handy denotes its agility and skill; pretty, in Saxon practe adorned, German prächtig, Swedish präktig splendid, is connected with our words parade and pride.

Of these enither, which denote what is because the second of the contraction of the

Of these epithets, which denote what is pleasing to the eye, beautiful conveys the strongest meaning; it marks the possession of that in its fullest extent, of which the other terms denote the possession in part only. Fineness, handsomeness, and prettiness are to

beauty as parts to a whole.

When taken in relation to persons, a woman is beautiful, who in feature and complexion possesses a grand assemblage of graces; a woman is fine, who with a striking figure unites shape and symmetry; a women is handsome who has good features, and pretty if with symmetry of feature be united delicacy.

The beautiful is determined by fixed rules; it admits of no excess or defect; it comprehends regularity, proportion, and a due distribution of colour, and every particular which can engage the attention; the fine must be coupled with grandeur, majesty, and strength of figure; it is incompatible with that which is small; a little woman can never be fine; the handsome is a general assemblage of what is agreeable; it is marked by no particular characteristick, but the absence of all

Prettiness is always coupled with simplicity, it is incompatible with that which is large; a tall woman with masculine features cannot be pretty; "Indeed, my dear," says she, "you make me mad sometimes, so you do, with the silly way you have of treating me

like a pretty idiot." STEELE.

Beauty will always have its charms; they are, however, but attractions for the eye; they please and awaken ardent sentiments for a while; but the pos-sessor must have something else to give her claims to lasting regard. This is, however, seldom the case. Providence has dealt out his gifts with a more even hand. Neither the beautiful, nor the fine woman have in general those durable attractions which belong either to the handsome or the pretty, who with a less inimitable tint of complexion, a less unerring proportion in the limbs, a less precise symmetry of feature, are frequently possessed of a sweetness of countenance; a vivacity in the eye, and a grace in the manner, that wins the beholder and inspires affection.

Beauty is peculiarly a female perfection; in the male sex it is rather a defect; a beautiful man will not be respected, because he cannot be respectable. The possession of beauty deprives him of his manly characteristicks; boldness and energy of mind; strength and robustness of limb. But though a man may not be beautiful or pretty, he may be fine or handsome; A handsome fellow immediately alarms jealous hus bands, and every thing that looks young or gay turns their thoughts upon their wives.—Approach. The same observation does not apply to the brute creation; 'tt is observed among birds that nature has avished all her ornaments upon the male, who very often appears in a most heautiful head-dress.'—Addison.

When relating to other objects, beautiful, fine,

pretty, have a strong analogy.
With respect to the objects of nature, the beautiful is displayed in the works of creation, and wherever it appears it is marked by elegance, variety, harmony proportion; but above all by that softness, which is

peculiar to female beauty; 'There is nothing that makes its way more directly to the soul than beauty, which immediately diduses a secret satisfaction and complacency through the imagination. —Addition.

The fine on the contrary is associated with the

grand, and the pretty with the simple. The sky presents either a beautiful aspect, or a fine aspect; but

not a pretty aspect.

A rural scene is beautiful when it unites richness and diversity of natural objects with superiour cultivation; it is fine when it presents the bolder and more impressive features of nature, consisting of rocks and mountains; it is pretty, when, divested of all that is extraordinary, it presents a smiling view of nature in the gay attire of shrubs, and many-coloured flowers, and verdant meadows, and luxuriant fields.

Beautiful sentiments have much in them to interest

the affections, as well as the understanding; they make a vivid impression; fine sentiments mark an elevated mind and a loftiness of conception; they occupy the understanding, and afford scope for reflection; they make a strong impression; 'When in ordinary discourse, we say a man has a fine head, a long head, or a good head, we express ourselves metaphorically, and speak in relation to his understanding; whereas, when we say of a woman, she has a fine, a long, or a good head, we speak only in relation to her communde."

—Addison. Pretty ideas are but pleasing associations or combinations that only amuse for the time being, without producing any lasting impression. In the same manner expressions are termed pretty, 'An innocent creature, who would start at the name of strumpet, may think it pretty to be called a mistress.' -SPECTATOR.

We may speak of a beautiful poem, although not a beautiful tragedy; but a fine tragedy, and a pretty

comedy.

Imagery may be beautiful and fine, but seldom

The celestial bodies, revolving with so much regu-The cerestian domes, revolving with so much brilliancy of light, are beautiful objects. The display of an army drawn up in battle array; the neatness of the men; the order, complexity, and variety of their movements, and the precision in their discipline, afford a fine spectacle. An assemblage of children imitating in their amusements the system and regularity of more serious employments, and preserving at the same time the playfulness of childhood, is a pretty sight.

Hamasome is applied to some objects in the sense of ample or liberal, as a handsome fortune, or handsome treatment; 'A letter dated Sept. acquaints me that the writer, being resolved to try his fortune, had fasted all that day, and that he might be sure of dreaming the state of ing upon something at night, procured a handsome slice of bride cake. -- SPECTATOR.

FINE, DELICATE, NICE.

It is remarkable of the word fine (v. Beautiful), that it is equally applicable to large and small objects delecte, in Latin delectus, from delecte delights, and delecto to allure, is applied only to small objects. Fine in the natural sense denotes smallness in general. De licate denotes a degree of fineness that is agreeable to the taste. Thread is said to be fine as opposed to the coarse and thick; silk is said to be delicate, when to fineness of texture it adds softness. The texture of a spider's web is remarkable for its fineness; that of the ermine's fur is remarkable for its delicacy. In writing, all up-strokes must be fine; but in superiour writing they will be delicately fine. When applied to colours, the fine is coupled with the grand and the strong; delicate with what is minute, soft, and fair: blue and red may be fine colours; and white and pink delicate colours. The tulip is reckoned one of the finest flowers; the white moss-rose is a delicate flower. A fine painter delineates with boldness; but the artist who has a delicate taste, throws delicate touches into the grandest delineations.

In their moral application these terms admit of the In their moral application these terms admit of the same distinction; the fine approaches either to the strong or to the weak; Every thing that results from nature alone lies out of the province of instruction; and no rules that I know of will serve to give a fine form, a fine voice, or even those fine feelings, which are among the first properties of an actor. —Cum

BERLAND. The delicate is a high degree of the fine, as a fine thought, which may be lofty; or a fine feeling, which is acute and tender; and delicate feeling, which exceeds the former in fineness;

Chief, lovely Spring! in thee and thy soft scenes The smiling God is seen; while water, earth,
And air attest his bounty, which exalts
The brute creation to this finer thought.—Thomson.

Under this head of elegance I reckon those delicate and regular works of art, as elegant buildings or pieces of furniture.—Burke. The French use their word fin only in the latter sense, of acuteness, and apply it merely to the thoughts and designs of men, answering either to our word subtle, as un homme fin, or neat, as une satire fine.

Delicate is said of that which is agreeable to the

sense and the taste; nice to what is agreeable to the appetite: the former is a term of refinement: the latter o. epicurism and sensual indulgence. The delicate affords pleasure only to those whose thoughts and desires are purified from what is gross; the nice affords pleasure to the young, ignorant, and the sensual: thus deleads food, delicate colours, delicate shapes and form, are always acceptable to the cultivated; a meal, a show, a colour, and the like, will be nice to a child, which suits its appetite, or meets its fancy.

When used in a moral application, nice, which is taken in a good sense, approaches nearer to the signification of aelicate. A person may be said to have a de-licate ear in music, whose ear is offended with the smallest discordance; he may be said to have a nice taste or judgement in music, who scientifically discri-minates the beauties and defects of different pieces. A person is delicate in his choice, who is guided by taste and feeling; he is nice in his choice, who adheres to a

strict rule

A point in question may be either delicate or nice; it is delicate, as it is likely to touch the tender feelings of any party; it is nice, as it involves contrary interests, and becomes difficult of determination. There are de-licacies of behaviour which are learned by good breedlicacies of behaviour which are learned by good breeding, but which minds of a refined cast are naturally alive to, without any particular learning; 'The commerce in the conjugal state is so delicate that it is impossible to prescribe rules for it.'—STRELE. There are niceties in the law, which none but men of superiour intellect access the state of the s intellect can properly enter into and discriminate: highest point of good breeding, if any one can hit it, is to show a very nice regard to your own dignity, and, with that in your heart, to express your value for the man above you.'-STEELE.

DAINTY, DELICACY.

These terms, which are in vogue among epicures, have some shades of difference in their signification not altogether undeserving of notice.

Dainty, from dain, deign, and the Latin dignus worthy, signifies the thing that is of worth or value; it is of course applied only to such things as have a superiour value in the estimation of epicures; and consequently conveys a more positive meaning than delicacy: inasmuch as a dainty may be that which is ex-tremely delicate, a delicacy is sometimes a species of dainty; but there are many delicacies which are altogether suited to the most d heate appetite, that are neither costly nor rare, two qualities which are almost inseparable from a dainty; those who indulge themselves freely in danties and delicacies scarcely know what it is to eat with an appetite; but those who are temperate in their use of the enjoyments of life will be enabled to derive pleasure from ordinary objects;

My landlord's cellar stocked with beer and ale, Instantly brings the choicest liquors out. Whether we ask'd for home-brew'd or for stout, For mead or cider; or with dainties fed, Ring for a flask or two of white or red.—Swift. She turns, on hospitable thoughts intent, What choice to choose for delicacy best -MILTON.

GRACE, CHARM.

Grace is altogether corporeal; charm is either corporeal or mental; the grace qualifies the action of the body; 'Savage's method of life particularly qualified

tise all the graces.'—JOHNSON. The charm is an inherent quality in the body uself;

Music has charms to sooth the savage breast.

CONGREVE.

A lady moves, dances, and walks with grace; the charms of her person are equal to those of her mind.

GRACEFUL, COMELY, ELEGANT.

A graceful ligure is rendered so by the deportment of the body. A comely figure has that in itself which pleases the eye. Gracefulness results from nature, improved by art; 'The first who approached her was a youth of graceful presence and courtly air, but dressed in a richer habit than had ever been seen in Arcadia.'— STEELE. Comeliness is mostly the work of nature; 'Isidas the son of Phæbidas was at this time in the bloom of his youth, and very remarkable for the comeliness of his person.'—Addison. It is possible to acquire gracefulness by the aid of the dancing-master, but for a comely form we are indebted to nature aided by circumstances. Grace is a quality pleasing to the eye; but elegance, from the Latin eligo, electus, select and choice, is a quality of a higher nature, that inspires admiration; elegant is applicable, like graceful, to the motion of the body, or, like comely, to the person, and is extended in its meaning also to language and even to dress; 'The natural progress of the works of men is from rudeness to convenience, from convenience to elegance, and from elegance to nicety.'-Johnson. A person's step is graceful; his air or his movements are elegant.

Grace is in some degree a relative quality: the gracefulness of an action depends on its suitability to the occasion; elegance is a positive quality; it is, properly speaking, beauty in regard to the exteriour of the pernot only of superiour birth and station, but also of su-

periour natural endowments.

AWKWARD, CLUMSY.

Awkward, in Saxon awerd, compounded of a or a adversarive and ward, from the Teutonic wahren to see or look, that is, looking the opposite way, or being in an opposite direction, as toward signifies looking the same way, or being in the same direction; clumsy, from the same source as clump and lump, in German lumpisch,

denotes the quality of heavness and unseeminess.

These epithets denote what is contrary to rule and order, in form or manner. Ankward respects outward deportment; clumsy the shape and make of the object: a person has an awkward gait, or is clumsy in his whole

Awkwardness is the consequence of bad education; clumsiness is mostly a natural defect. Young recruits are awkward in marching, and clumsy in their manual

They may be both employed figuratively in the same sense, and sometimes in relation to the same objects when speaking of awkward contrivances, or clumsy contrivances, the latter expresses the idea more strongly than the former; 'Montaigne had many awkward imi-tators, who, under the notion of writing with the fire and freedom of this lively old Gascon, have fallen into confused rhapsodies and uninteresting egotisms.'— Warton. 'All the operations of the Greeks in sailing were clamsy and unskilful.'-Robertson.

AWKWARD CROSS, UNTOWARD, CROOKED, FROWARD, PERVERSE.

Ankward, v. Ankward; cross, from the noun cross. implies the quality of being like a cross; untoward signifies the reverse of toward (v. Awkward); crooked signifies the quality of resembling a crook; froward, that is, from ward, signifies running a contrary direction; perverse, Latin perversus, participle of perverto, compounded of per and verto, signifies turned aside.

Awkward, cross, untoward, and crooked are used as enithets in relation to the events of life or the disposition of the mind; froward and perperse respect only the disposition of the mind. Aukward circumstances are apt to embarrass; cross circumstances to pain; crooked and untoward circumstances to defeat. What

him for conversation, of which he knew how to prac- is crooked springs from a percented judgement; what is untoward is independent of human control. In our intercourse with the world there are always little awkneard incidents arising, which a person's good sense and good nature will enable him to pass over without disturbing the harmony of society; 'It is an awkward thing for a man to print in defence of his own work against a chimera: you know not who or what you gight against.—Pops. It is the lot of every one in his passage through life to meet with cross accidents that are calculated to ruffle the temper; but he proves himself to be the wisest whose serenity is not so easily disturbed; 'Some are indeed stopped in their career by a sudden shock of calamity, or diverted to a different di-rection by the cross impulse of some violent passion.' -Johnson. A crooked policy obstructs the prosperity of individuals, as well as of states;

There are who can, by potent magic spells, Bend to their crooked purpose nature's laws

Many men are destined to meet with severe trials in the frustration of their dearest hopes, by numberless untoward events which call for the exercise of patience; in this case the Christian can prove to himself and others the infinite value of his faith and doctrine;

The rabbins write when any Jew Did make to God or man a vow, Which afterward he found untoward, Or stubborn to be kept, or too hard: Any three other Jews o' th' nation Might free him from the obligation .- HUDIBRAS.

When used with regard to the disposition of the mind, awkward expresses less than froward, and froward less than perverse. Awkwardness is for the most part an habitual frailty of temper; it includes certain weaknesses and particularities, pertinaciously adhered to. Sometimes it is a temporary feeling that is taken up on a particular occasion;

A kind and constant riend To all that regularly offend, But was implacable and arckward, To all that interlop'd and hawker'd .- HUDIBRAS.

Crossness is a partial irritation resulting from the state of the humours, physical and mental. Fronaraness and perversity lie in the will: a fronard temper is capricious; it wills or wills not toplease itself without regard to others. To fret and repine at every disappointment of our wishes is to discover the temper of froward children.'—Blair. Perversity lies deeper; taking root in the heart, it assumes the shape of malignity: a perverse temper is really wicked; it likes or dislikes by the rule of contradiction to another's will: 'Interference of interest, or perversity of disposition, may occasionally lead individuals to oppose, even to hate, the upright and the good.'—BLAIR. Univoxard-ness lies in the principles; it runs counter to the wishes and counsels of another; 'Christ had to deal with a most untoward and stubborn generation.'—BLAIR.

An awkward temper is connected with self-suffi-ciency; it shelters itself under the sauction of what is apparently reasonable; it requires management and indulgence in dealing with it. Crossness and froward-ness are peculiar to children; indiscriminate indul-gence of the rising will engenders those diseases of the mind, which if fostered too long in the breast become incorrigible by any thing but a powerful sense of religion. Perversity is, however, but too commonly the result of a vicious habit, which imbitters the happiness of all who have the misfortune of coming in collision with it. Untowardness is also another fruit of these evil tempers. A froward child becomes an untoward youth, who turns a deaf ear to all the admonitions of an afflicted parent.

CAPTIOUS, CROSS, PEEVISH, PETULANT, FRETFUL.

Captious, in Latin captiosus, from capio, signifies Captious, in Latin captiosus, from capio, signifies taking or treating in an offensive manner; cross, after the noun cross, marks the temper which resembles a cross; pervish, probably changed from beensh, signifies easily provoked, and ready to sting like a bee; fretful, from the word fret, signifies full of fretting; fret, which is in Saxon frectan, comes from the Latin fricatus, participle of frico to wear away with rubbing; petulant, in Latin petulans, from peto to seek, signifies

seeking or catching up.
All these terms indicate an unamiable working and expression of temper. Captions marks a readiness to be offended: cross indicates a readiness to offend: pecersh expresses a strong degree of crossness: freta complaining impatience: petulant a quick or sudden impatience. Captionsness is the consequence of misplaced pride; crossness of ill-humour; peevishness and fretfulness of a painful irritability; petulance is either the result of a naturally hasty temper or of a sudden irritability; adults are most prone to be captious; they have frequently a self-importance which is in perpetual danger of being offended; 'Captiousness and jealousy are easily offended; and to him who studiously looks for an affront, every mode of behaviour will supply it.—Johnson. An undisciplined temper, whether in young or old, will manifest itself on certain occasions by cross looks and words towards those with whom they come in connexion. Spoiled children are most apt to be peevish; they are seldom thwarted in any of their unreasonable desires, without venting their ill-humour by an irritating and offending

I was so good-humour'd, so cheerful and gay, My heart was as light as a feather all day But now I so cross and so pecvish am grown, So strangely uneasy as never was known.—Byron.

⁴ Peevish displeasure, and suspicions of mankind, are apt to persecute those who withdraw themselves altogether from the haunts of men.'—BLAIR. Sickly children are most liable to fretfulness; their unpleasant feelings vent themselves in a mixture of crying, com-plaints, and crossness; 'By indulging this fretful temper, you both aggravate the uneasiness of age, and temper, you both aggravate the uneasiness of age, and you alienate those on whose affections much of your comfort depends.—Blair. The young and ignorant are most apt to be petulant when contradicted; 'It was excellently said of that philosopher, that there was a wall or parapet of teeth set in our mouth, to restrain the petulancy of our words.'-B. Jonson.

BENT, CURVED, CROOKED, AWRY.

Bent, from bend, in Saxon bendan, is a variation of wind, in the sea phraseology wend, in German winden, &c. from the Hebrew Jy to wind or turn; curved is in Latin curvus, and in Greek κυρτὸς; cruoked, v. Aukward; awry is a variation of writhed.

Bent is here the generick term, all the rest are but

modes of the bent.

What is bent is opposed to that which is straight; what is den't so phosed to that which is straight; things may therefore be bent to any degree, but when curved they are bent only to a small degree; when crooked they are bent to a great degree. A stick is bent any way; it is curved by being bent one specifick way; it is crooked by being bent different ways.

Things may be bent by accident or design;

And when too closely press'd, she quits the ground, From her bent bow she sends a backward wound, DRYDEN

Things are curved by design, or according to some rule; 'Another thing observable in and from the spots is that they describe various paths or lines over the sun, sometimes straight, sometimes curved towards one pole of the sun.'—Derham. Things are crooked, by accident or in violation of some rule; 'It is the enhobing office of the understanding to correct the full straight of the spaces and to fallacious and mistaken reports of the senses, and to assure us that the staff in the water is straight, though assite a small tell us it is crooked.'—South. A stick is bent by the force of the hand; a line is curved so as to make a mathematical figure; it is crooked so as to lose all figure.

Awry marks a species of crookedness, but crooked is applied as an epithet, and awry is employed to characterize the action; hence we speak of a crooked thing and of sitting or standing awry;

Preventing fate directs the lance awru Which glancing only mark'd Achates' thigh.

DRYDEN.

BEND, BENT.

Both abstract nouns from the verb to bend: the one to express its proper, and the other its moral application: a stick has a bend; the mind has a bent;

His coward lips did from their colour fly,

And that same eye whose bend does awe the world, Did lose its histre. - SHAKSPKARE

'The soul does not always care to be in the same bent. The soul does not always care to be the soul does not always care

jects about which they are conversant.'—Addison.

A bend in any thing that should be straight is a de fect; a bent of the inclination that is not sanctioned by religion is detrimental to a person's moral character and peace of mind. For a vicious bend in a natural body there are various remedies; but nothing will cure a corrupt bent of the will except religion.

TURN, BENT.

These words are only compared here in the figura tive application, as respects the state of a person's inclination: the turn is therefore, as before, indefinite as to the degree; it is the first rising inclination: bent is a positively strong turn, a confirmed inclination; a child may early discover a turn for musick or drawing; but the real bent of his genius is not known until he has made a proficiency in his education, and has had an opportunity of trying different things: it may be very well to include the *turn* of mind; it is of great importance to follow the *bent* of the mind as far as respects arts and sciences; 'I need not tell you how a man of Mr. Rowe's turn entertained me.'-Pope. 'I know the bent of your present attention is directed towards the eloquence of the bar.'—Melmouth (Let ters of Pliny.)

TO TURN, WIND, WHIRL, TWIRL, WRITHE

To turn (v. To turn) is, as before, the generick term; the rest are but modes of turning;

How has this poison lost its wonted ways? It should have burnt its passage, not have linger'd In the blind labyrinths and crooked turnings Of human composition .- DRYDEN.

To wind is to turn a thing round, or to move in a re gular and circular manner:

The tracts of Providence like rivers wind. Here run before us, there retreat behind.-Higgins.

To whirl is to turn a thing round in a violent manner;

Man is but man, inconstant still, and various There 's no to-morrow in him like to-day;

Perhaps the atoms, whirling in his brain,

Make him think honestly this present hour; The next, a swarm of base, ungrateful thoughts May mount aloft .- DRYDEN.

To twirl is to turn a thing round in any irregular and unmeaning way; 'I had used my eye to such a quick succession of objects, that, in the most precipitate twirl, I could catch a sentence out of each author," STEELE. To writhe is to turn round in convolutions within itself. A worm seldom moves in a straight line; it is, therefore, always turning: and sometimes it writhes in agony;

Dying, he bellowed out his dread remorse, And writh'd with seeming anguish of the soul. SHIRLEY.

TO TURN, BEND, TWIST, DISTORT, WRING, WREST, WRENCH.

Turn, in French tourner, comes from the Greek τορνέω to turn, and τόρνος a turner's wheel; bend, Bend; twist, in Saxon getwisan, German zeyen to double, comes from zwey two; distort, in Latin distor tus, participle of distorquee, compounded of dis and torquee, signifies to turn violently aside.

To turn signifies in general to put a thing out of its place in an uneven line;

Yet still they find a future task remain, To turn the soil and break the clods again

DRYDEN.

To bend, and the rest, are species of turning: we turn a thing by moving it from one point to another; thus we turn the earth over: to bend is simply to change its direction; thus a stick is bent, or a body may bend its direction to a particular point;

Some to the house

The fold and dairy, hungry, bend their flight.

To twist is to bend many times, to make many turns;

But let not on thy hook the tortur'd worm, Convulsive, twist in agonizing folds.-Thomson.

To distort is to turn or bend out of the right course; thus the face is distorted in convulsions, or the looks may be distorted from passion or otherwise:

We saw their stern, distorted looks from far.

DRYDEN.

To wring is to twist with violence; thus linen which has been wetted is viring; Our bodies are unhappily made the weapons of sin; therefore we must, by an austere course of duty, first wring these weapons out of its hands.—Sourn. To wrest or wrench is to separate from a body by means of twisting; thus a stick may be wrested out of the hand, or a hinge wrenched off the door;

Wresting the text to the old giant's sense, That heaven once more must suffer violence. DENHAM.

Wrench his sword from him .- SHARSPEARE. She wrench'd the jav'lin with her dying hands. DRYDEN.

The same distinction holds good in the moral or extended application: a person is turned from his design: tended application: a person is turned from his design; 'Strong passion dwells on that object which has seized and taken possession of the soul; it is too much occupied and filted by it to turn its view aside.'—BLAIR. The will of a person is bent, or the thoughts are bent, towards an object; 'Men will not bend their wits to examine whether things wherewith they have been accustomed be good or evil.'—Hooker. The meaning of words is turisted, or by a stronger expression accustomed be good of evil.—HOGER. The meaning of words is twisted, or by a stronger expression distorted, to serve a purpose; 'Something must be distorted, besides the intent of the divine Inditer.'— Pracham. A confession is wrung, or by a stronger expression wrested, from a person; 'To wring this sentence, to wrest thereby out of men's hands the knowledge of God's doctrines, is without all reason.' -ASCHAM.

TO EXACT, EXTORT.

Exact, in Latin exactus, participle of exigo, to drive out, signifies the exercise of simple force; but extort, from extortus, participle of extorqueo to wring out, marks the exercise of unusual force. In application, therefore, the term exact signifies to demand with force; it is commonly an act of injustice: to extort signifies to get with violence, it is an act of tyranny. The collector of the revenue exacts when he gets from the people more than he is authorized to take: an arbitrary prince extorts from his conquered subjects whatever he can grasp at. In the figurative sense, deference, obedience, applause, and admiration are exacted; 'While to the established church is given that protection and support which the interests of religion render proper and due, yet no rigid conformity is exacted.—BLAIR. A confession, an acknowledgment, a discovery, and the like, are extorted; 'If I err in believing that the souls of men are immortal, not while I live would I wish to have this delightful errour extorted from me.'-STEELE.

TO CHARM, ENCHANT, FASCINATE, ENRAPTURE, CAPTIVATE.

Charm has the same signification as explained under Charm has the same same as the head of Attractions; enchant is compounded of en and chant, signifying to act upon as by the power of chanting or musick; fascinate, in Latin fascino, Greek βασκαίνω, signified originally among the ancients a special speci cies of witchcraft, performed by the eyes or the tongue: enrapture, compounded of en and rapture, signifies to put into a rapture: and rapture, from the Latin rapio to seize or carry away, signifies the state of being car-

ried away; whence to enrapture signifies to put into that state; captivate, in Latin captivatus, participle of captivo, from capio to take, signifies to take, as it were, prisoner.

The idea of an irresistible influence is common to these terms; charm expresses a less powerful effect than enchant; a charm is simply a magical verse used by magicians and sorcerers: incantation or enchantment is the use not only of verses but of any mysterious

ceremonies, to produce a given effect.

To charm and enchant in this sense denote an operation by means of words or motions; to fascinate de-notes an operation by means of the eyes or tongue; a person is charmed and enchanted voluntarily; he is fascinated involuntarily: the superstitious have always had recourse to charms and enchantments, for the purpose of allaying the passions of love or hatred; the Greeks believed that the malignant influence passed by fascination from the eyes or tongues of envious persons, which infected the ambient air, and through that medium penetrated and corrupted the bodies of animals and other things.

Charms and enchantments are performed by persons; fascinations are performed by animals: the former have always some supposed good in view; the latter have always a mischievous tendency: there are persons who pretend to charm away the tooth-ache, or other pains of the body: some serpents are said to have a fascinating power in their eyes, by which they can kill the animals on whom they have fixed

When these terms are taken in the improper sense, charm, enchant, and fascinate are employed to describe moral as well as natural operations: enrapture and captivate describe effects on the mind only: to enchant, fascinate, and enrapture designate the effects produced by physical and moral objects; captivate designates those produced by physical objects; captivate designates those produced by physical objects only: we may be charmed, or enchanted, or enraptured, with what we see, hear, and learn; we may be fascinated with what we see or learn; we are captivated only with what we see: a fine voice, a fine prospect, or a fine sentiment, charms, enchants, or enraptures; a fine person fascinates, or the conver sation of a person is fascinating; beauty, with all its accompaniments, captivates. When applied to the accompaniments, captivates. When applied to the same objects, charm, enchant, and enrapture rise in sense: what charms produces sweet but not tumultuous emotions; in this sense musick in general charms a musical ear:

So fair a landscape charm'd the wond'ring knight. GILBERT WEST.

What enchants rouses the feelings to a high pitch of tumultuous delight; in this manner the musician is enchanted with the finest compositions of Handel when performed by the best masters; or a lover of the country is enchanted with Swiss scenery;

Trust not too much to that enchanting face: Beauty's a charm, but soon the charm will pass.

To enrapture is to absorb all the affections of the soul; it is of too violent a nature to be either lasting or frequent: it is a term applicable only to persons of an enthusiastick character, or to particularly powerful excitements:

He play'd so sweetly, and so sweetly sung, That on each note th' enraptur'd audience hung. SIR WM. JONES.

What charms, enchants, and enraptures only affords pleasure for the time; what fascinates and captivates rivets the mind to the object: the former three convey the idea of a voluntary movement of the mind, as in the proper sense; the two latter imply a species of forcible action on the mind, which deprives a person of his free agency; the passions, as well as the affections, are called into play while the understanding is passive, which, with regard to fascinate, may be to the injury of the subject: a loose woman may have it in her power to fascinate, and a modest woman to captivate; 'One would think there was some kind of fascination in the eyes of a large circle of people when darting altogether upon one person.'-Addison.

Her form the patriot's robe conceal'd, With studied blandishments she bow'd, And drew the captivated crowd .- MOORE.

TO ENSLAVE, CAPTIVATE.

To enslave is to bring into a state of slavery; to

captinate is to make a captive.

There is as much difference between these terms as between starcry and captivity; he who is a stave is fettered both body and mind; he who is a captive is only constrained as to his body: hence to enslave is always taken in the bad sense; captivate mostly in the good sense: enslave is employed literally or figuthe good sense: enslave is employed menany or ngaratively; captivate only figuratively: we may be enclaved by persons, or by our gross passions; 'The will was then (before the fall) subordinate but not reslaved to the understanding.'—South. We are captivated by the charms or beauty of an object; 'Men should beware of being captivated by a kind of cavage philosophy, women by a thoughtiess gallantry. -Addison.

ECSTASY, RAPTURE, TRANSPORT.

ECSTASY, RAPTURE, TRANSPORT.

There is a strong resemblance in the meaning and application of these words. They all express an extraordinary elevation of the spirits, or an excessive tension of the mind; eestasy marks a passive state, from the Greek Ekszary and Ekszpu to stand, or be out of oneself, out of ones mind. Rapture, from the Latin rapio to seize or carry away; and transport, from trans and parto to carry beyond oneself, rather designate an active state, a violent impulse with which the mind hurries itself forward. Eestasy and rapture are always pleasurable, or arise from pleasurable causes: transport respects either pleasurable or painful feelings; joy occasions eestasies or raptures: joy ful feelings: joy occasions ecstasies or raptures: joy

and anger have their transports.

An exetasy benumbs the faculties; it will take away the power of speech and often of thought; it is commonly occasioned by sudden and unexpected events: rapture, on the other hand, often invigorates the powers, and calls them into action; it frequently arises from deep thought: the former is common to all persons of ardent feelings, but more particularly to chil-dren, ignorant people, or to such as have not their

feelings under control;

What followed was all eestasy and trance: Immortal pleasures round my swimming eyes did dance .- DRYDEN.

Rapture, on the contrary, is applicable to persons of superiour minds, and to circumstances of peculiar importance;

By swift degrees the love of nature works, And warms the bosom, till at last sublim'd To rapture and enthusiastick heat, We feel the present Deity .- Thomson.

Transports are but sudden bursts of passion, which generally lead to intemperate actions, and are seldom indulged even on joyous occasions except by the volatile and passionate: a reprieve from the sentence of death will produce an ecstasy of delight in the pardoned criminal. Religious contemplation is calculated to produce holy raptures in a mind strongly imbued with pions zeal: in transports of rage men have committed enormities which have cost them bitter tears of repentance ever after. The word transport is however used in the higher style in a good sense;

When all thy mercies, O my God! My rising soul surveys, Transported with the view, I'm lost In wonder, love, and praise.-Addison.

TO ATTRACT, ALLURE, INVITE, ENGAGE.

Attract, in Latin attractum, participle of attraho, compounded of at or ad and trato, signifies to draw towards; allure, v. To allure; invite, in French intowards; acture, b. To acture; inotice, in French twenter, Latin invito, compounded of in privative and vito to avoid, signifies the contrary of avoiding, that is, to seek or ask; engage, compounded of en or in and the French gage a piedge, signifies to bind as by a

That is attractive which draws the thoughts towards That is altractive winch draws the thoughts towards itself; that is altraing which awakens desire; that is inviting which offers persuasion; that is engaging which takes possession of the mind. The attention is attracted; the senses are altraed; the understanding is invited; the whole mind is engaged. A particular

sound attracts the ear; the prospect of gratification allures; we are invited by advantages which offer; we are engaged by those which already accrue.

The person of a female is attractive; female beauty involuntarily draws all eyes towards itself; it awakens admiration; 'At this time of universal migration, when almost every one considerable enough to attract regard has retired into the country, I have orien been regard has retired into the country, I have often been tempted to inquire what happiness is to be gained by this stated secession.'—Johnson. The pleasures of society are alluring; they create in the receiver an eager desire for still farther enjoyment; but when too eagerly pursued they vanish in the pursuit, and leave the mind a prey to listless uneasiness: the weather is inviting; it seems to persuade the reluctant to partake of its refreshments; Seneca has attempted not only to pacify us in misfortune, but almost to allure us to it by representing it as necessary to the pleasures of the mind. He invites his pupil to catamity as the Syrens allured the passengers to their coasts, by promising that he shall return with increase of knowledge. JOHNSON. The manners of a person are engaging; they not only occupy the attention, but they lay hold of the affections; 'The present, whatever it be, seldom engages our attention so much as what is to come '-

ATTRACTIONS, ALLUREMENTS, CHARMS,

Attraction signifies the thing that attracts (v. To attract); allurement signifies the thing that allures (v. To allure); charm, from the Latin carmen a verse, signifies whatever acts by an irresistible influence, like poetry.

* Besides the synonymous signification which distinguishes these words, they are remarkable for the common property of being used only in the plural, when denoting the thing that attracts, allures, and charms. When applied to female endowments, or the influence of person on the heart: it seems that in attractions there is something natural; in allurements something artificial: in charms something moral and intellectual.

Attractions lead or draw; allurements win or en-tice; charms seduce or captivate. The human heart is always exposed to the power of female articultures; it is guarded with difficulty against the allurements of a coquette; it is incapable of resisting the united

charms of body and mind.

Females are indebted for their attractions and charms to a happy conformation of features and figure, but they sometimes borrow their allurements from their toilet. Attractions consist of those ordinary graces which nature bestows on women with more or less liberality; they are the common property of the less incrainty; they are the common property of the sex; 'This cestus was a fine party-coloured guidle, which, as Homer tells us, had all the attractions of the sex wrought into it.'—Addison. Allurements consist of those cultivated graces formed by the aid of a faithful looking-glass and the skilful hand of one anxious to please; 'How justly do I fall a sacrifice to sloth and luxury in the place where I first yielded to those allurements which seduced me to deviate from temperance and innocence."—JOHNSON, Charms consist of those singular graces of nature which are grawed as a rare and precious gift: they are the peculiar property of the individual possessor; 'Juno made a visit to Venus, the deity who presides over love, and begged of her as a particular favour, that she would lend her for a while those charms with which she subdued the hearts of gods and men.'—Addison.

Defects unexpectedly discovered tend to the diminu tion of attractions; allurements vanish when the arti fice is discovered; charms lose their effect when time or habit have rendered them too familiar, so transitory is the influence of mere person. Attractions assail the heart and awaken the tender passion; allurements serve to complete the conquest, which will however be but of short duration if there be not more solid though less brilliant charms to substitute affection in

the place of passion.

When applied as these terms may be to other objects besides the personal endowments of the female sex, attractions and charms express whatever is very amiable in themselves; allurements on the contrary whatever

* Vide Abbe Girard and Roubaud: "Attraits, appas,

is hateful and congenial to the baser propensities of] human nature. A courtesan who was never possessed of charms, and has lost all personal attractions, may, by the allurements of dress and manners, aided by a thousand meretricious arts, still retain the wretched power of doing incalculable mischief.

An attraction springs from something remarkable and striking; it lies in the exteriour aspect, and awakens an interest towards itself; a charm acts by a secret, all-powerful, and irresistible impulse on the soul; it springs from an accordance of the object with the affections of the heart; it takes hold of the imagination, and awakens an enthusiasm peculiar to itself: an allurement acts on the senses; it flatters the passions; it enslaves the imagination. A musical society has attractions for one who is musically inclined; for musick has charms to soothe the troubled soul: fashionable society has too many allurements for youth, which are not easily withstood.

The musick, the eloquence of the preacher, or the crowds of hearers, are attractions for the occasional attendants at a place of worship: the society of cultivated persons, whose character and manners have been attempered by the benign influence of Christianity, possess peculiar charms for those who have a congeniality of disposition; the present lax and undisciplined age is however ill-fitted for the formation of such society, or the susceptibility of such charms: people are now more prone to yield to the allurements of pleasure and licentious gratification in their social intercourse. A multary life has powerful attractions for adventurous minds; glory has irresistible charms for the ambitious: the allurements of wealth predominate in the minds of the great bulk of mankind.

TO ALLURE, TEMPT, SEDUCE, ENTICE, DECOY.

Allure is compounded of the intensive syllable al or ad and lure, in French leave, in German luder a lure or bait, signifying to hold a bait in order to catch animals, and figuratively to present something to please the senses, or the understanding; tempt, in French tenter, Latin tento to try, comes from tentus, participle of tendo to stretch, signifying by efforts to impel to ac-tion; seduce, in French seduire, Latin seduce, is com-pounded of se apart and duce to lead, signifying to lead any one aside; entice is probably, per metathesin, changed from incite; decoy is compounded of the Latin de and coy, in Dutch koy, German, &cc. koi a cage or enclosed place for birds, signifying to draw into any place for the purpose of getting them into one's

We are allured by the appearances of things; we are tempted by the words of persons as well as the appearances of things; we are enticed by persuasions: we are seduced or decoyed by the influence and talse arts

of others.

To allure and tempt are used either in a good or bad ; entice sometimes in an indifferent, but mostly in a bad sense; seduce and decoy are always in a bad The weather may allure us out of doors: the sense. sense. The weather may alture us out of doors; the love of pleasures may alture us into indulgracies that afterward cause repentance; 'June 26, 1284, the rats and mice by which Hamelen was infested were altured, it is said, by a piper to a contiguous river, in which they were all drowned.'—Addison. We are sometimes tempted upon very fair grounds to undertake what turns out unfortunately in the end: passions are our bitterest enemies; the devil uses them as instruments to tempt us to sin; 'In our time the poor are strongly tempted to assume the appearance of wealth.'—Johnson. When the wicked entice us to do evil, we should turn a deaf ear to their flattering re-presentations: those who know what is right, and are determined to practice it, will not suffer themselves to be enticed into any irregularities; 'There was a parti-cular grove which was called "the labyrinth of cocular grove which was called "the labyrinth of co-quettes," where many were enticed to the chase, but few returned with purchase."—Addison. Young men are frequently seduced by the company they keep; There is no kind of idleness by which we are so easily seduced as that which dignifies itself by the ap-pearance of business."—Jounson. Children are de-

coyed away by the evil-minded, who wish to get them into their possession; 'I have heard of barbarians,

who, when tempests drive ships to their coasts, decoy them to the rocks that they may plunder their lading. -JOHNSON.

The country has its allurements for the contemplative mind: the metropolis is full of temptations. Those who have any evil project to execute will omit no enticement in order to seduce the young and mex-perienced from their duty. The practice of decening children or ignorant people into places of confinement was formerly more frequent than at present.

Allure does not imply such a powerful influence as tempt: what allures draws by gentle means; it lies in the nature of the thing that affects: what tempts acts the nature of the sining that all the state of the sining that the state of the sining that th influence on the mind, as produces a determination to act; in which respect it differs from the two former terms. Allure and tempt produce actions on the mind, not necessarily followed by any result; for we may be allured or tempted to do a thing, without necessarily doing the thing; but we cannot be critical unless we are led to take some step. Seduce and decoy have reference to the outward action, as well as the inward movements of the mind which give rise to them: they indicate a drawing aside of the person as well as the mind; it is a misleading by false representation. Prospects are alluring, offers are tempting, words are enticing, charms are seductive.

TRY, TEMPT.

To try (v. To attempt) is to call forth one's ordinary powers; to tempt is a particular species of trial; we try either ourselves or others; we tempt others: to try is for the most part an indifferent action, a person may be tried in order to ascertain his principles or his strength;

ngth;
League all your forces then, ye pow'rs above,
Join all, and try the omnipotence of Joye.
Pope.

To tempt is for the most part taken in a bad sense, men are tempted to depart from their duty;

Still the old sting remain'd, and men began To tempt the serpent, as he tempted man.

It is necessary to try the fidelity of a servant before you place confidence in him; it is wicked to tempt any one to do that which we should think wrong to do ourselves: our strength is tried by frequent experience; we are tempted by the weakness of our principles, to give way to the violence of our passions.

EXPERIENCE, EXPERIMENT, TRIAL, PROOF. TEST.

Experience, experiment, from the Latin experior, compounded of e or ex and perio or pario to bring forth, signifies the thing brought to light, or the act of bringing to light; trial signifies the act of trying, from try, in Latin tento, Hebrew 7,, to explore, examine, search; proof signifies either the act of proving, from the Latin probo to make good, or the thing made good, proved to be good; test, from the Latin testis a witness, is that which serves to attest or prove the reality of a thing.

By all the actions implied in these terms, we endeavour to arrive at a certainty respecting some unknown particular: the experience is that which has been tried: the experiment is the thing to be tried : the experience is certain, as it is a deduction from the past for the service of the present; the experiment is uncertain, and serves a future purpose: experience is an unerring guide, which no man can desert without falling into errour; experiments may fail, or be superseded by others more perfect.

Experience serves to lead us to moral truth, the experiment aids us in ascertaining speculative truth; we profit by experience to rectify practice; 'A man may, pront by experience to rectify practice; 'A man may, by experience, be persuaded that his will is free; that he can do this, or not do it.'—Tillotson. We make experiments in theoretical inquiries; 'Any one may easily make this experiment, and even plainly see that there is no bud in the corn which ants lay up.'—Additionally the seed of the corn which and the seed of the corn which are son. He, therefore, who makes experiments in matters of experience rejects a steady and definite mode of coming at the truth for one that is variable and uncertain, and that too in matters of the first moment: the consequences of such a mistake are obvious, and have been too fatally realized in the present age, in which experience has been set at nought by every wild speculator, who has recommended experiments to be made with all the forms of moral duty and civil society; 'It is good also not to try experiments in states, except the necessity be urgent, or the utility evident."—Bacon.

The experiment, trial, and proof have equally the character of uncertainty; but the experiment is employed only in matters of an intellectual nature; the trial is employed in matters of a personal nature, on physical as well as mental objects; the proof is employed in moral subjects: we make an experiment in order to know whether a thing be true or false; we make a trial in order to know whether it be capable or incapable, convenient or inconvenient, useful or the contrary; we put a thing to the proof in order to determine whether it be good or bad, real or unreal: experiments tend to confirm our opinions; they are the handmaids of science; the philosopher doubts every position which cannot be demonstrated by repeated experiments; 'That which showeth them to be wise, is the gathering of principles out of their own particular experiments, according to the rule of their principles, shall make us such as they are.'—Hooker. Trials are of absolute necessity in directing our conduct, our taste, and our choice; we judge of our strength or skill by trials; we judge of the effect of colours by trials, and the like;

But he himself betook another way, To make more trial of his hardiment,

And seek adventures, as he with prince Arthur went.

The proof determines the judgement, as in common life, according to the vulgar proverb, 'The proof of the pudding is in the cating;' so in the knowledge of men and things, the proof of men's characters and merits is best made by observing their conduct;

O goodly usage of those ancient tymes!
In which the sword was servant unto right:
When not for malice and contentious crymes,
But all for praise and proof of manly might.

Spenser.

The experiment is a sort of trial; 'When we are searching out the nature or properties of any being by various methods of trial, this sort of observation is called experiment.'—WATTS. The proof results from the trial; 'My paper gives a timorous writer an opportunity of putting his abilities to the proof.'—ADDISON. When the word test is taken in the sense of a trial, as in the phrases to stand the test, or to make a test, it derives its meaning from the chymical process of refining metals in a test or cupel, testa being in Italian the name of this vessel. The test is therefore a positive and powerful trial;

All thy vexations Were but my trials of thy love, and thou Hast strangely stood the test.—Shakspeare.

When the test is taken for the means of trying or provig, it bears a similar signification;

Unerring nature, still divinely bright,
One clear, unchang'd and universal light,
Life, force, and beauty, must to all impart
At once the source, and end, and test of every art.
POPE

Hence this word is used in the legal sense for the proof which a man is required to give of his religious creed.

ATTEMPT, TRIAL, ENDEAVOUR, ESSAY, EFFORT.

Attempt, in French attenter, Latin attento, from at or ad and tento, signifies to try at a thing; trial comes from try (v. Experience); endeavour, compounded of en and the French devoir to owe, signifies to try according to one's duty; essay, in French essayer, comes probably from the German ersuchen, compounded of er and suchen to seek, written in old

German suachen, and is doubtless connected with schen to see or look after, signifying to aspire after, to look up to; effort, in French effort, from the Latim effert, present tense of effero, compounded of e or ex and fero, signifies a bringing out or calling forth the strength.

To attempt is to set about a thing with a view of effecting it; to try is to set about a thing with a view of seeing the result. An attempt respects the action with its object; a trial is the exercise of power. We always act when we attempt; we use the senses and the understanding when we try. We attempt by trying, but we may try without attempting; when a thief attempts to break into a house he first tries the locks and fastenings to see where he can most easily gain admittance.

Men attempt to remove evils; they try experiments. Attempts are perpetually made by quacks, whether in medicine, politicks, or religion, to recommend some scheme of their own to the notice of the publick; which are often nothing more than trials of skill to see who can most effectually impose on the credulity of mankind. Spirited people make attempts; persevering people make trials; players attempt to perform different parts; and try to gain applause.

An endeavour is a continued attempt. Attempts may be fruitless; trials may be vain; endeavours, though managiling may be vain; endeavours,

An endeavour is a continued attempt. Attempts may be fruitless; trials may be vain; endeavours, though unavailing, may be well meant. Many attempts are made which exceed the abilities of the attempter; trials are made in matters of speculation, the results of which are uncertain; endeavours are made in the moral concerns of life. People attempt to write books; they try various methods; and endeavour to obtain a livelihood.

An essay is used altogether in a figurative sense for an attempt or endeavour; it is an intellectual exertion. A modest writer apologizes for his feeble essay to contribute to the general stock of knowledge and cultivation: hence short treatises which serve as attempts to illustrate any point in morals are termed essays, among which are the finest productions in our language from the pen of Addison, Steele, and their successors. An effort is to an attempt as a means to an ent; it is the very act of calling forth those powers which are employed in an attempt. In attempting to make an escape, a person is sometimes obliged to make desperate efforts.

Attempts at imitation expose the imitator to ridicule when not executed with peculiar exactness; 'A natural and unconstrained behaviour has something in it so agreeable that it is no wonder to see people endeavouring after it; but at the same time it is overy hard to hit, when it is not born with us, that people often make themselves ridiculous in attempting it.—Addison. Trials of strength are often foolhardy; in some cases attended with mischievous consequences to the trier:

To bring it to the trial, will you dare
Our pipes, our skill, our voices to compare?

Honest endeavours to please are to be distinguished from idle attempts to catch applause; 'Whether or no (said Socrates on the day of his execution) God will approve of my actions I know not; but this I am sure of, that I have at all times made it my endeavour to please him.'—Addison. The first essays of youth ought to meet with indulgence, in order to afford encouragement to rising talents; 'This treatise prides itself in no higher a title than that of an essay, or imperfect attempt at a subject.'—Glanville. Great attempts, which require extraordinary efforts either of body or mind, always meet with an adequate share of publick applause; 'The man of sagacity bestirs himself to distress his enemy by methods prohable and reducible to reason; so the same reason will fortify his enemy to elude these his regular efforts: but your fool projects with such notable inconsistency, that no course of thought can evade his machinations.'—Steele.

ATTEMPT, UNDERTAKING, ENTERPRISE.

An attempt is the thing attempted (v. To attempt); an undertaking, from undertake, or take in hand, is the thing taken in hand; an enterprise, from the French

enterpris, participle of entreprendre to undertake, has TO ENDEAVOUR, AIM, STRIVE, STRUGGLE,

the same original sense.

The idea of something set about to be completed is The literal or sometimes set about to be composed to common to all these terms. An attempt is less com-plicated than an undertaking; and that less arduous than an cuterprise. Attempts are the common exer-tions of power for obtaining an object: an undertaking involves in it many parts and particulars which require thought and judgement: an enterprise has more that is hazardous and dangerous in it; it requires resolution. Attempts are frequently made on the lives and property of individuals; undertakings are formed for private purposes; enterprises are commenced for some great national object.

Nothing can be effected without making the attempt; attempts are therefore often idle and unsuccessful, when they are made by persons of little discretion, who are eager to do something without knowing how

to direct their powers:

Why wilt thou rush to certain death and rage In rash attempts beyond thy tender age ?- DRYDEN.

Undertakings are of a more serious nature, and involve a man's serious interests; if begun without adequate means of bringing them to a conclusion, they too frequently bring ruin by their failure on those who are concerned in them; 'When I hear a man complain of his being unfortunate in all his undertakings I shrewdly suspect him for a very weak man in his affairs.'—Addison. Enterprises require personal saaffairs.—Addison. Enterprises require personal sa-crifices rather than those of interest; he who does not combine great resolution and perseverance with considerable bodily powers, will be ill-fitted to take part

in grand enterprises.

The present age has been fruitful in attempts to bring premature genius into notice: literary undertakings have of late degenerated too much into mere commercial speculations: a state of war gives birth to naval and military enterprises; a state of peace is most favourable to those of a scientifick nature;

There would be few enterprises of great labour or nazard undertaken, if we had not the power of magnifying the advantages which we persuade ourselves to expect from them.'—Johnson.

FOOLHARDY, ADVENTUROUS, RASH.

Foolhardy signifies having the hardihood of a fool; adventurous, ready to venture; rash, in German rasch, which signifies swift, comes from the Arabick raaschen to go swiftly.

The foolhardy expresses more than the adventurous;

and the adventurous than the rash.

The foolhardy man ventures in defiance of consequences: the adventurous man ventures from a love of the arduous and the bold; the rash man ventures for want of thought: "ourage and boldness become foolhardihood when they lead a person to run a fruit-less risk; an adventurous spirit sometimes leads a man into unnecessary difficulties; but it is a necessary accompaniment of greatness. There is not so much decompaniment of greatness. There is not so much design, but there is more violence and impetuosity in rashness than in footbardihod; the former is the consequence of an ardent temper which will admit of correction by the influence of the judgement; but the latter comprehends the perversion of both the will and the judgement.

An infidel is *foolhardy*, who risks his future salva-tion for the mere gratification of Lis pride;

If any yet be so foothardy, T' expose themselves to vain jeopardy,

If they come wounded off and lame,
No honour's got by such a main.—BUTIER.

Alexander was an adventurous prince, who delighted in enterprises in proportion as they presented difficulties; he was likewise a rash prince, as was evinced by his jumping into the river Cydnus while he was hot, and by his leaping over the wall of Oxydrace and exposing himself singly to the attack of the enemy;

'Twas an old way of recreating, Which learned butchers called bearbaiting, A bold, advent'rous exercise .- BUTLER.

Why wilt thou, then, renew the vain pursuit, And rashly catch at the forbidden fruit?

PRIOR.

To endeavour (v. Attempt) is general in its object: aim (v. Aim) is particular; we endeavour to do what ever we set about; we aim at doing something which we have set before ourselves as a desirable object. strive (v. Strife) is to endcavour earnestly; to struggle, which is a frequentative of strive, is to strive earnestly.

An endeavour springs from a sense of duty; we endeavour to do that which is right, and avoid that which is wrong: aiming is the fruit of an aspiring temper; the object aimed at is always something superiour either in reality or imagination, and calls for particular exertion: striving is the consequence of an ardent desire; the thing striven for is always conceived to be of importance: struggling is the effect of necessity; it is proportioned to the difficulty of attainment, and the resistance which is opposed to it; the thing struggled or is indispensably necessary.

Those only who endeavour to discharge their duty

to God and their fellow-creatures can expect real tranquillity of mind; "T is no uncommon thing, my good Sancho, for one half of the world to use the other half like brutes, and then endeavour to make em so.'— STERNE. Whoever aims at the acquirement of great wealth or much power opens the door for much misery

to himself;

However men may aim at elevation, 'T is properly a female passion.—Shenstone.

As our passions are acknowledged to be our greatese enemies when they obtain the ascendancy, we should always strive to keep them under our control;

All understand their great Creator's will, Strive to be happy, and in that fulfil, Mankind excepted, lord of all beside But only slave to folly, vice, and pride.

JENYNS.

There are some men who struggle through life to obtain a mere competence; and yet die without succeeding in their object;

So the boat's brawny crew the current stem, And slow advancing struggle with the stream. DRYDEN.

We ought to endeavour to correct faults, to aim at attaining Christian perfection, to strive to conquer bad these are the surest means of saving us from the necessity of struggling to repair an injured repu-

ENDEAVOUR, EFFORT, EXERTION.

The idea of calling our powers into action is com mon to these terms: endeavour (v. Attempt) expresses little more than this common idea, being a term of general import: effort, from the Latin effert, from effero to bring forth, signifying the bringing out of power; and exertion, in Latin exero, signifying the power; and exertion, in Latin every, some putting forth power, are particular modes of endeavour, the former being a special strong endeavour, the latter a continued strong endeavour. The endeavour latter a continued strong endeavour. The endeavour is called forth by ordinary circumstances; the effort and exertion by those which are extraordinary. endeavour flows out of the condition of our being and constitution; as rational and responsible agents we must make daily endeavours to fit ourselves for an hereafter; as willing and necessitous agents, we use our endeavours to obtain such things as are agreeable or needful for us: when a particular emergency arises we make a great effort; and when a serious object is to be obtained we make suitable exertions.

The endeavour is indefinite both as to the end and the means: the end may be immediate or remote; the means may be either direct or indirect; but in the effort the end is immediate; the means are direct and personal: we may either make an endeavour to get into a room, or we may make an endeavour to obtain a situation in life, or act our part well in a particular situation; 'To walk with circumspection and steadiness in the right path ought to be the constant enden-vour of every rational being.'—Johnson. We make efforts to speak, or we make efforts to get through a crowd, or we make efforts to overcome our feelings; 'The influence of custom is such, that to conquer it will require the utmost efforts of fortitude and virtue.' -Johnson The endeavour may call forth one or

many powers; the effort calls forth but one power: the endeavour to please in society is laudable, if it do not lead to vicious compliances; it is a laudable effort of fortitude to suppress our complaints in the moment of suffering. The exertion is as comprehensive as the meaning as the endeavour, and as positive as the effort; but the endeavour is most commonly, and the effort always, applied to individuals only; whereas the exertion is applicable to nations as well as individuals. A tradesman uses his best endeavours to please his customers: a combatant makes desperate efforts to overcome his antagonist: a candidate for literary or parliamentary honours uses great exertions to surpass his rival; a nation uses great exertions to raise a navy or extend its commerce; 'The discomfitures which the republick of assassins has suffered have uniformly called forth new exertions.'—BURKE.

TO EXERT, EXERCISE.

The employment of some power or qualification that belongs to oneself is the common idea conveyed by terms; but exert (v. Endeavour) may b for what is internal or external of oneself; exercise, in Latin exerceo, from ex and arceo, signifying to drive or force out, is employed only for that which forms an express part of oneself: hence we speak of exerting one's strength, or exerting one's voice, or exerting one's influence; of exercising one's limbs, exercising one's understanding, or exercising one's tongue; 'How has Milton represented the whole Godhead, exerting itself towards man in its full benevolence, under the threefold distinction of a Creator, a Redeemer, and Comforter.'—Appison. 'God made no faculty, but also provided it with a proper object upon which it might exercise itself.'-South.

Exert conveys simply the idea of calling forth into action; curreise always conveys the idea of repeated or continued exertion coupled with that of the purpose or end for which it is made: thus a person who calls to another exerts his voice; he who speaks aloud for any length of time exercises his lungs. When the will has exerted an act of command upon any faculty of the soul, or a member of the body, it has done all that the whole man, as a moral agent, can do for the actual exercise or employment of such a faculty or

member.

TO EXERCISE, PRACTISE.

Exercise signifies the same as in the preceding article; practise, from the Greek $\pi\rho\alpha\sigma\sigma\omega$ to do, signifies

to perform a part.

These terms are equally applied to the actions and habits of men; but we exercise in that where the powers are called forth; we practise in that where frequency and habitude of action is requisite; we cxfrequency and habitude of action is requisite; we exercise an art; we practise a profession 'The Roman tongue was the study of their youth; it was their own language they were instructed and exercised in:—Locke. 'A woman that practise'd physick in man's clothes.'—Tatler. We may both exercise or practise a virtue; but the former is that which the particular occurrence calls forth, and which seems to demand a peculiar effort of the mind; the latter is that which is done daily and ordinarily: thus we in a peculiar manner are said to exercise patience, fortitude, or forbear ance; to practise charity, kindness, benevolence, and the like; Every virtue requires time and place, a ance, to practise charity, kindness, benevolence, and the like: Every virtue requires time and place, a proper object, and a fit conjuncture of circumstances for the due exercise of it.—Addison. 'All men are not equally qualified for getting money; but it is in the power of every one alike to practise this virtue (of the property of thrift).'-BUDGELL.

A similar distinction characterizes these words as nouns: the former applying solely to the powers of the body or mind; the latter solely to the mechanical operations: the health of the body and the vigour of the mind are alike impaired by the want of exercise; Reading is to the mind what exercise is to the body. -Addison. In every art practice is an indispensable requisite for acquiring perfection;

Long practice has a sure improvement found, With kindled fires to burn the barren ground.

The exercise of the memory is of the first importance

in the education of woildren; constant practice in writing is almost the only means by which the art of penmanship is acqu red.

CUSTOM, FASH ON, MANNER, PRACTICE.

Customs, fashions, and manners are all employed for communities of men: custom (v. Custom, habit) respects established and general modes of action; fashion, in French facon, from facio to do or make, regards partial and transitory modes of making or doing things: manner, in the limited sense in which it is here taken, signifies the manner or mode of men's living or behaving in their social intercourse.

Custom is authoritative; it stands in the place of law, and regulates the conduct of men in the most important concerns of life: fashion is arbitrary and capri-cious, it decides in matters of trifling import: manners are rational; they are the expressions of moral feelings. Customs are most prevalent in a barbarous state of society; fashions rule most where luxury has made the greatest progress; manners are most distinguishable in

a civilized state of society.

Customs are in their nature as unchangeable as fashions are variable; manners depend on cultivation and collateral circumstances: customs die away or are abolished; fashions pass away, and new ones take their place; manners are altered either for the better or the worse: endeavours have been successfully employed in several parts of India to abolish the custom of infanticide, and that of women sacrificing themselves on the funeral piles of their husbands; 'The custom of representing the grief' we have for the loss of the dead by our habits, certainly had its rise from the real sorrow of such as were too much distressed to take the care they ought of their dress.'—Steple. The votaries of fuskion are not contented with giving the law for the cut of the coat, or the shape of the bonnet, but they wish to intrude upon the sphere of the scholar of the artist, by prescribing in matters of literature and

Of beasts, it is confess'd, the ape Comes nearest us in human shape: Like man, he imitates each fashion And malice is his ruling passion.—Swift.

The influence of publick opinion on the manners of a people has never been so strikingly illustrated as in the instance of the French nation during and since the Re-

Their arms, their arts, their manners, I disclose, And how they war, and whence the people rose.

Practice, in Latin practicus, Greek πρακτικός, from πράσσω to do, signifies actual doing or the thing done, that is by distinction the regularly doing, or the thing regularly done, in which sense it is most analogous to custom; but practice simply conveys the idea of actual performance; custom includes also the accessory idea of repetition at stated periods: a practice must be defined as frequent or unfrequent, regular or irregular: but a custom does not require to be qualified by any such epithets: it may be the practice of a person to do acts of charity, as the occasion requires; but when he uniformly does a particular act of charity at any given period of the year, it is properly denominated his cusperiod of the year, it is properly denominated his cas-tom; 'Savage was so touched with the discovery of his real mother, that it was his frequent practice to walk in the dark evenings for several hours before her door, with hopes of seeing her as she might cross her apart-

mens with a candle in her hand."—Johnson.

Both practice and custom are general or particular, but the former is absolute, the latter relative; the practice may be adopted by a number of persons without reference to each other; but a custom is always followed either by imitation or prescription; the practice of gaming has always been followed by the vicious part of society; but it is to be hoped for the honour of man that it will never become a custom.

CUSTOM, HABIT.

Custom signifies the same as in the preceding article; habit, in Latin habitudo, from habee to have, marks the state of having or holding.

Custom is a frequent repetition of the same act. (It is the custom of the Mahometans, if they see any printed

or written paper upon the ground, to take it up and l by the place those to ground, to take it up and lay it aside carefully, as not knowing but it may contain some piece of the Alcoran.—Additonal Habit the effect of such repetition; 'It a loose and careless life has brought a man into habits of dissipation, and led him to neglect those religious duties which he owed to his Maker, let him return to the regular worship of God.'-BLAIR. The custom of rising early in morning is conducive to the health, and may in a short time become such a habit as to render it no less agreeable than it is useful.

Custom applies to men collectively or individually; habit applies to the individual only. Every nation has customs peculiar to itself; 'I dare not shock my readers with the description of the customs and manners of these barbarians (the Hottentots).'--Hughes. Every individual has habits peculiar to his age, station, and

circumstances. Custom, in regard to individuals, supposes an act of the will; habit implies an involuntary movement: a custom is followed; a habit is acquired: whoever follows the custom of imitating the look, tone, or gesture of another, is liable to get the habit of doing the same himself: as habit is said to be second nature, it is of importance to guard against all customs to which we do not wish to become habituated: the drunkard is formed by the custom of drinking intemperately, until he becomes habituated to the use of spirituous liquors; the profane swearer who acoustoms himself in early life to utter the oaths which he hears, will find it difficult in advanced years to break himself of the habit of swearing; the love of imitation is so powerful in the human breast, that it leads the major part of mankind to follow custom even in ridiculous things: Solomon refers to the power of habit when he says, 'train up a child in the way in which he should go; and when he is old he will not depart from it;' a power which cannot be employed too early in the aid of virtue and religion. The force of education is so great, that we may mould the minds and manners of the young into what shape we please, and give the impressions of such habits, as

shall ever afterward remain."—ATTERBURY.

Customary and habitual, the epithets derived from these words, admit of a similar distinction: the customary action is that which is repeated after the manner of a custom; 'This customary superiority grew too delicate for truth, and Swift, with all his penetration, allowed himself to be delighted with low flattery.'-JOHNSON. The habitual action is that which is done by the force of habit; 'We have all reason to believe that, amid numberless infirmities which attend humanity, what the great Judge will chiefly regard is the habitual prevailing turn of our heart and life.'—

BLAIR.

COMMON, VULGAR, ORDINARY, MEAN.

Common, in French commun, Latin communis, from con and munus the joint office or property of many, has regard to the multitude of objects; vulgar, in French vulgaire, Latin vulgaris, from vulgus the people, has regard to the number and quality of the persons; ordinary, in French ordinaire, Latin ordinarius, from ordo

nary, in French ordinaire, Latin ordinarius, from ordo the order or regular practice, has regard to the repetition or disposition of things; mean expresses the same as medium or moderate, from which it is derived.

Familiar use renders things common, vulgar, and ordinary; but what is mean is so of itself; the common, vulgar, and ordinary are therefore frequently, though not always, mean; and on the contrary, what is mean is not always common, vulgar, ordinary; consequently, in the primitive sense of these words, the first three are not strictly synonymous with the last; monsters are common in Africa; vulgar reports are little to be relied on; it is an ordinary practice for men to make light of their word.

Commun is unlimited in its application; it includes both vulgar and ordinary; the latter are said in reference or ence to persons only, common with regard to persons or things; an opinion is either common or vulgar; an employment is either common or ordinary : it was long a vulgarly received notion, that the sun turned round a valgarity received notice, that the sun turned round the earth; it is the ordinary pursuit of astronomers to observe the motions of the heavenly bodies; disputes on religion have rendered many facts valgar or common, which were formerly known only to the learned; on that account it is now become an ordinary or a 21*

common practice for men to dispute about religion, and even to frame a new set of doctrines for them

In the figurative sense, in which they convey the idea of low value, they are synonymous with mean; what is to be seen, heard, or enjoyed by every body is common, and naturally of little value, since the worth of objects frequently depends upon their scarcity and the objects frequently depends upon their scarcity and the difficulty of obtaining them: 'Men may change their climate, but they cannot their nature. A man that goes out a fool cannot ride or sail himself into common sense.'—Addison. What is peculiar to common people is vulgar, and consequently worse than common; it is supposed to belong to those who are ignorant and depraved in taste as well as in morals; 'The poet's thought of directing Satan to the sun, which in the vulgar opinion of mankind, is the most conspicuous part of the creation, and the placing in it an angel, is a circumstance very finely contrived.'—Addison. What is done and seen ordinarily may be done and seen easily; it requires no abilities or mental acquirements: it has nothing striking in it, it excites no interest; 'A relations forming striking in 1, it excluses no interest, very ordinary telescope shows us that a louse is itself a very lousy creature."—Addison. What is mean is even below that which is ordinary; there is something defective in it:

Under his forming hands a creature grew, Manlike, but diff'rent sex, so lovely fair, That what seem'd fair in all the world seem'd now Mean, or in her summ'd up .- MILTON.

Common is opposed to rare and refined; vulgar to polite and cultivated; ordinary to the distinguished; mean to the noble: a common mind busies itself with common objects; vulgar habits are easily contracted from a slight intercourse with vulgar people; an ordinary person is 'seldom associated with elevation of character; and a mean appearance is a certain mark of a degraded condition, if not of a degraded mind.

COMMONLY, GENERALLY, FREQUENTLY, USUALLY.

Commonly, in the form of common (v. Common); generally, from general, and the Latin genus the kind, respects a whole body in distinction from an individual; frequently, from frequent, in French frequent, Latin frequens, from the old Latin frage, in Greek φράγω and φραγνύμι to go or turn about, signifies properly a crowding; usually, from usual and use, signifies according to use or custom.

What is commonly done is an action common to all: It is commonly observed among soldiers and seamen that though there is much kindness, there is little grief. that though there is much kindness, there is little grief.'

—Johnson. What is generally done is the action of
the greatest part: It is generally not so much the
desire of men, sunk into depravity, to deceive the
world, as themselves.'—Johnson. What is frequently
done is either the action of many, or an action many
times repeated by the same person; It is too frequently
the pride of students to desire these progresses. the pride of students to despise those amusements and recreations which give to the rest of mankind strength of limbs and cheerfulness of heart.'—Johnson. What is usually done is done regularly by one or many; 'The inefficacy of advice is usually the fault of the counsellor.'-Johnson.

Commonly is opposed to rarely, generally and fre-quently to occasionally or seldom: usually to casually; men commonly judge of others by themselves; those who judge by the mere exteriour are generally deceived; but notwithstanding every precaution, one is frequently exposed to gross frauds; a man of business usually repairs to his counting house every day at a certain hour.

GENERAL, UNIVERSAL.

The general is to the universal what the part is to the whole. What is general includes the greater or number; what is universal includes every in What is general includes the greater part dual or part. The general rule admits of many ex dual or part. The general rule admits of many exceptions; the universal rule admits of none. Human government has the general good for its object: the government of Providence is directed to universal good. General is opposed to particular, and universal to individual. A scientifick writer will not content himself with general remarks, when he has it in his power to enter into particulars; the universal complaint which we hear against men for their pride, shows that in every individual it exists to a greater or less de-It is a general opinion that women are not quagree. It is a general opinion that wonter the brief of scientifick pursuits; but Madame Dacier, lifted for scientifick pursuits; but Madame Dacier, lifted for scientifick pursuits for exceptions. Mrs. Carter, and many female writers, form exceptions, no less honourable to their whole sex, than to themselves in particular: it is a universal principle, that children ought to nonour their parents; the intention of the Creator in this respect is manifested in such a variety of forms as to admit of no question. General philosophy considers the properties common to all modies, and regards the distinct properties of particular bodies, only inasmuch as they confirm abstract general views. Universal philosophy depends on universal science or knowledge, which belongs only to the infinite mind of the Creator. General grammar embraces in it all principles that are supposed to be applicable to all languages: universal grammar is a thing scarcely attainable by the stretch of human power. What man can become so thoroughly acquainted with all existing languages, as to reduce all their particular idioms to any system?

USAGE, CUSTOM, PRESCRIPTION.

The usage is what one has been long used to do; custom (o. Custom) is what one generally does; pre-scription is what one is prescribed to do. The usage acquires force and sanction by dint of time; 'With the national assembly of France, possession is nothing, law and usage are nothing. Burke. The custom acquires sanction by the frequency of its being done or the numbers doing it;

For since the time of Saturn's holy reign, His hospitable customs we retain .- DRYDEN.

The prescription acquires force by the authority which prescribes it, namely, the universal consent of man-kind; 'If in any case the shackles of prescription could be wholly shaken off, on what occasion should it be expected but in the selection of lawful pleasure? -Johnson. Hence it arises that customs vary in every age, but that usage and prescription supply the place of written law.

POSSIBLE, PRACTICABLE, PRACTICAL.

Possible, from the Latin possum to be able, signifies properly to be able to be done: practicable, from practice (v. To exercise) signifies to be able to be put in practice: hence the difference between possible and practice: hence the difference between possible and practicable is the same as between doing once, or doing as a rule. There are many things possible which cannot be called practicable, but what is practicable must in its nature be possible. The possible depends solely on the power of the agent; 'How can we, without supposing ourselves under the constant care of a Supreme Being, give any possible account for that nice proportion which we find in every great city between the deaths and births of its inhabitants? "Ampsigna. The practicable depends on circumstances; 'He who would aim at practicable things should turn upon would aim at practicable things should turn upon allaying our pain, rather than promoting our sorrow. STEELE. A child cannot say how much it is possible for him to learn until he has tried. Schemes have sometimes every thing to recommend them to notice, but that which is of the first importance, namely, their practicability.

The practicable is that which may or can be practised: the practical is that which is to be practised: the former therefore applies to that which men devise to carry into practice; the latter to that which they have to practise; projectors ought to consider what is practicable; divines and moralists have to consider what is practical. The practicable c is opposed to the impracticable; the practical to the theoretic or specularity lative; 'Practical cunning shows itself in political matters.' -South.

MAY, CAN

May is in German mogen to wish, Greek µalw to desire, from the connexion between wishing and complying with a wish; can detaces possibility, may liberty and probability: he what has sound limbs can walk; but he may not walk had a cee which are prohibited:

For who can match Achilles? he who can Must yet be more than hero, more than man.

Thou canst not call him from the Stygian shore But thou, alas! mayst live to suffer more .- Pope.

AIM, OBJECT, END.

Aim is in all probability a variation of home, in old Germain haim. It is the home which the marksman wishes to reach; it is the thing aimed at; the particular point to which one's efforts are directed; which is had always in view, and to the attainment of which every thing is made to bend; object, from the Latin objectus, participle of ob and jacio to lie in the way, is more vague; it signifies the thing that lies before us; we pursue it by taking the necessary means to obtain it; it becomes the fruit of our labour; end in the improper sense of end is still more general, signifying the thing that ends one's wishes and endeavours; it is the result not only of action, but of combined action; it is the consummation of a scheme; we must take the proper measures to arrive at it.

proper measures to arrive at it.

It is the aim of every good Christian to live in peace; 'Cunning has only private, selfish aims, and sticks at nothing which may make them succeed.'—Addison. It is a mark of dulness or folly to act without an object; 'We should sufficiently weigh the objects of our hope, whether they be such as we may reasonably expect from them what we propose in their fruition."—Addison. Every scheme is likely to fail, in which the means are not adequate to the end: 'Liberty which the means are not adequate to the end and truth are not in themselves desirable, but only as they relate to a farther end.'—BERKELEY.

We have an aim; we propose to ourselves an object; we look to the end. An aim is attainable, an object worthy, an end important.

TO AIM, POINT, LEVEL.

Aim, signifying to take aim (v. Aim), is to direct one's view towards a point; point, from the noun point, signifies to direct the point to any thing; level, from the adjective level, signifies to put one thing on a level with another.

Aim expresses more than the other two words, inas much as it denotes a direction towards some minute point in an object, and the others imply direction to wards the whole objects themselves. We aim at a bird; we point a cannon against a wall; we level a cannon at a wall. Pointing is of course used with most propriety in reference to instruments that have points; it is likewise a less decisive action than either aiming or levelling. A stick or a finger may be pointed at a person, merely out of derision; but a blow is levelled or aimed with an express intent of committing an act of violence;

Their heads from aiming blows they bear afar, With clashing gauntlets then provoke the war. DRYDEN.

He calls on Bacchus, and propounds the prize: The groom his fellow-groom at buts defies, And bends his bow, and levels with his eyes. DRYDEN.

The same analogy is kept up in their figurative application.

The shafts of ridicule are but too often aimed with little effect against the follies of fashion; 'Another kind there is which although we desire for itself, as health and virtue, and knowledge, nevertheless they are not the last mark whereat we aim, but have their further end whereunto they are referred.—Hooker Remarks which seem merely to point at others, with out being expressly addressed to them, have always a bad tendency:

The story slily points at you .- CUMBERLAND.

It has hitherto been the fate of infidels to level their that has intherto been the rate of infidels to tevel their battery of sneers, declamation, and sophistry against the Christian religion only to strengthen the conviction of its sublime truths in the minds of mankind at large; 'In contemplation of which verity, St. Gregory Nazianzen, observing the declension from it, introduced in his times by the spinition of some avolute did. in his times by the ambition of some prelates, did vent that famous exclamation, "O that there were not at

all any presidency, or any preference in place and tyrannical enjoyment of prerogatives!" which earnest wish he surely did not mean to level against the ordinance of God, but against that which lately began to be intruded by men.—BARROW.

TO AIM, ASPIRE.

Aim (v. Aim) includes efforts as well as views, in obtaining an object; aspire, from as or ad to or after and spire to breathe, comprehends views, wishes, and hopes to obtain an object.

We aim at a certain proposed point, by endeavouring to gain it; 'Whether zeal or moderation be the point we aim at, let us keep fire out of the one, and frost out of the other. —Appison. We aspire after that which we think ourselves entitled to, and flatter ourselves with gaining; 'The study of those who in the time of Shakspeare aspired to plebeian learning was laid upon adventures, giants, dragons, and enchantments.'-JOHNSON.

Many men aim at riches and honour;

Lo, here the world is bliss; so here the end To which all men do aim, rich to be made, Such grace now to be happy is before thee laid. SPENSER.

It is the lot of but few to aspire to a throne;

Aspiring to be gods, if angels fell, Aspiring to be angels, men rebel.-POPE.

We aim at what is attainable by ordinary efforts; we aspire after what is great and unusual. An enulous youth aims at acquiring the esteem of his teachhe aspires to excel all his competitors in literary

TENDENCY, DRIFT, SCOPE, AIM.

Tendency, from to tend, denotes the property of tending towards a certain point, which is the characteristick of all these words, but this is applied only to things; and drift, from the verb to drive; scope, from the Greek σκέπτομαι to look; and aim, from the verb to aim (v. Aim); all characterize the thoughts of a person looking forward into futurity, and directing his actions to a certain point. Hence we speak of the tendency of certain principles or practices as being pernicious; the drift of a person's discourse; the scope which he gives himself either in treating of a subject, or in laying down a plan; or a person's aim to excel, or aim to supplant another, and the like. The tendency of most writings for the last-five and twenty years has been to unhinge the minds of men; 'It is no wonder if a great deal of knowledge, which is not capable of making a man wise, has a natural tendency to make him vain and arrogant.'—Addison. Where a person wants the services of another, whom he dares not openly solicit, he will discover his wishes by the drift of his discourse;

This said, the whole audience soon found out his drift, The convention was summoned in favour of Swift.

A man of a comprehensive mind will allow himself full scope in digesting his plans for every alteration which circumstances may require when they come to be developed; 'Merit in every rank has the freest scope (in England).'—BLAIR. Our desires will naturally give a cast to all our aims; and so long as they are but innocent, they are necessary to give a proper stimulus to exertion:

> Each nobler aim, repress'd by long control, Now sinks at last or feebly mans the soul.

GOLDSMITH.

OBJECT, SUBJECT.

Object, in Latin objectus, participle of objicio to lie in the way, signifies the thing that lies in one's way; subject, in Latin subjectus, participle of subjicio to lie under, signifies the thing forming the groundwork. The object puts itself forward; the subject is in the

supplied with subjects suitable to the nature of the

operations.
When object is taken for that which is intellectual, it read a similar signification; it is the thing that presents itself to the mind; it is seen by the mind's eye: the subject, on the contrary, is that which must be sought for, and when found it engages the mental powers: hence we say an object of consideration, an object of delight, an object of concern; a subject of reflection, a subject of mature deliberation, the subject of a poem, the subject of grief, of lamentation, and the like. When the mind becomes distracted by too great a multiplicity of objects, it can fix itself on no one individual object with sufficient steadiness to take a survey of it; in like manner, if a child have too many objects set before it, for the exercise of its powers, it will acquire a familiarity with none;

He whose sublime pursuit is God and truth, Burns like some absent and impatient youth, To join the object of his warm desires.—Jenyns.

Religion and politicks are interesting, but delicate subjects of discussion; 'The lymns and odes (of the inspired writers) excel those delivered down to us by the Greeks and Romans, in the poetry as much as in the subject.'-Addison.

MATTER, MATERIALS, SUBJECT.

Matter and materials are both derived from the same source, namely, the Latin materia, which comes in all probability from mater, because matter, from which every thing is made, acts in the production of bodies like a mother; subject, in Latin subjectum, participle of subjects to lie, signifies the thing lying under and forming the foundation.

Matter in the physical application is taken for all that composes the sensible world in distinction from that which is spiritual, or discernible only by the think-

ing faculty; hence matter is always opposed to mind.
In regard to materials it is taken in an indivisible as well as a general sense; the whole universe is said to be composed of matter, though not of materials; 'It seems probable to me, that God in the beginning formed matter in solid, hard, impenetrable, moveable ornied matter in solid, and, impenetration, moveable particles."—Newton. On the other hand, materials consist of those particular parts of matter which serve for the artificial production of objects; 'The materials of that building very fortunately ranged themselves into that delicate order that it must be very great chance that parts them.'—Tillotson. Matter is said of those things which are the natural parts of the unia house, a table, and a chair consist of materials, because they are works of art; but a plant, a tree, an animal body, consist of matter, because they are the productions of nature.

The distinction of these terms in their moral application is very similar: the matter which composes a moral discourse is what emanates from the author. The materials are those with which one is furnished The style of some writers is so indifferent by others. that they disgrace the matter by the manner;

Son of God, Saviour of men! thy name Shall be the copious matter of my song .- MILTON.

Periodical writers are furnished with materials for Periodical writers are furnished with materials for their productions out of the daily occurrences in the political and moral world, 'Simple ideas, the materials of all our knowledge, are suggested to the mind only by sensation and reflection,'—Looke. 'The principal materials of our comfort or uneasiness lie within ourselves.'—Blair. Writers of dictionaries endea your to compress as much matter as possible into a small space; they draw their materials from other small space; they draw their materials from other

Matter seems to bear the same relation to subject matter seems to beat the same retain to appear as the whole does to any particular part, as it respects moral objects: the subject is the groundwork of the matter; the matter is that which flows out of the subject; the matter is that which we get by the force subject, in Latin subjectus, participle of subjecto to lie under, signifies the thing forming the groundwork.

The object puts itself forward; the subject is in the back-ground: we notice the object; we observe or reflect on the subject: objects are sensible; the subject subject is altogether intellectual; the eye, the ear, and all the senses, are occupied with the surrounding objects. the memory, the judgement, and the imagination are is taken for that which is substantial; the subject is taken for that which is substantial; the subject is taken for that which engages the attention; we liberation; a subject of inquiry, a matter of curiosity. Nations in a barbarous state afford but little matter worthy to be recorded in history;

Whence tumbled headlong from the height of life, They furnish matter for the tragick mus

THOMSON.

People who live a secluded life and in a contracted sphere have but few subjects to occupy their attention;
Love hath such a strong virtual force that when it fasteneth on a pleasing subject it sets the imagination at a strange fit of working. —Howel.

TO ALLUDE, REFER, HINT, SUGGEST.

Allude, in Latin alludo, is compounded of al or ad and ludo to sport, that is, to say any thing in a sportive or cursory manner; refer, in Latin refero, signifies to bring back, that is, to bring back a person's recollection to any subject by an indirect mention of it; hint may very probably be changed from hind or behind, in German hinten, signifying to convey from behind, or in an obscure manner; suggest, in Latin suggestus, participle of suggero, is compounded of sub and gero to bring under or near, and signifies to bring forward in an indirect or casual manner.

To allude is not so direct as to refer, but it is more

clear and positive than either hint or suggest

We allude to a circumstance by introducing something collaterally allied to it; we refer to an event by expressly introducing it into one's discourse; we hint expressly introducing it motories instodues, we are at a person's intentions by darkly instinuating what may possibly happen; we suggest an idea by some poetical expressions relative to it.

There are frequent allusions in the Bible to the customs and manners of the East; 'I need not inform

my reader that the author of Hudibras alludes to this strange quality in that cold climate, when, speaking of abstracted notions clothed in a visible shape, he adds that apt simile, "Like words congeal'd in northern air." Addison. It is necessary to refer to certain passages of a work when we do not expressly copy them; 'Those causes the divine historica. them; 'Those causes the divine historian refers us to, and not to any productions out of nothing.'—BURNET. It is mostly better in conversation to be entirely silent upon a subject, than to hint at what cannot be entirely explained; 'It is hinted that Augustus had in mind to restore the commonwealth.'—Cumberland. Many improvements have owed their origin to some ideas casually suggested in the course of conversation; 'This image of misery, in the punishment of Tantalus, was

perhaps originally suggested to some poet by the con-duct of his patron. —Jounson.

Allude and refer are always said with regard to things that have positively happened, and mostly such as are indifferent; that and suggest have mostly a personal relation to things that are precarious. The whole drift of a discourse is sometimes unintelligible for want of knowing what is alluded to; although many persons and incidents are referred to with their roper names and dates. It is the part of the slan-erer to hint at things discreditable to another, when he does not dare to speak openly; and to suggest doubts of his veracity which he cannot positively charge.

TO HINT, SUGGEST, INTIMATE, INSINUATE

Hint, v. To allude; suggest, v. To allude; to inti-mate is to make one intimate, or specially acquainted with, to communicate one's most inward thoughts; insimuate, from the Latin simus the bosom, is to intro-

duce gently into the mind of another.

All these terms denote indirect expressions of what passes in one's own mind. We hint at a thing from dear and uncertainty; we suggest a thing from prudence and modesty; we intimate a thing from indecision; a thing is insinuated from artifice. A person cision; a thing is insinuated from artifice. A person who wants to get at the certain knowledge of any circumstance hints at it frequently in the presence of those who can give him the information; a man who will not offend others by an assumption of superiour wisdom, suggests his ideas on a subject instead of setting them forth with confidence; when a person's mind is not made up on any future action, he only intimates what may be done; he who has any thing offensive to communicate to another, will choose to

speak of a subject of conversation and matter for de insinuate it, rather than declare it in express terms. Hints are thrown out; they are frequently characterized as broken;

Willing to wound, and yet afraid to strike, Just hint a fault, and hesitate dislike.—Pope.

Suggestions are offered; they are frequently termed idle or ill grounded;

We must suggest to the people, in what hatred He still hath held them .- SHAKSPEARE.

Intimations are given, and are either slight or broad; 'T is Heav'n itself that points out an hereafter, And incimates eternity to man.—Addison.

Insinuations are thrown out; they are commonly designated as slanderous, malignant, and the like; 'Let it not be thought that what is here said insinuates any

thing to the discredit of Greek and Latin criticism.'-WARBURTON.

To hint is taken either in a bad or an indifferent sense; it is commonly resorted to by tale-bearers, mis-chief-makers, and all who want to talk of more than they know: it is rarely necessary to have recourse to hints in lieu of positive inquiries and declarations, unless the term be used in regard to matters of science or morals, when it designates loose thoughts, casually of morals, when it designates loss a morals, establish offered, in distinction from those which are systematized and formally presented: upon this ground, a distinguished female writer of the present day modestly iniguished female writer of the present day modestly entitles her book, 'Hints towards forming the Character of a Young Princess.' To suggest is oftener used in the good than the bad sense: While one suggests doubts, queries, difficulties, or improvements in matters of opinion, it is truly laudable, particularly for young persons; but to suggest any thing to the disadvantage of another is even worse than to speak ill of him openly, for it besneaks cowardice as well es ill. of him openly, for it bespeaks cowardice as well as ill-nature. To intimate is taken either in a good or an indifferent sense: it commonly passes between relatives or persons closely connected, in the communication of their half-formed intentions or of doubtful intelligence; but to insinuate is always taken in a bad sense; it is the resource of an artful and malignant enemy to wound the reputation of another, whom he does not dare openly to accuse. A person is said to take a hint, to follow a suggestion, to receive an intimation, to disregard an insinuation.

TO REFER, RELATE, RESPECT, REGARD.

Refer, from the Latin re and fero, signifies literally Refer, from the Latin re and fero, signifies literally to bring back; and relate, from the participy relatis of the same verb, signifies brought back: the former is, therefore, transitive, and the latter intransitive. One refers a person to a thing; one thing refers, that is, refers a person, to another thing: one thing relates, that is, related, to another. To refer is an arbitrary act, it depends upon the will of an individual; we may refer a person to any part of a volume or to any most of refer a person to any part of a volume, or to any work we please: to relate is a conditional act, it depends on the nature of things; nothing relates to another without some point of accordance between the two; orthography relates to grammar, that is, by being a part of the grammatical science. Hence it arises that refer, when employed for things, is commonly said of circumstances that carry the memory to events or circumstances; relate is said of things that have a natural connexion: the religious festivals and ceremonies of the Roman Catholicks have all a reference to some events that happened in the early periods of Christianity: 'Our Savjour's words (in his sermon on the mount) all refer to the Pharisees' way of speaking.' The notes and observations at the end of a South. The notes and observations at the end of a book relate to what has been inserted in the text; Homer artfully interweaves, in the several succeeding parts of his poem, an account of every thing material which relates to his princes, -Addison.

Refer and relate carry us back to that which may

be very distant: but respect and regard turn our views to that which is near. The object of the actions of to that which is near. The object of the actions of referring and relating is indirectly acted upon, and consequently stands in the oblique case; we refer to an object; a thing relates to an object: but the object of the action respect and regard is directly acted upon, therefore it stands in the accusative or objective case: to respect or regard a thing, not to a thing. What respects comprehends in it more than what relates. To

relate is to respect; but to respect is not always to re- wish to be observed to look, we take but a glance of late: the former includes every species of affinity or accordance; the latter only that which flows out of the properties and circumstances of things: when a number of objects are brought together, which fitly associate, and properly relate the one to the other, they form a grand whole, as in the case of any scientifick work which is digested into a system; when all the incidental circumstances which respect either moral principles or moral conduct are properly weighed, they will enable one to form a just judgement.

Respect is said of objects in general; regard mostly of that which enters into the feelings: laws respect the general welfare of the community; 'Religion is a pleasure to the mind, as respects practice. —South. The due administration of the laws regards the happiness of the individual; 'What I have said regards

only the vain part of the sex.'-Appison.

TO REVERT, RETURN.

Revert is the Latin, and return the English word; the former is used however only in few cases, and the latter in general cases: they are allied to each other in the moral application; a speaker reverts to what has already passed on a preceding day; he returns after a digression to the thread of his discourse: we may always revert to something different, though more or less connected with that which we are discussing; we always return to that which we have left: we turn to something by reverting to it; we continue the same thing by returning to it;

Whatever lies or legendary tales May taint my spotless deeds, the guilt, the shame, Will back revert on the inventor's head. SHIRLEY.

One day, the soul supine with ease and fulness Revels secure, and fondly tells herself

The hour of evil can return no more.-Rowe.

TO GLANCE AT, ALLUDE TO.

Glance, probably from the Teutonick glaentzen to shine, signifies to make a thing appear like a ray of light in an oblique direction: allude has the same general meaning as in the preceding article (v. To allude).

These terms are nearly allied in the sense of indirectly referring to any object, either in written or verbal discourse: but glance expresses a cursory and latent action; allude, simply an indirect but undisguised action: ill-natured satirists are perpetually glancing at the follies and infirmities of individuals; Entering upon his discourse, Socrates says, he does not believe any of the most comick genius can censure him for talking upon such a subject (the immortality of the soul) at such a time (that of death). This passage, I think, evidently glances upon Aristophanes, who writ a comedy on purpose to ridicule the discourses of that divine philosopher.'—Addison. The Scriptures are full of allusions to the manners and customs of the Easterns; 'The author, in the whole course of his poem, has infinite allusions to places of Scripture.'—Addison. He who attempts to write an epitome of universal history must take but a hasty glance at the most important events.

GLIMPSE, GLANCE.

The glimpse is the action of the object appearing to the eye; the glance is the action of the eye seeking the object: one catches a glimpse of an object; one casts a glance at an object: the latter therefore is properly the means for obtaining the former, which is the end we get a glimpse by means of a glance. The glimpse is the hasty, imperfect, and sudden view which we get of an object: the glance is the hasty and imperfect view which we take of an object: the former may depend upon a variety of circumstances; the latter depends upon the will of the agent. We can seldom do more than get a glimpse of objects in a carriage that is going with rapidity; 'Of the state with which practice has not acquainted us, we snatch a glimpse, we discern a point, and regulate the rest by passion and by fauev.'—Johnson. When we do not

an object;

Here passion first I felt, Commotion strange! In all enjoyments else Superiour unmov d; here only weak Against the charm of beauty's pow'rful glance. MILTON.

TO INSINUATE, INGRATIATE.

Insinuate (v. To hint) and ingratiate, from gratus grateful or acceptable, are employed to express the endeavour to gain favour; but they differ in the circum stances of the action. A person who instinuates adopts every art to steal into the good will of another; but he who ingratiates adopts unartificial means to conciliate good will. A person of insinuating manners wins upon another imperceptibly, even so as to convert dislike into attachment; a person with ingra-tiating manners procures good will by a permanent intercourse. Insinuate and ingratiate differ in the motive, as well as the mode, of the action: the motive is, in both cases, self-interest; but the former is un-lawful, and the latter allowable. In proportion as the object to be attained by another's favour is base, so is it necessary to have recourse to insinuation; 'At the isle of Rhe he instructed himself into the very good grace of the Duke of Buckingham.—CLARENDON. While the object to be attained is that which may be avowed, ingratiating will serve the purpose; resolution was now to ingratiate myself with men whose reputation was established.—Johnson. Low persons insinuate themselves into the favour of their superiours, in order to obtain an influence over them: it is commendable in a young person to wish to ingratiate himself with those who are entitled to his esteem

Insinuate may be used in the improper sense for unconscious agents; ingratiate is always the act of a conscious agent. Water will insinuate itself into every body that is in the smallest degree porous; 'The same character of despotism insinuated itself into every court of Europe.—Burke. There are few persons of so much apathy, that it may not be possible, one way or another, to ingratiate one's self into their

INSINUATION, REFLECTION.

These both imply personal remarks, or such remarks as are directed towards an individual; but the former is less direct and more covert than the latter. The insinuation always deals in half words; the reflection They are both levelled at the inis commonly open. dividual with no good intent: but the insinuation is general, and may be employed to convey any unfa-vourable sentiment; the reflection is particular, and commonly passes between intimates, and persons in close connexion.

The insinuation respects the honour, the moral character, or the intellectual worth, of the object; 'The prejudiced admirers of the ancients are very angry at the least insinuation that they had any idea of our barbarous tragi-comedy.'—Twining. The reflection respects the particular conduct or feelings of an individual towards another; 'The ill-natured man gives utterance to reflections which a good-natured man stifles.'—ADDISON. Envious people throw out instructions to the disparagement of others, whose merits they dare not openly question; when friends quarrel, they deal largely in reflections on the past.

PERTINENT, RELEVANT.

Pertinent, from the Latin pertineo to pertain or appertain, signifies belonging or relating to any subject in hand; relevant, from the Latin relevo to relieve or assist, signifies coming in aid or support of a subject. Remarks are pertinent when they bear on any question, and, on the other hand, they are impertinent when they have nothing to do with the question; 'Here I shall seem a little to digress, but you will by and by find it neeting the Research. Blood. Malter in the and-by find it pertinent."-BACON. Matter in a die course, and arguments are relevant, when they serve to strengthen a cause, and, on the other hand, they are irrelevant when they in no wise answer this end; 'Having showed you that we differ about the meaning of Scripture, and are like to do so, certainly there

our differences, or at least to make our probations and arguments relevant. -K. Charles (Letter to A. and arguments Henderson). What is relevant is therefore, properly speaking, that which is pertinent, so as to aid a cause

TO LABOUR, TAKE PAINS OR TROUBLE, USE ENDEAVOUR.

Labour, in Latin labor, comes, in all probability, from labo to falter or faint, because labour causes faintness; to take pains is to expose oneself to the pains; and to take the trouble is to impose the trouble; endea-

vour, v. To endeavour.

The first three terms suppose the necessity for a painful exertion: but to labour (v. Work) expresses more than to take pains, and this more than to take trouble; to use endeavour excludes every idea of pain or inconvenience: great difficulties must be conquered; great perfection or correctness requires pains: a concern to please will give trouble; but we use endea-vours wherever any object is to be obtained, or any duty to be performed. To labour is either a corporeal or a mental action; to take pains is principally an effort of the mind or the attention; to take trouble is an effort either of the body or mind; a faithful minister of the Gospel labours to instil Christian principles into the minds of his audience, and to heal all the breaches which the angry passions make between them: when a child is properly sensible of the value of improvement, he will take the utmost pains to profit by the instruction of the master: he who is too indolent to take the trouble to make his wishes known dolent to take the trouble to make his wisnes known to those who would comply with them, cannot expect others to trouble themselves with inquiring into their necessities: a good name is of such value to every man that he ought to use his best endeavours to preserve it unblemished; 'They (the Jews) were fain to take pains to rid themselves of their happiness; and it cost them labour and violence to become miserable. -South. 'A good conscience hath always enough to reward itself, though the success fall not out according to the merit of the endeavour.'--Howel.

WORK, LABOUR, TOIL, DRUDGERY, TASK.

Work, in Saxon weorc, Greek ἔργον, comes doubtless from the Hebrew 178 to weave; labour, in Latin labor, signifies the same as in the preceding article (v. To tabour); toil is probably connected with to till; drudgery is connected with drag, signifying painful

Work is the general term, as including that which calls for the exertion of our strength: labour differs from it in the degree of exertion required; it is hard work: toil expresses a still higher degree of painful exertion: drudgery implies a mean and degrading work :

The hireling thus With labour drudges out the painful day .- RowE.

Every member of society must work for his support, is not in independent circumstances; the poor are obliged to labour for their daily subsistence; some are compelled to toil incessantly for the pittance which they earn: drudgery falls to the lot of those who are the lowest in society. A man wishes to complete his soork; he is desirous of resting from his labour; he seeks for a respite from his toil; he submits to

Work is more or less voluntary, but task, in French tasche, and Italian tassa, is a work imposed by others;

Relieves me from my task of servile toil, Daily in the common prison else enjoined me. MILTON.

In its improper application it may be taken in a good sense for a work which one has imposed on oneself;

No happier task these faded eyes pursue, To read and weep is all they now can do .- POPE.

WORK, OPERATION.

Work, which is derived from the Hebrew, as in the preceding article, denotes either the act of working, or the result of that act: in both cases it is a simple exertion of power; as when speaking of the works of

ought to be a rule or a judge between us, to determine | creation or of art and mechanical skill; as the work of the artist and artisan;

O, fairest of creation! last and best Of all God's works ! creature, in whom excels Whatever can to sight or thought be form'd, Holy, divine, good, amiable, or sweet, How art thou lost !- MILTON.

Nor was the work impair'd by storms alone, But felt the approaches of too warm a sun .- POPE

Operation (v. Action) denotes the act of operating and is a combined exertion, being the effect of method and skill; as in the case of the surgeon, who performs an operation; or a natural process, as the operations of thought, or the operation of vegetation; 'Speculative pointing without the state of the sta lative painting, without the assistance of manual operation, can never attain to perfection, but slothfully languishes; for it was not with his tongue that Apelles performed his noble works. - DRYDEN. 'There are in men operations natural, rational, supernatural, some politick, some finally ecclesiastick."—HOOKER.

Between the verbs to work and operate there is even a nicer distinction, both being used in the sense of a process, physical, moral, or intellectual: but work always conveys the idea of the exertion of power, and operate that of a gradual course of action: so water works its way under ground; things operate on the mind by various ways;

Some deadly draught, some enemy to life, Boils in my bowels, and works out my soul.

DRYDEN

Sometimes a passion seems to operate,
Almost in contradiction to itself.—Shirley.

SERVANT, DOMESTICK, MENIAL, DRUDGE.

In the term servant is included the idea of the ser vice performed; 'A servant dwells remote from all knowledge of his lord's purposes.'—South. In the term domestick, from domus a house, is included the idea of one belonging to the house or family; ' Montezuma was attended by his own domesticks, and served with his usual state.'—ROBERTSON. In the word menial, from manus the hand, is included the idea of labour; 'Some were his (King Charles') own menial servants, and ate bread at his table before they lifted up their heel against him.'—South. 'The term drudge includes drudgery; 'He who will be vastly rich must resolve to be a drudge all his days.'—South. We hire a servant at a certain rate, and for a particular service; we are attached to our domesticks according to their assiduity and attention to our wishes; we employ as a menial one who is unfit for a higher employment; and a drudge in any labour, however hard and disagreeable.

SERVITUDE, SLAVERY, BONDAGE.

Servitude expresses less than slavery, and this less than bondage.

Servitude, from servio, conveys simply the idea of performing a service, without specifying the principle upon which it is performed. Among the Romans servus signified a slave, because all who served were literally slaves, the power over the person being almost The mild influence of Christianity has corrected men's notions with regard to their rights, as well as their duties, and established servitude on the just principle of a mutual compact, without any infraction on that most precious of all human gifts, personal liberty; 'It is fit and necessary that some persons in the world should be in love with a splendid servitude.' -South. Slavery, which marks a condition incomment, is a term odious to the Christian ear; it had its origin in the grossest state of society: the word being derived from the German slave, or Sclavonians, a fierce and intrepid people, who made a long stand against the Germans, and, being at last defeated, were made slaves. Slavery, therefore, includes not only servitude, but also the odious circumstance of the entire subjection of one individual to another; a condition which deprives him of every privilege belonging to a free agent, and a rational creature; and which forcibly bends the will and affections of the one to the humour of the other, and converts a thinking being

Into a mere senseless tool in the hands of its owner. Slavery unfortunately remains, though barbarism has ceased. Christianity has taught men their true end and destination; but it has not yet been able to extinguish that inordinate love of dominion, which is an innate propensity in the human breast. There are those who take the name of Christians, and yet cling to the practice of making their fellow-creatures an article of commerce. Some delude themselves with the idea that they can ameliorate the condition of those over whom they have usurped this unlicensed power; but they forget that he who begins to be a slave ceases to be a man; that slavery is the extinction of our nobler part; and the abuse even of that part in us which we have in common with the brutes; 'So different are the geniuses which are formed under Turkish slavery and Grecian liberty.'—Additional denotes the state of being Rondage, from to bind, denotes the state of being

Bondage, from to bind, denotes the state of being bound, that is, slavery in its most aggravated form, in which, to the loss of personal liberty, is added cruel treatment; the term is seldom applied in its proper sense to any persons but the Israelites in Egypt. In a figurative sense, we speak of being a slave to our passions, and under the bondage of sin, in which cases the terms preserve precisely the same distinction;

Our cage
We make a choir, as doth the prison'd bird,
And sing our bondage freely.—Shakspeare.

The same distinction exists between the epithets servile and slavish, which are employed only in the moral application. He who is servile has the mean character of a servant, but he is still a free agent; but he who is slavish is bound and fettered in every possible form:

That servile path thou nobly dost decline, Of tracing word by word, and line by line. Those are the labour'd births of slavish brains, Not the effect of poetry but pains.—Derham.

PRODUCTION, PERFORMANCE, WORK.

When we speak of any thing as resulting from any specified operation, we term it a production; as the production of an author, signifying what he has produced by the effort of his mind: Homer's Iliad is esteemed as one of the finest productions of the imagination. When we speak of any thing as executed or performed by some person we term it a performance, as a drawing or a painting is denominated the performance of a particular artist. The term production cannot be employed without specifying or referring to the source from which it is produced, or the means by which it is produced,—as the production of art, the production of the inventive faculty, the production of the mind. &c.:

Nature, in her productions slow, aspires
By just degrees to reach perfection's height.

A performance cannot be spoken of without referring to the individual by whom it has been performed; hence we speak of this or that person's performance; 'The performances of Pope were burnt by those whom he had, perhaps, selected as most likely to publish them.'—Johnson. When we wish to specify any thing that results from work or labour, it is termed a work: in this manner we either speak of the work of one's hands, or a work of the imagination, a work of time, a work of magnitude; 'Yet there are some works which the author must consign unpublished to posterity."—Johnson. The production results from a complicated operation; the performance consists of simple action; the work springs from active exertion: Shakspeare's plays are termed productions, as they respect the source from which they came, namely, his genius; they might be called his performances, as far as respected the performance or completion of some task or specifick undertaking; they would be called his vorks, as far as respected the labour which he bestowed upon them. The composition of a book is properly a production, when it is original matter; the sketching of a landscape, or drawing a plan, is a performance; it the compliation of a history is a work.

ESSAY, TREATISE, TRACT, DISSERTATION.

All these words are employed by authors to characterize compositions varying in their form and contents \$Essay\$, which signifies a trial or attempt (e. \$Aitempt\$) is here used to designate in a specifick manner an author's attempt to illustrate any point. It is most commonly applied to small detached pieces, which contain only the general thoughts of a writer on any given subject, and afford room for amplification into details; although by Locke in his "\$Essay\$ on the Understanding," Beattle in his "\$Essay\$ on Truth," and other authors, it is modestly used for their connected and finished endeavours to elucidate a doctrine: 'It is my frequent practice to visit places of resort in this town, to observe what reception my works meet with in the world; it being a privage asserted by Monseur Montaigne and others, of vain-glorions memory, that we writers of \$essays\$ may talk of ourselves.'—\$Field.

A \$tractise is more systematick than an \$esay; it

A treatise is more systematick than an essay; it treats on the subject in a methodical form, and conveys the idea of something laboured, scientifick, and instructive; 'The very title of a moral treatise has something in it austere and shocking to the careless and inconsiderate.'—Addison. A tract is only a species of small treatise, drawn up upon particular occasions, and published in a separate form. They are both derived from the Latin tractus, participle of traho to draw, manage, or handle; 'I desire my reader to consider every particular paper or discourse as a distinct tract by itself.'—Addison. Dissertation, from disservo to argue, is with propriety applied to performances of an argumentative nature; 'A modern philosopher, quoted by Monsieur Bayle in his learned dissertation on the souls of brutes, says, Deus est anima brutorum, God himself is the soul of brutes.'—Addisono.

Essays are either moral, political, philosophical, or literary: they are the crude attempts of the youth to digest his own thoughts; or they are the more mature attempts of the man to communicate his thoughts to others. Of the former description are the prize essays in schools; and of the latter are the essays innumerable which have been published on every subject, since the days of Bacon to the present day. Treatises are mostly written on ethical, political, or speculative subjects, such as Fenedon's, Mitton's, or Locke's treatise on education; De Lolme's treatise on the constitution of England; Colquiboun's treatise on the police, Dissertations are employed on disputed points of literature, as Bendey's dissertations on the Egyptians and Chinese. Tracts are ephemeral productions, mostly on political and religious subjects, which seldom survive the occasion which gave them birth. Of this description are the pamphiers which daily issue from the press, for or against the measures of government, or the public measures of any particular party.

The essay is the most popular mode of writing: it suits the writer who has not either talent or inclination to pursue his inquiries farther, and it suits the generality of readers who are amused with variety and superficiality: the treatise is adapted for the student; he will not be contented with the superficial essay, when more ample materials are within his reach; the tract is formed for the political partisan; it receives its interest from the occurrence of the motive; the dissertation interests the disputant.

PRODUCTION, PRODUCE, PRODUCT.

The term production expresses either the act of producing or the thing produced; product and produce express only the thing produced: the production of a tree from a seed, is one of the wonders of nature; the produce of a thing is said to be considerable or otherwise.

In the sense of the thing produced, production is applied to every individual thing that is produced by another: in this sense a tree is a production, produce and product are applied only to those productions which are to be turned to a purpose: the former in a collective sense, and in reference to some particular object; the latter in an abstract and general sense; the aggregate quantity of grain drawn from a field is termed the produce of the field; but corn, hay, vege tables and fruits in general, are termed products of

the earth: the naturalist examines all the productions of nature; 'Nature also, as it desirous that so bright a production of her skill should be set in the fairest a production of ner skin should be set in the tailest light, had bestowed on king Alfred every bodily accomplishment.—HUME. The husbandman looks to the produce of his lands; 'A storm of hail, I am informed, has destroyed all the produce of my estate in Tuscany.'—Melmouth (Letters of Cicero). The topographer and traveller in Dirich about the products of different countries; 'Our British products are of such kinds and quantities as can turn the balance of trade

to our advantage.'-Appison.

There is the same distinction between these terms in their improper, as in their proper, acceptation: a production is whatever results from an effort, physical production is a production of genius, a production of art, and the like; 'What would become of the scrotulous consumptive productions, furnished by our men of wit and learning.'—Swift. The produce is the amount or aggregate result from physical or mental labour: thus, whatever the husbandman reaps from the cultivation of his land is termed the produce of his labour; whatever results from any publick subscription or collection is, in like manner, the produce; 'This tax has already been so often tried, that we know the exact produce of it.'—Addison. The product is seldom employed except in regard to the mental operation of figures, as the product from multiplication, but it may be used precisely in the sense of production; 'I cannot help thinking the Arabian tales the product of some woman's imagination.'-ATTER-BURY.

TO BEAR, YIELD.

Bear, in Saxon baran, old German beran, Latin pario, and Hebrew &73 to create; yield, v. To afford.

pario, and Hebrew NT3 to create; yield, v. To afford.

Bear conveys the idea of creating within itself;
yield that of giving from itself. Animals bear their
young; inanimate objects yield their produce. An
apple-tree bears apples; the earth yields fruits.

Bear marks properly the natural power of bringing
forth something c! its own kind; yield is said of the
result or quantum brought forth: shrubs bear leaves,
flowers, or berries, according to their natural proprofiles:

No keel shall cut the waves for foreign ware, For every soil shail ev'ry product bear .- DRYDEN.

Flowers yield seeds plentifully or otherwise as they are favoured by circumstances

Nor Bactria, nor the richer Indian fields, Nor all the gummy stores Arabia yields, Nor any foreign earth of greater name, Can with sweet Italy contend in fame.—DRYDEN.

TO BEAR, CARRY, CONVEY, TRANSPORT.

Bear, from the sense of generating (v. To bear, yield), has derived that of retaining; carry, in French charter, probably from the Latin currus, Greek καίρω οι τρέχω to run, or κύρω, in Hebrew κή to meet, signifies to move a thing from one place to another; convey, in Latin conveho, is compounded of con and veho to carry with one; transport, in French transporter, Latin transporto, compounded of trans over and porto to carry, signifies to carry to a distance.

To bear is simply to take the weight of any sub-

To vear is simply to take the weight of any sur-stance upon one's self; to carry is to remove that weight from the spot where it was: we always bear in carrying, but we do not always carry when we bear. Both may be applied to things as well as persons; whatever receives the weight of any thing bears it; whatever is caused to move with any thing carries it. That which cannot be easily borne must be burden-some to carry: in extremely hot weather it is some-times irksome to bear the weight even of one's cloth-Virgil praises the pious Æneas for having carried his father on his shoulders in order to save him from the sacking of Troy. Weak people or weak things are not fit to bear heavy burdens: lazy people prefer to be carried rather than to carry any thing

Since bear is confined to personal service it may be used in the sense of carry, when the latter implies the removal of any thing by means of any other body.

The bearer of any letter or parcer is he who carries it in his hand;

In hollow wood thy floating armies bear.- DRYDEN. The carrier of parcels is he who employs a conveyance; 'A whale, besides those seas and oceans in the several vessels of his body which are filled with innumerable shoals of little animals, carries about him a whole world of inhabitants.—Addison. Hence the word bear is often very appropriately substituted for carry, as Virgil praises Æneas for bearing his father

on his shoulders

Convey and transport are species of carrying.
Carry in its particular sense is employed either for personal exertions or actions performed by the help of other means; convey and transport are employed for such actions as are performed not by immediate per-sonal intervention or exertion: a porter carries goods on his knot; goods are conveyed in a wagon or a cart;

they are transported in a vessel.

Convey expresses simply the mode of removing; transport annexes to this the idea of the place and the distance. Merchants get the goods conveyed into their warehouses, which they have had transported from distant countries. Pedestrians take no more with them than what they can conveniently carry: could armies do the same, one of the greatest obstacles to the indulgence of human ambition would be removed; for many an incursion into a peaceful country is defeated for the want of means to convey provisions sufficient for such numbers; and when mountains or deserts are to be traversed, another great difficulty presents itself in the transportation of artillery;

Love cannot, like the wind, itself convey To fill two sails, though both are spread one way.

It is customary at funerals for some to bear the pall and others to carry wands or staves; the body itself is conveyed in a hearse, unless it has to cross the ocean, in which case it is transported in a vessel; 'It is to navigation that men are indebted for the power of transporting the superfluous stock of one part of the earth to supply the wants of another.'-ROBERTSON.

TO BRING, FETCH, CARRY.

To bring, in German, &c. bringen, is supposed to be contracted from beringen, and ringen or regen to move; fetch is not improbably connected with the verb search, signifying to send for or go after; carry v. To bear, carry.

To bring is simply to take with one's self from the To bring is simply to take with one's sell from the place where one is; to fetch is to go first to a place and then bring the thing away; to fetch therefore is a species of bringing; whatever is near at hand is brought; whatever is at a distance must be fetched. porter at an inn brings a parcel, the servant

fetches it.

Bring always respects motion towards the place in which the agent or speaker resides; 'What appeared to me wonderful was that none of the ants came home without bringing something.'—Addition. Fetch denotes a motion both to and from; 'I have said before that those ants which I did so particularly consider, fetched their corn out of a garret.—Addison. Carry denotes always a motion directly from the place or at a distance from the place: 'How great is the hardship of a poor ant, when she carries a grain of corn to the second story, climbing up a wall with her head downwards.'-Addison. A servant brings the parcel home which his master has sent him to fetch; he carries a parcel from home. A carrier carries parcels to and from a place, but he only brings parcels to any place.

Bring is an action performed at the option of the agent; fetch and carry are mostly done at the command of another. Hence the old proverb, 'He who will fetch will carry,' to mark the character of the gossin and tale-bearer, who reports what he hears from two persons in order to please both parties.

TO AFFORD, YIELD, PRODUCE.

Afford is probably changed from afferred, and comes from the Latin affero, compounded of af or ad and fero, signifying to bring to a person; yield, in Saxon geldan, German gelten to pay, restore, or give the

value, is probably connected with the Hebrew 77' to breed, or bring forth; produce, in Latin produce, compounded of pro forth and duce to bring, signifies to bring out or into existence.

With afford is associated the idea of communicating a part or property of some substance, to a person a part or property of some substance, to a person-meat affords nourishment to those who make use of it; the sun affords light and heat to all living crea-tures; 'The generous man in the ordinary accepta-tion, without respect of the demands of his family, will soon find upon the foot of his account that he has soon find upon the foot of his account that he sacrificed to fools, knaves, flatterers, or the deservedly unhappy, all the opportunities of affording any future assistance where it ought to be.'—STERLE.

Yielding is the natural operation of any substance to give up or impart the parts or properties inherent in it; it is the natural surrender which an object makes of itself; trees yield fruit; the seed yields grain; some sorts of grain do not yield much in particular soils;

Their vines a shadow to their race shall yield, And the same hand that sowed shall reap the field.

POPE.

Produce conveys the idea of one thing causing another to exist, or to spring out of it; it is a species of creation, the formation of a new substance: the earth produces a variety of fruits; confined air will produce an explosion;

Their sharpen'd ends in earth their footing place, And the dry poles produce a living race. - DRYDEN.

In the moral application they are similarly distinguished: nothing affords so great a scope for ridicule as the follies of fashion; 'This is the consolation of all good men unto whom his ubiquity affordeth continual comfort and security.'—Brown. Nothing yields so much satisfaction as religion. 'The mind of man desireth evermore to know the truth, according to the most infallible certainty which the nature of things can wield.'-HOUKER. Nothing produces so much mischief as the vice of drunkenness;

Thou all this good of evil shalt produce.-MILTON.

The history of man does not afford an instance of any popular commotion that has ever produced such atrocities and atrocious characters as the French revolu-

tion.

Religion is the only thing that can afford true consolation and peace of mind in the season of affliction and the hour of death. The recollection of past incidents, particularly those which have passed in our infancy, produces the most pleasurable sensations in the

BUSINESS, OCCUPATION, EMPLOYMENT, ENGAGEMENT, AVOCATION.

Business signifies what makes busy (v. Active, busy); occupation, from occupy, in French occupe Latin occupo, that is, ob and capio, signifies that which serves or takes possession of a person or thing to the exclusion of other things; employment, from employ, in French emploi, Latin implico, Greek $\varepsilon\mu\pi\lambda\dot{\epsilon}\kappa\omega$, signifirst that which engages or fixes a person; engagement also signifies what engages or fixes a person; engagement also signifies what engages or fixes a person; accoration, in Latin avocatio, from a and voco, signifies the thing that calls off from another thing.

Business occupies all a person's thoughts as well as his time and powers; occupation and employment occupy only his time and strength: the first is mostly regular, it is the object of our choice; the second is casual, it depends on the will of another. Engagement is a partial employment, avocation a particular engagement: an engagement prevents us from doing any thing else; an avocation calls off or prevents us

from doing what we wish.

Every tradesman has a business, on the diligent prosecution of which depends his success in life; 'The materials are no sooner wrought into paper, but they are distributed among the presses, where they again set innumerable artists at work, and furnish business to another mystery.—Addison. Every mechanick has his daily occupation, by which he maintains his family; 'How little must the ordinary occupations of men feem to one who is engaged in so noble a pursuit as the assimilation of himself to the Deity.'-BERKELEY. Every labourer has an employment which is fixed for him; 'Creatures who have the labours of the mind,

as well as those of the body, to furnish them with employments.'-GUARDIAN.

Business and occupation always suppose a serious object. Business is something more urgent and im portant than occupation: a man of independent fortune has no occasion to pursue business, but as a rational agent he will not be contented to be without

an occupation.

Employment, engagement, and avocation leave the object undefined. An employment may be a mere diversion of the thoughts, and a wasting of the hours in some idle pursuit; a child may have its employment, which may be its play in distinction from its business, 'I would recommend to every one of my readers the keeping a journal of their lives for one week, and setting down punctually their whole series of employments during that space of time.'—Addison. An engagement may have no higher object than that of pleasure; the idlest people have often the most engagements; the gratification of curiosity, and the love of social pleasure, supply them with an abundance of engagements; 'Mr. Baretti being a single man, and entirely clear from all engagements, takes the advan-tage of his independence."—Oonson. Anocations have seldom a direct trifling object, although it may sometimes be of a subordinate nature, and generally irrelevant: numerous avocations are not desirable: every man should have a regular pursuit, the business of his life, to which the principal part of his time should be devoted: avocations therefore of a serious nature are apt to divide the time and attention to a hurtful degree; 'Sorrow ought not to be suffered to increase by indulgence, but must give way after a stated time to social duties and the common avocations of life.'-- JOHNSON.

A person who is busy has much to attend to, and attends to it closely: a person who is occupied has a full share of business without any pressure; he is opposed to one who is idle; a person who is employed has the present moment filled up; he is not in a state of inaction: the person who is engaged is not at liberty to be otherwise employed; his time is not his

own; he is opposed to one at leisure.

BUSINESS, TRADE, PROFESSION, ART.

These words are synonymous in the sense of a calling, for the purpose of a livelihood; business (v. Business) is general; trade, signifying that which employs the time by way of trade; profession, or that which one professes to do by way of employment; and art, signifying that which is practised in the way of the arts, are particular; all trade is business, but all business is not trade.

Buying and selling of merchandise is inseparable from trade; but the exercise of one's knowledge and experience, for purposes of gain, constitutes a business; when learning or particular skill is required, it is a profession; and when there is a peculiar exercise of art, it is an art: every shopkeeper and retail dealer carries on a trade; 'Some persons, indeed, by the privilege of their birth and quality, are above a common trade and profession, but they are not hereby exempted from all business, and allowed to live unprorers, bankers, and others, Carry on business; 'Those who are determined by choice to any particular kind of business are indeed more happy than those who are determined by necessity.'—Addison. Clergymen, medical, or military men, follow a profession; 'No one of the sons of Adam ought to think himself exempt from labour or industry; those to whom birth or fortune may seem to make such an application unnecessary, ought to find out some calling or profession, that they may not lie as a burthen upon the species."

-Approx. Musicians and painters follow an art.

'The painter understands his art.'—SWIFT.

BUSINESS, OFFICE, DUTY.

Business is what one prescribes to one's self; office, in French office, Latin officium, from officio, or ob and facio, signifying to do for, or on account of any one is prescribed by another; duty, from the Latin debitum and debeo to owe, signifying what is due, is pre-scribed or enjoined by a fixed rule of propriety: mer cantile concerns are the business which a man takes upon himself, the management of parish concerns is an office imposed upon a person often, much against his inclination; the maintenance of a family is a duty which a man's conscience enjoins upon him to per-

Business and duty are publick or private; effice is mostly of a publick nature: a minister of state, by virtue of his office, has always publick business to per-

But now the feather'd youth their former bounds Ardent disdain, and, weighing of their wings, Demand the free possession of the sky. This one glad office more, and then dissolves Parental love at once, now heedless grown.

But men in general have only private business to transact; 'It is certain, from Suetonius, that the Ro-mans thought the education of their children a business

properly belonging to the parents themselves."—Bup-BLL. A minister of religion has publick duties to perform in his ministerial capacity; every other man has personal or relative duties, which he is called upon to discharge according to his station; 'Discretion is the perfection of reason, and a guide to us in all the duties of life.'-Applson.

AFFAIR, BUSINESS, CONCERN.

Affair, in French affaire, from à and faire to be done, signifies that which is to be done or is in hand; business, from busy (v. Active), signifies the thing that makes or interests a person, or with which he is busy or occupied; concern, in French concerner, Latin con-cerno, compounded of con and cerno to look, signifies the thing looked at, thought of, or taken part in.

An affair is what happens; a business is what is done; a concern is what is felt. An affair is general; it respects one, many, or all; every business and con-cern is an affair, though not vice versa. Business and concern are personal; business is that which engages the attention: concern is that which interests the feelings, prospects, and condition, advantageously or othermgs, prospects, and common, actually wise. An affair is interesting; a business is serious; a concern momentous. The usurpation of power is an affair which interests a nation; 'I remember in Tully's epistle, in the recommendation of a man to an offair which had no manner of relation to money, it is said, you may trust him, for he is a frugal man.—Steele. The adjusting of a difference is a business most suited to the ministers of religion; 'We may indeed say that our part does not suit us, and that we could perform another better; but this, says Epictetus, is not our business.'-Addison. To make our peace with our Maker is the concern of every individual; 'The sense of other men ought to prevail over us in things of less consideration; but not in concerns where truth and honour are engaged.'-STEELE.

Affairs are administered; business is transacted; concerns are managed. The affairs of the world are administered by a Divine Providence. Those who are in the practice of the law require peculiar talents to fit them for transacting the complicated business which perpetually offers itself. Some men are so involved in the offairs of this world, as to forget the concerns of the next, which ought to be nearest and dearest to

TO AFFECT, CONCERN.

Affect, in French affecter, Latin affectum, participle of affecto, compounded of ad and facto to do or act, signifies to act upon; concern, v. Affair.

Things affect us which produce any change in our outward circumstances; they concern us if only connected with our circumstances in any shape.

Whatever affects must concern; but all that concerns does not affect. The price of corn affects the interest of the seller: and therefore it concerns him to keep it ap, without regard to the publick good or injury

Things affect either persons or things; but they con-cern persons only. Rain affects the hay or corn; and these matters concern every one more or less

Affect and concern have an analogous meaning like wise, when taken for the influence on the mind. are affected by things when our affections only awakened by them; we are concerned when our understanding and wishes are engaged.

We may be affected either with joy or sorrow: 'We see that every different species of sensible creatures has its different notions of beauty, and that each of them is affected with the beauties of its own kind.' -Addison. We are concerned only in a painful manner

Without concern he hears, but hears from far, Of tumults, and descents, and distant war

People of tender sensibility are easily affected: irritable people are concerned about trifles. It is natural for every one to be affected at the recital of mistortunes; but there are people of so cold and selfish a character as not to be concerned about any thing which does not immediately affect their persons or property.

INTEREST, CONCERN.

The interest, from the Latin interesse to be among, or have a part or a share in a thing, is more comprehensive than concern (v. Affair). We have an interest in whatever touches or comes near to our feelings or our external circumstances; we have a concern in that which respects our external circumstances. The interest is that which is agreeable; it consists of either profit, advantage, gain, or amusement; it binds us to an object, and makes us think of it: the concern, on an object, and makes us think of it: the concern, on the other hand, is something involuntary or painful. We have a concern in that which we are obliged to look to, which we are bound to from the fear of losing or of suffering. It is the interest of every man to cultivate a religious temper; it is the concern of all to be on their guard against temptation; 'O give us a serious comprehension of that one great interest of others as well as ourselves.'—Hammond.

And could the marble rocks but know, They'd strive to find some secret way unknown, Maugre the senseless nature of the stone, Their pity and concern to show .- POMFRET

OFFICE, PLACE, CHARGE, FUNCTION.

Office, in Latin officium, from officio, or efficio, signifies either the duty performed or the situation in which the duty is performed. Place comprehends no idea of duty, for there may be sineoure places which are only nominal offices, and designate merely a relationship with the government: every office therefore of a publick nature is in reality a place, yet every place is not an office. The place of secretary of state is likewise an office, but that of ranger of a park is a place only and not an office. The office is held; the place is filled: the office is given or intrusted to a person; the place is granted or conferred: the office reposes a confidence, and imposes a responsibility; the place gives credit and influence: the office is bestowed on a man from his qualification; the place is granted to him by favour, or as a reward for past services: the office is more or less honourable:

You have contriv'd to take From Rome all season'd office, and to wind Yourself into a power tyrannical.—SHAKSPEARE. The place is more or less profitable;

When rogues like these (a sparrow cries) To honours and employment rise, I court no favour, ask no place .- GAY.

In an extended application of the terms office and place, the latter has a much lower signification than that of the former, since the office is always connected with the State; but the place is a private concern; the office is a place of trust, but the place may be a place for menial labour; the offices are multiplied in time of war; the places for domestick service are more numerous in a state of peace and prosperity. The office is frequently taken not with any reference to the place occupied, but simply to the thing done; this brings it nearer in signification to the term charge (v. Care). An office imposes a task, or some performance;

T is all men's office to speak patience To those that wring under the load of sorrow. SHAKSPEARE.

A charge imposes a responsibility; we have always

something to do in office, always something to look after in a charge; 'Denham was made governour of Farnham Castle for the king, but he soon resigned that charge and retreated to Oxford.'—Johnson. The office is either publick or private, the charge is always of a private and personal nature: a person performs the ffice of a magistrate, or of a minister; he undertakes the charge of instructing youth, or of being a guardian, or of conveying a person's property from one place to another. The office is that which is assigned by another; function is properly the act of discharging or completing an office or business, from fungor, viz. finem and ago to put an end to or bring to a conclusion; it is extended in its acceptation to the office itself or the thing done, in which case the idea of duty pre-dominates, as the functions of a minister of state or of a minister of the gospel; 'The ministry is not now bound to any one tribe; now none is secluded from that function of any degree, state, or calling.'—Whyre-Girt. The office in its strict sense is performed only by conscious or intelligent agents, who act according to their instructions; the function, on the other hand, is sometimes an operation of unconscious objects according to the laws of nature. The office of a herald is to proclaim publick events or to communicate circumstances from one publick body to another: the function of the tongue is to speak; that of the ear, to hear: that of the eye, to see. The word office is sometimes emof the eyc, to see. The word office is sometimes em-ployed in the same application by the personification of proyect in the same apprication by the personincation of nature, which assigns an office to the ear, to the tongue, to the eye, and the like. When the frame becomes overpowered by a sudden shock, the tongue will frequently refuse to perform its office; 'The two offices of memory are collection and distribution.'—Johnson. When the animal functions are impeded for a length of time, the vital power ceases to exist;

Nature within me seems, In all her functions, weary of herself.—MILTON.

PROCEEDING, PROCESS, PROGRESS.

The manner of performing actions for the attainment of a given end is the common idea comprehended in these terms. Proceeding is the most general, as it simply expresses the general idea of the manner of going on; the rest are specifick terms, denoting some particularity in the action, object, or circumstance. The proceeding is said commonly of such things as happen in the ordinary way of doing business; 'What could be more fair, than to lay open to an enemy all that you wished to obtain, and to desire him to imitate your ingenuous proceeding?'—BURKE. Process is said of such things as are done by rule: the former is considered in a moral point of view; the freemasons kave bound themselves together by a law of secrecy not to reveal some part of their proceedings; the process by which paper is made has undergone considerable improvements since its first invention;

Saturnian Juno now, with double care, Attends the fatal process of the war.—DRYDEN.

The proceeding and progress both refer to the moral actions of men; but the proceeding simply denotes the act of going on, or doing something; the progress denotes an approximation to the end: the proceeding may be only a partial action, comprehending both the beginning and the end; but the progress is applied to that which requires time, and a regular succession of action, to bring it to a completion; that is a proceeding in which every man is tried in a court of law; that is a progress which one makes in learning, by the addition to one's knowledge: hence we do not talk of the proceeding of life, but of the progress of life; 'Devotion bestows that enlargement of heart in the service of God, which is the greatest principle both of perserverance and progress in virtue.'—Blair.

PROCEEDING, TRANSACTION.

Proceeding signifies literally the thing that proceeds; and transaction the thing transacted: the former is, therefore, of something that is going forward; the latter of something that is already done: we are witnesses to the whole proceeding; we inquire into the whole transaction. The proceeding is said of every event or circumstance which goes forward through

the agency of men; the transaction only comprehends those matters which have been deliberately transacted or brought to a conclusion: in this sense we use the word proceeding in application to an affray in the street; and the word transaction to some commercial negotiation that has been carried on between certain persons. The proceeding marks the manner of proceeding; as when we speak of the proceedings in a court of law; 'The proceedings of a council of old men in an American tribe, we are told, were no less formal and sagacious than those in a senate in more polished republicks.'—ROBERTSON. The transaction marks the business transacted; as the transactions on the Exchange; 'It was Bothwell's interest to cover, if possible, the whole transaction under the veil of darkness and silence.'—ROBERTSON. A proceeding may be characterized as disgraceful; a transaction as iniquitous.

TRADE, COMMERCE, TRAFFICK, DEALING.

Trade, in Italian tratto, Latin tracto to treat, signifies the transaction of business; commerce, v. Intercourse; traffick, in French traffique, Italian traffice, compounded of tra or trans and facto, signifies to make over from one to another; dealing, from the verb to deal, in German thetlen to divide, signifies to put in parts according to a certain ratio, or at a given ratio.

The leading idea in trade is that of carrying on business for purposes of gain; the rest are but modes of trade is commerce is a mode of trade by exchange: traffick is a sort of personal trade, a sending from hand of trade. Trade is either on a large or small scale; commerce is always on a large scale: we may trade retail or wholesale; we always carry on commerce by wholesale: trade is either within or without the country; commerce is always between different countries: there may be a trade between two towns; but there is a commerce between England and America, between France and Germany; hence it arises that the general term trade is of inferiour import when compared with commerce. The commerce of a country, in the abstract and general sense, conveys more to our mind, and is a more noble expression, than the trade of the country, as the merchant ranks higher than the tradesman, and a commercial house, than a trading concern;

Instructed ships shall sail to quick commerce, By which remotest regions are ally'd; Which makes one city of the universe, Where some may gain, and all may be supply'd.

Nevertheless the word trade may be used in the same general and enlarged sense; 'Trade, without enlarging the British territories, has given us a kind of additional empire.'—Addison. Trade may be altogether domestick, and between neighbours; the traffick is that which goes forward between persons at a distance: in this manner there may be a great traffick between two towns or cities, as between London and the capitals of the different counties;

The line of Ninus this poor comfort brings,
We sell their dust, and traffick for their kings.

DRYDEN.

Trade may consist simply in buying and selling according to a stated valuation; dealings are carried on in matters that admit of a variation: hence we speak of dealers in wool, in corn, seeds, and the like, who buy up portions of these goods, more or less, according to the state of the market.

These terms will also admit of an extended application: hence we speak of the risk of trade, the narrowness of a trading spirit: the commerce of the world, a legal or illicit commerce; to make a traffick of honours, of principles, of places, and the like; plain dealing or underhand dealing.

INTERCOURSE, COMMUNICATION, CONNEXION, COMMERCE.

Intercourse, in Latin intercursus, signifies literally a running between; communication, the act of communicating or having some things in common; connexion is the state of being connected or linked together;

literally an exchange of merchandise and generally an

The intercourse and commerce subsist only between persons; the communication and connexion between persons and things. The intercourse with persons persons and things. The intercourse with persons may be carried on in various forms; either by an intermay be carried on in various forms; either by an inter-change of civilities, which is a friendly intercourse; an exchange of commodities, which is a commercial intercourse; or an exchange of words, which is a verbal and partial intercourse; 'The world is main-tained by intercourse.'—South. The communication, in this sense, is a species of intercourse; namely, that which consists in the communication of one's thoughts to another; 'How happy is an intellectual being, who, by prayer and meditation, opens this communication between God and his own soul.'-Addison. connexion consists of a permanent intercourse, since one who has a regular intercourse for purposes of trade with another is said to have a connexion with him, or to stand in connexion with him. therefore, be a partial intercourse or communication where there is no connexion, nothing to bind or link the parties to each other; but there cannot be a connexion which is not kept up by continual intercourse : 'A very material part of our happiness or misery arises from the connexions we have with those around us.'-BLAIR.

The commerce is a species of general but close intercourse; it may consist either of frequent meeting and regular co-operation, or in cohabitation: in this sense we speak of the commerce of men one with another, or the commerce of man and wife, of parents and children, and the like; 'I should venture to call politeness benevolence in trifles, or the preference of others to ourselves, in little, daily, and hourly occurrences in the commerce of life.'—Chatham.

As it respects things, communication is said of places in the proper sense; connexion is used for things in the proper or improper sense: there is said to be a commu nication between two rooms when there is a passage open from one to the other; one house has a connexion with another when there is a common passage or thoroughfare to them: a communication is kept up between two countries by means of regular or gular conveyances; a connexion subsists between two towns when the inhabitants trade with each other, intermarry, and the like.

INTERCHANGE, EXCHANGE, RECIPROCITY.

Interchange is a frequent and mutual exchange (v. Change); exchange consists of one act only; an interchange consists of many acts: an interchange is raterchange consists of many acts: an interchange is used only in the moral sense; exchange is used mostly in the proper sense, an interchange of civilities keeps alive good will; 'Kindness is preserved by a constant interchange of pleasures.—Johnson. An exchange of commodities is a convenient mode of trade; 'The whole course of nature is a great exchange.'-South.

Interchange is an act; reciprocity is an abstract property: by an interchange of sentiment, friendships are engendered; the reciprocity of good services is what renders them doubly acceptable to those who do them, and to those who receive them; 'The services of the poor, and the protection of the rich, become reciprocally necessary.'-BLAIR.

MUTUAL, RECIPROCAL.

Mutual, in Latin mutuus, from muto to change, sig nifies exchanged so as to be equal or the same on both sides; reciprocal, in Latin reciprocus, from recipio to take back, signifies giving backward and forward by way of return. Mutual supposes a sameness in con dition at the same time: reciprocal supposes an alternation or succession of returns. * Exchange is free and voluntary; we give in exchange, and this action is mutual; return is made either according to law or equity; it is obligatory, and when equally obligatory or each in return it is reciprocal. Voluntary disinter. on each in return it is reciprocal. Voluntary disinterested services rendered to each other are mutual; imposed or merited services, returned from one to the other, are reciprocal: friends render one another mutual services; the services between servants and

* Vide Roubaud: "Mutual, reciproque."

commerce, from com and merz a merchandise, signifies | masters are reciprocal. The husband and wife pledge their faith to each other mutually; they are recipro-cally bound to keep their vow of fidelity. The senti-ment is mutual, the tie is reciprocal. Mutual applies mostly to matters of will and opinion, a mutual affection, a mutual inclination to oblige, a mutual interest for each other's comfort, a mutual concern to avoid that which will displease the other; these are the senti-ments which render the marriage state happy; 'The soul and spirit that animates and keeps up society is mulual trust.'—South. Reciprocal ties, reciprocal bonds, reciprocal rights, reciprocal duties; these are what every one ought to bear in mind as a member of society, that he may expect of no man more than what in equity he is disposed to return; 'Life cannot subsist in society but by reciprocal concessions.'—Johnson. Mutual applies to nothing but what is personal; reci-procal is applied to things remote from the idea of personality, as reciprocal verbs, reciprocal terms, reciprocal relations, and the like.

TO CHANGE, EXCHANGE, BARTER, SUBSTITUTE.

Change, v. To change, alter; exchange is com-pounded of e or ex and change, signifying to change in the place of another; barter is supposed to come from the French barater, a sea term for indemnification, and also for circumvention; hence it has derived the meaning of a mercenary exchange; substitute, in French substitut, Latin substitutus, from sub and statuo, signifies to place one thing in the room of another.

The idea of putting one thing in the place of another is common to all these terms, which vary in the manner and the object. Change is the generick, the rest are specifick terms: whatever is exchanged, bartered, or substituted, is changed; but not vice versa. Change is applied in general to things of the same kind, or of different kinds; exchange to articles of property or possession; barter to all articles of merchandise; sub-stitute to all matters of service and office.

Things rather than persons are the proper objects for changing and exchanging, although whatever one has a control over may be changed or exchanged; a king may change his ministers; governments exchange prisoners of war. Things only are the proper objects for barter; but, to the shame of humanity, there are to be found people who will barter their countrymen. and even their relatives, for a paltry trinket.

Substituting may either have persons or things for an object; one man may be substituted for another, or

one word substituted for another.

The act of changing or substituting requires but one person for an agent; that of exchanging and bartering requires two: a person changes his things or substitutes one for another; but one person exchanges

or barters with another. Change is used likewise intransitively, the others always transitively; things change of themselves, but persons always exchange, barter, or substitute things. Changing is not advisable, it is seldom advantageous; there is a greater chance of changing for the worse, than for the better; it is set on foot by caprice oftener than by prudence and necessity;

Those who beyond sea go will sadly find They change their climate only, not their mind.

Exchanging is convenient, it is founded not so much on the intrinsic value of things, as their relative utility to the parties concerned; its end is mutual accommo dation; 'Our English merchant converts the tin of his own country into gold, and exchanges its wool for rubies.'—Addison. Bartering is profitable; it proceeds upon a principle of mercantile calculation; the productiveness, and not the worth of the thing is considered; its main object is gain;

If the great end of being can be lost, And thus perverted to the worst of crimes; Let us shake off deprav'd humanity, Exchange conditions with the savage brute, And for his blameless instinct barter reason.

Substituting is a matter of necessity; it springs from the necessity of supplying a deficiency by some equivalent; it serves for the accommodation of the party whose place is filled up; 'Let never insulted beauty admit a second time into her presence the wretch who has once attempted to ridicule religion, and to substitute other aids to human frailty."—HAWKESWORTH.

In the figurative application these terms bear the same analogy to each other. A person changes his opinions; but a proneness to such changes evinces a want of firmness in the character. The good king at his death exchanges a temporal for an eternal crown. The mercenary trader barters his conscience for paltry pelf. Men of dogmatical tempers substitute assertion for proof, and abuse for argument.

TO EXCHANGE, BARTER, TRUCK, COMMUTE.

To exchange (v. To change) is the general term signifying to take one for another, or put one thing in the place of another; the rest are but modes of exchanging; to barter (v. To change) is to exchange one article of trade for another; to truck, from the Greek ropxide to wheel, signifying to bandy about, is a familiar term to express a familiar action for exchanging one article of private property for another; commute, from the Latin syllable com or contra and muto to change, signifies an exchanging one mode of punishment for another. We may exchange one book for another, or one moral object for another;

Pleasure can be exchanged only for pleasure.

Traders barter trinkets for gold dust; so also in the figurative sense men barter their consciences for gold; 'Some men are willing to barter their blood for lucre.'

—BURKE. Coachmen or stablemen truck a whip for a handkerchief;

Shows all her secrets of house-keeping,

For candles how she trucks her dripping.—Swift.

The government commute the punishment of death for that of banishment; 'Henry levied upon his vassals in Normandy a sum of money in lieu of their service, and this commutation, by reason of the great distance, was still more advantageous to his English vassals.'—Hums.

TO BUY, PURCHASE, BARGAIN, CHEAPEN.

Buy, in Saxon byggean, is in all probability connected with bargain; purchase, in French pourchasser, like the word pursue, poursuive, comes from the Latin persequer, signifying to obtain by a particular effort; bargain, in Welch barggen, is most probably connected with the German bargen to borrow, and bargea surely; cheepen is in Saxon ceapan, German kaufen, Dutch koopen to buy, &c.

Buy and purchase have a strong resemblance to each other, both in sense and application; but the latter is a term of more refinement than the former: buy may always be substituted for purchase without impropriety; but purchase would be sometimes ridiculous in the familiar application of buy; the necessaries of

life are bought; luxuries are purchased.

The characteristick idea of buying is that of expending money according to a certain rule, and for a particular purpose; that of purchasing is the procuring the thing; the propensity of buying whatever comes in one's way is very injurious to the circumstances of some people; 'It gives me very great scandal to observe, wherever I go, how much skill, in buying all manner of things, there is necessary to defend yourself from being cheated.'—Sperle. What it is not convenient to procure for ourselves, we may commission another to purchase for us; so in the figurative acceptation we may purchase our pleasures at a dear rate;

Pirates may make cheap pennyworths of their pillage And purchase friends.—SHAKSPEARE.

Buying implies simply the exchange of one's money for a commodity; bargaining and cheapening have likewise respect to the price: to bargain is to make a specifick agreement as to the price;

So York must sit, and fret, and bite his tongue, While his own lands are bargain'd for, and sold. Sharspeare.

To cheapen is not only to lower the price asked, but to deal in such things as are cheap: trade is supported

by buyers; bargainers and cheapeners are not acceptable customers: mean people are prone to bargaining; poor people are obliged to cheapen; 'You may see many a smart rhetorician turning his hat in his hands, moulding it into several different cocks, examining sometimes the blining, and sometimes the button, during the whole course of his harangue. A deaf man would think he was cheapening a beaver, when perhaps he is talking of the fate of the British nation.'—Addition

ARTICLE, CONDITION, TERM.

Article, in French article, Latin articulus a joint or a part of a member; condition, in French condition, Latin condition, from condo to build or form, signifies properly the thing framed; term, in French terme, Latin terminus a boundary, signifies the point to which one is fixed.

These words agree in their application to matters of compact, or understanding between man and man. Article and condition are used in both numbers; terms only in the plural in this sense: the former may be used for any point individually; the latter for all the points collectively: article is employed for all matters which are drawn out in specifick articles or points; as the articles of an indenture, of a capitulation, or an agreement. Condition respects any point that is admitted as a ground of obligation or engagement: it is used for the general transactions of men, in which they reciprocally bind themselves to return certain equivalents. The word terms is employed in regard to mercantile transactions; as the terms of any bargain, the terms of any agreement, the terms on which any thing is bought or sold.

Articles are mostly voluntary; they are admitted by mutual agreement: conditions are frequently compulsory, sometimes hard; they are submitted to from policy or necessity: terms are dictated by interest or equity; they are fair, or undari, according to the temper of the parties; they are submitted or agreed to. Articles are drawn up between parties who have to co-operate; 'In the mean time, they have ordered the preliminary treaty to be published, with observations on each article, in order to quiet the minds of the people.'—Streel. Men undertake particular offices on condition of receiving a stipulated remuneration

The Trojan by his word is bound to take The same conditions which himself did make.

did make. Drypen.

Men enter into dealings with each other on definite and

precise terms;

Those mountains fill'd with firs, that lower land,
If you consent, the Trojans shall command;

Call'd into part of what is ours, and there, On terms agreed, the common country share.

ry snare. Dryden

Clergymen subscribe to the articles of the established church before they are admitted to perform its sacred functions; in so doing they are presumed to be free agents; but they are not free to siverve from these articles while they remain in the church, and receive its emoluments: in all auctions there are certain conditions with which all must comply who wish to receive the benefits of the sale; in the time of war it is the business of the victor to prescribe terms to the vanquished; with the latter it is a matter of prudence whether they shall be accepted or rejected.

TRADER, MERCHANT, TRADESMAN.

Trader signifies in general any one who deals in goods, whether in a large or a small way, and is used therefore in the most extended sense;

Now the victory's won, We return to our lasses like fortunate traders, Triumphant with spoils.—DRYDEN.

Merchant signifies one dealing in foreign merchandise, and, for the most part, in a large way;

France hath flaw'd the league, and hath attach'd Our merchants' goods at Bourdeaux.—SHAKSPEARE. Hence these two terms may be used in contradistinction to each other; 'Many traders will necessitate merchants to trade for less profit, and consequently he more frugal.'—CHID (On Trade). A tradesman is a

retail dealer who commonly exposes his goods in a publick shop; 'From a plain tradesman in a shop, he is now grown a very rich country gentleman.'—ARBUTHNOT.

ARTIST, ARTISAN, ARTIFICER, MECHANICK.

Artist is a practiser of the fine arts; artisan is a practiser of the vulgar arts; artificer, from ars and facto, is one who does or makes according to art; mechanick is an artisan in the mechanick arts.

The wrist ranks higher than the artisan: the former requires intellectual refinement in the exercise of his art; the latter requires nothing but to know the general rules of his art. The musician, painter, and sculptor are artists; if ever this country saw an age of artists, it is the present; her painters, sculptors, and engravers are now the only schools properly so cailed. Cumberland. The carpenter, the sign-painter, and the blacksmith are artisans; 'The merchant, tradesman, and artisan will have their profit upon all the multiplied wants, comforts, and indulgences of civilized life. Cumberland. The artisficer is an intermediate term between the artist and the artisan: manufacturers are artificers; and South, in his sermons, calls the Author of the universe the great Artificer; 'Man must be in a certain degree the artificer of his own happiness; the tools and materials may be put into his hands by the bounty of Providence, but the workmanship must be his own. Cumberland. The mechanick is that species of artisan who works at arts purely mechanical, in distinction from those which contribute to the completion and embelishment of any objects; on this ground a shoemaker is a mechanick, but a common painter is a simple artisan; 'The concurring assent of the world in preferring gentlemen to mechanicks seems founde in that preference which the rational part of our nature is entitled to above the animal.—Bartlett.

WRITER, PENMAN, SCRIBE.

Writer is an indefinite term; every one who writes is called a writer; but none are penmen but such as are expert at their pen. Many who profess to teach writing are themselves but sorry writers: the best penmen are not always the best teachers of writing. The scribe is one who writes for the purpose of copying: he is therefore an official writer.

WRITER, AUTHOR.

Writer refers us to the act of writing; author to the act of inventing. There are therefore many writers, who are not authors; but there is no author of books who may not be termed a writer; compilers and contributors to periodical works are writers, but not authors. Poets and historians are more properly termed authors than writers.

FARMER, HUSBANDMAN, AGRICULTURIST.

Farmer, from the Saxon feorm food, signifies one managing a farm, or cultivating the ground for a subsistence:

To check this plague, the skilful farmer chaff And blazing straw before his orchard burns. Thomson.

Husbandman is one following husbandry, that is, the tillage of land by manual labour; the farmer, therefore conducts the concern, and the husbandman labours under his direction;

Old husbandmen I at Sabinum know, Who, for another year, dig, plough, and sow.

Agriculturist, from the Latin ager a field, and cole to till, signifies any one engaged in the art of cultivation. The furmer is always a practitioner; the agriculturist may be a mere theorist: the furmer follows husbandry solely as a means of living; the agriculturist follows it as a science: the former tills the land upon given admitted principles; the latter frames new principles, or alters those that are established. Between the furmer and the agriculturist there is the same difference as between practice and theory: the former may be as:

sisted by the latter, so long as they can go hand in hand; but in the case of a collision, the farmer will be of more service to himself and his country than the agriculturist: farming brings immediate profit from personal service; agriculture may only promise future, and consequently contingent, advantages; 'An improved and improving agriculture, which implies a great augmentation of labour, has not yet found itself at a stand.'—Burke.

RURAL, RUSTICK.

Although both these terms, from the Latin rus country, signify belonging to the country; yet the former is used in a good, and the latter in a bad or an indifferent sense. Rural applies to all country objects, except man; it is, therefore, always connected with the charms of nature: rustick applies only to persons, or what is personal, in the country, and is, therefore, always associated with the want of culture. Rural scenery is always interesting; but the rustick manners of the peasants have frequently too much that is uncultivated and rude in them to be agreeable: a rural habitation may be fitted for persons in a higher station;

E'en now, methinks, as pondering here I stand, I see the rural virtues leave the land.

Goldsmith

A rustick cottage is adapted only for the poorer inhapitants of the country; 'The freedom and laxity of & rustick life produces remarkable particularities of conduct.'—Johnson.

COUNTRYMAN, PEASANT, SWAIN, HIND, RUSTICK, CLOWN.

Countryman, that is, a man of the country, or one belonging to the country, is the general term appli cable to all inhabiting the country, in distinction from a townsman; peasant, in French paysan, from pays, is employed in the same sense for any countryman among the inhabitants of the Continent, and is in consequence used in poetry or the grave style; svain in the Saxon signified a labourer, but it has acquired, from its use in poetry, the higher signification of a shepherd; hind may in all probability signify one who is in the back ground, an inferiour; rustick, from rus the country, signifies one born and bred in the country; clown, contracted from colonus a husbandman, signifies of course a menial in the country.

All these terms are employed as epithets to persons, and principally to such as live in the country: the term countryman is taken in an indifferent sense, and may comprehend persons of different descriptions; it designates nothing more than habitual residence in the country; 'Though considering my former condition, I may now be called a countryman: yet you cannot call me a rustick (as you would inply in your letter) as long as I live in so civil and noble a family.'—Howell. The other terms are employed for the lower orders of countrymen, but with collateral ideas favourable or unfavourable annexed to them. The peasant is a countryman who follows rural occupations for a livelihood. He is commonly considered as a labourer, and contracted, in his education; 'If by the poor measures and proportions of a man we may take an estimate of this great action (our Saviour's coming in the flesh), we shall quickly find how irksome it is to flesh and hlood "to have been happy," to descend some steps lower, to exchange the estate of a prince for that of a peasant.'—South. Swain, hind, both convey the idea of innocence in an humble station, and are therefore always employed in poetry in a good sense;

As thus the snows arise, and foul and fierce All winter drives along the darken'd air, In his own loose revolving fields the swain Disastered stands.—'Thomson.

The lab'ring hind his oxen shall disjoin.

DRYDEN.

Rustick and clown both convey the idea of that un couth rudeness and ignorance which is in reality found among the lowest orders of countrymen;

In arguing too the parson own'd his skill, For ev'n tho' vanquish'd he could argue still; While words of learned length and thundering sound

Amaz'd the gazing rusticks rang'd around.

GOLDSMITH.

Th' astonish'd mother finds a vacant nest, By the hard hand of unrelenting clowns Robb'd.—Thomson.

CULTIVATION, TILLAGE, HUSBANDRY.

Cultivation has a much more comprehensive meaning than either tillage or husbandry;

O softly swelling hills
On which the power of cultivation lies,
And joys to see the wonders of his toil.
THOMSON.

Tillage is a mode of cultivation that extends no farther than the preparation of the ground for the reception of the seed; cultivation includes the whole process by which the produce of the earth is brought to maturity. We may till without cultivating, but we cannot cultivate, as far as respects the soil, without tillage; 'The south-east parts of Britain had already before the age of Cæsar made the first and most requisite step towards a civil settlement; and the Britons by tillage and agriculture had there increased to a great multitude.'—Hume. Husbandry is more extensive in its meaning than tillage, but not so extensive as cultivation; 'We find an image of the two states, the contemplative and the active, figured out in the persons of Abel and Cain, by the two primitive trades, that of the shepherd and that of the husbandman.'—Bacon.

Tillage respects the act only of tilling the ground; husbandry is employed for the office of cultivating for domestick purposes. A cultivator is a general term, defined only by the object that is cultivated, as the cultivator of the grape, or the olive; a tiller is a labourer in the soil who performs that office for another; a kusbandman is an humble species of cultivator, who himself performs the whole office of cultivating the ground for domestick purposes.

SEAMAN, WATERMAN, SAILOR, MARINER, BOATMAN, FERRYMAN.

All these words denote persons occupied in navigation; the seaman, as the word implies, follows bis business on the sea; the waterman is one who gets his live-lihood on fresh water; "Many a lawyer who makes but an indifferent figure at the bar might have made a very elegant waterman."—SOUTH. The sailor and the mariner are both specifick terms to designate the seaman; every sailor and mariner is a seaman; although every seaman is not a sailor or mariner; the former is one who is employed about the laborious part of the vessel; the latter is one who traverses the ocean to and fro, who is attached to the water and passes his life upon it.

Men of all ranks are denominated seamen, whether officers or men, whether in a merchantman or in a king's ship;

Thus the toss'd seaman, after boist'rous storms, Lands on his country's breast.—LEE.

Sailor is only used for the common men, or, in the sea phrase, for those before the mast, particularly in vessels of war; hence our sailors and soldiers are spoken of as the defenders of our country;

Through storms and tempests so the sailor drives.

A mariner is an independent kind of seaman who manages his own vessel and goes on an expedition on his own account; fishermen and those who trade along the coast are in a particular manner distinguished by the name of mariners;

Welcome to me, as to a sinking mariner The lucky plank that bears him to the shore.

LEE.

Waterman, boatman, and ferryman are employed for persons who are engaged with boats; but the term waterman is specifically applied to such whose business it is to let out their boats and themselves for a given time; the boatman may use a boat only occa-

sionally for the transfer of goods; a ferryman uses a boat only for the conveyance of persons or goods across a particular river or piece of water.

MARITIME, MARINE, NAVAL, NAUTICAL.

Maritime and marine, from the Latin mare a sen, signifies belonging to the sea; naval, from navis a ship, signifies belonging to a ship; and nautical, from nauta a sailor, signifies belonging to a sailor, or to navigation.

Countries and places are denominated maritime from their proximity to the sea, or their great intercourse by sea; hence England is called the most maritime nation in Europe; 'Octavianus reduced Lepidus to a necessity to beg his life, and be content to lead the remainder of it in a mean condition at Circeii, a small maritime town among the Latins: —Pridzanx. Marine is a technical term, employed by persons in office, to denote that which is officially transacted with regard to the sea in distinction from what passes on land: hence we speak of the marines as a species of soldiers acting by sea, of the marines ociety, or marine stores; 'A man of a very grave aspect required notice to be given of his intention to set out on a certain day on a submarine youge.'—Johnson.

marine voyage."—Jonnson.

Naval is another term of art as opposed to military, and used in regard to the arrangements of government or commerce: hence we speak of naval affairs, naval officers, naval tacticks, and the like; 'Sextus Pompey having together such a naval force as made up 350 vessels, seized Sicily."—PRIDEAUX. Nautical is a scientifick term, connected with the science of navigation or the management of vessels; hence we talk of nautical instruction, of nautical calculations; 'He elegantly showed by whom he was drawn, which depainted the nautical compass with aut magnes, aut magna."—Camden. The maritime laws of England are essential for the preservation of the naval power which it has so justly acquired. The marine of England is one of its glories. The naval administration is one of the most important branches of our government in the time of war. Nautical tables, and nautical almanacks have been expressly formed for the benefit of all who apply themselves to nautical subjects.

MARTIAL, WARLIKE. MILITARY, SOLDIER-LIKE.

Martial, from Mars, the god of war, is the Latin term for belonging to war: wartike signifies literally like war, having the image of war. In sense these terms approach so near to each other, that they may be easily admitted to supply each other's place; but custom, the lawgiver of language, has assigned an office to each that makes it not altogether indifferent how they are used. Martial is both a technical and a more comprehensive term than wartike; on the other hand, wartike designates the temper of the individual more than martial: we speak of martial array, martial preparations, martial law, a court martial;

An active prince, and prone to martial deeds.

DRYDEN.

We speak of a warlike nation, meaning a nation who is fond of war; a warlike spirit or temper, also a warlike appearance, inasmuch as the temper is visible in the air and carriage of a man;

Last from the Volscians fair Camilla came, And led her warlike troops, a warriour dame. DRYDEN.

Military, from miles a soldier, signifies belonging to a soldier, and soldier-like like a soldier. Military in comparison with martial is a term of particular import; martial having always a reference to war in general, and military to the proceedings consequent upon that: hence we speak of military in distinction from naval, as military expeditions, military movements, and the like; 'The Tlascalans were, like all unpolished nations, strangers to military order and discipline.'—Robertson. In characterizing the men, we should say that they had a martial appearance; but in speaking of a particular place, we should say it had a military appearance, if there were many soldiers in it.

Military, compared with soldier-like, is used for the

body, and the latter for the individual. The whole army is termed the military: the conduct of an individual is soldier-like or otherwise; 'The fears of the Spaniards led them to presumptuous and unsoldier-like discussions concerning the propriety of their general's measures.'-ROBERTSON.

TO PAINT, DEPICT, DELINEATE, SKETCH.

Paint and depict both come from the Latin pingo, to represent forms and figures: as a verb to paint is either literally to represent figures on paper, or to re-present circumstances and events by means of words; to depict is used only in this latter sense, but the former word expresses a greater exercise of the imagination than the latter: it is the art of the poet to paint nature in lively colours: it is the art of the historian or narrator to depict a real scene of misery in strong colours. As nouns, painting rather describes the action or operation, and picture the result.

When we speak of a good painting, we think par-ticularly of its execution as to drapery, disposition of

colours, and the like;

The painting is almost the natural man, He is but outside. - SHAKSPEARE.

When we speak of a fine picture, we refer immediately to the object represented, and the impression which it is capable of producing on the beholder; 'A picture is a poem without words.'—Addison. Paintings are confined either to oil paintings or paintings in colours: but every drawing, whether in pencil, in crayons, or in India ink, may produce a picture; and we have like-wise pictures in embroidery, pictures in tapestry, and pictures in Mosaic

Delineate, in Latin delineatus participle of delineo, signifies literally to draw the lines which include the contents; sketch is in the German skizze, Italian

schizza

Both these terms are properly employed in the art of drawing, and figuratively applied to moral subjects to express a species of descriptions: a delineation expresses something more than a sketch; the former con veying not merely the general outlines or more promi nent features, but also as much of the details as would serve to form a whole; the latter, however, seldom contains more than some broad touches, by which an

imperfect idea of the subject is conveyed.

A delineation therefore may be characterized as accurate, and a sketch as hasty or imperfect: an attentive observer who has passed some years in a country may be enabled to give an accurate delineation of the laws, customs, manners, and character of its inha-bitants: When the Spaniards first arrived in America expresses were sent to the emperor of Mexico in paint ing, and the news of his country delineated by the strokes of a pencil.—Addison. A traveller who merely passes through a country can give only a hasty nevery passes inrough a country can give only a masy sketch from what passes before his eyes; 'Sketch out a rough draught of my country, that I may be able to judge whether a return to it be really eligible.'—ATTER-BURY.

SKETCH, OUTLINES.

A sketch may form a whole; outlines are but a part: the sketch may comprehend the outlines and some of the particulars; outlines, as the term bespeaks, com-prehend only that which is on the exteriour surface: the sketch in drawing, may serve as a landscape, as it presents some of the features of a country; but the outlines serve only as bounding lines, within which the sketch may be formed. So in the moral applica-tion we speak of the sketches of countries, characters. manners, and the like, which serve as a description but of the outlines of a plan, of a work, a project, and the like, which serve as a basis on which the subordi nate parts are to be formed: barbarous nations present as with rude sketches of nature; an abridgment is little more than the outlines of a larger work;

In few, to close the whole, The moral muse has shadow'd out a sketch Of most our weakness needs believe or do.

This is the outline of the fable (King Lear).'-JOHNSON.

ASTRONOMY, ASTROLOGY.

Astronomy is compounded of the Greek asho and νόμος, signifying the laws of the stars, or a knowledge of their laws; astrology, from $\dot{\alpha}_S \dot{\eta} \rho$ and $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \gamma \sigma_S$, signifies a reasoning on the stars.

The * astronomer studies the course and movement of the stars; the astrologer reasons on their influence.

The former observes the state of the heavens, marks the order of time, the eclipses and the revolutions which arise out of the established laws of motion in which arise out of the established laws of motion in the immense universe: the latter predicts events, draws horoscopes, and announces all the vicissitudes of rain and snow, heat and cold, &cc. The astronomer calculates and seldom errs, as his calculations are built on fixed rules and actual observations; the astrologer deals in conjectures, and his imagination often deceives him. The astronomer explains what he knows, and merits the esteem of the learned; the astrologer hazards what he thinks, and seeks to please.

A thirst for knowledge leads to the study of astronomy: an inquietude about the future has given rise to astrology. Many important results for the arts of navigation, agriculture, and of civil society in general, have been drawn from astronomical researches: many serious and mischievous effects have been produced on the minds of the ignorant, from their faith in the dreams

of the astrologer.

FACTOR, AGENT.

Though both these terms, according to their origin, imply a maker or doer, yet, at present, they have a distinct signification: the word factor is used in a limited, and the word agent in a general sense: the factor only buys and sells on the account of others; 'Their devotion (that is of the puritanical rebels) served all along but as an instrument to their avarice, as a factor or under agent to their extortion.'—South. The agent transacts every sort of business in general; No expectations, indeed, were then formed from renewing a direct application to the French regicides through the agent general for the humiliation of sovereigns.'-BURKE. Merchants and manufacturers employ factors abroad to dispose of goods transmitted: lawyers are frequently employed as agents in the re-ceipt and payment of money, the transfer of estates, and various other pecuniary concerns.

FREIGHT, CARGO, LADING, LOAD, BURDEN.

Freight, through the northern languages in all probability comes from the Latin fero to bring, signifying the thing brought; cargo, in French cargaison, probably a variation from carriage, is employed for all the contents of a vessel, with the exception of the persons that it carries; lading and load (in German laden to load), comes most probably from the word last a burden, signifying the burden or weight imposed upon any carriage; burden, which through the medium of the northern languages, comes from the Greek φόρτος, and φέρω to carry, conveys the idea of weight which is borne by the vessel.

A captain speaks of the freight of his ship as that which is the object of his voyage, by which all who are interested in it are to make their profit; the value and nature of the freight are the first objects of consideration: he speaks of the lading as the thing which is to fill thes hip; the quantity, and weight of the lading, are to be taken into the consideration: he speaks of the cargo as that which goes with the ship, and belongs as it were to the ship; the amount of the cargo is that which is first thought of: he speaks of the burden as that which his vessel will bear; it is the property of

the ship which is to be estimated.

The ship-broker regulates the freight: the captain and the crew dispose the lading. the agent sees to the disposal of the cargo; the ship-builder determines the burden; the carrier looks to the load which he has to carry. The freight must consist of such merchandise as will pay for the transport and risk: the lading must such things as can be most conveniently consist of stowed; the value of a cargo depends not only on the nature of the commodity, but the market to which it is carried; the burden of a vessel is estimated by the number of tons which it can carry. Freight and

* Abbe Girard: " Astronomie, Astrologue."

burden may sometimes be used in a figurative appli- has its commodities; a shopkeeper his goods; a mer cation:

Haste, my dear father ('t is no time to wait) And load my shoulders with a willing freight. DRYDEN.

The surging air receives Its plumy burden .- Thomson.

MERCANTILE, COMMERCIAL.

Mercantile, from merchandise, respects the actual transaction of business, or a transfer of merchandise by sale or purchase; commercial comprehends the theory and practice of commerce; hence we speak in a peculiar manner of a mercantile house, a mercantile town, a mercantile situation, and the like; 'Such is the happiness, the hope of which seduced me from the duties and pleasures of a mercantile life.'-Johnson. But of a commercial education, a commercial people, commercial speculations, and the like; 'The comm cial world is very frequently put into confusion by the bankruptcy of merchants.'—Johnson.

VENAL, MERCENARY, HIRELING.

Venal, from the Latin venalis, signifies saleable or ready to be sold, which, applied as it commonly is to persons, is a much stronger term than mercenary. A venal man gives up all principle for interest; a mer cenary man seeks his interest without regard to principle: venal writers are such as write in tayour of the cause that can promote them to riches or honours; a servant is commonly a mercenary who gives his services according as he is paid: those who are loudest in their professions of political purity are the best subjects for a minister to make venal .

The minister, well pleas'd at small expense To silence so much rude impertinence With squeeze and whisper yields to his demands, And on the venal list enroll'd he stands.—JENYNS.

mercenary spirit is engendered in the minds of those ho devote themselves exclusively to trade; 'For heir assistance they repair to the northern steel, and fring in an unnatural, mercenary crew.'-South.

Hireling from hire, and mercenary from merz wages,

are applied to any one who follows a sordid employment; but hireling may sometimes be taken in its proper and less reproachful sense, for one who is hired as a servant to perform an allotted work; but in general they are both reproachful epithets: the former having particular reference to the meanness of the employment, and the latter to the sordid character of the person. Hireling prints are those which are in the pay of a Hireting prints are those which are in the pay of a party; 'It was not his carrying the bag which made Judas a thief and a hireting.'—South. A mercenary principle will sometimes actuate men in the highest station; 'These soldiers were not citizens, but mercenary, sordid deserters.'—Burke.

COMMODITY, GOODS, MERCHANDISE, WARE.

These terms agree in expressing articles of trade under various circumstances.

Commodity, in Latin commoditas, signifies in its abstract sense convenience, and in an extended application the thing that is convenient or fit for use, which being also saleable, the word has been employed for the thing that is sold; goods, which denotes the thing that is good, has derived its use from the same analogy in its sense us in the former case; merchandise, in French marchandise, Latin mercatura or merx, Hebrew מבר to sell, signifies a saleable matter: ware, in Saxon ware, German, &c. waare, signifies properly any thing manufactured, and, by an extension of the sense, an article for sale.

Commodity is employed only for articles of the first necessity; it is the source of comfort and object of in-Goods is applied to every thing belonging to tradesmen, for which there is a stipulated value: they are sold retail, and are the proper objects of trade. Merchandise applies to what belongs to merchants; it is the object of commerce. Wares are manufactured, A country and may be either goods or merchandise.

chant his merchandise; a manufacturer his wares.

The most important commodities in a country are

what are denominated staple commodities, which constitute its main riches: yet, although England has fewer of such commodities than almost any other nation, it has been enabled, by the industry and energy of its inhabitants, the peculiar excellence of its government, and its happy insular situation, not only to obtain the commodities of other countries, but to increase their number, for the convenience of the whole world and its own aggrandizement: 'Men must have made some considerable progress towards civilization before some considerable progress towards civilization before they acquired the idea of property so as to be acquainted with the most simple of all contracts, that of exchanging by barter one rude commodity for another.'-ROBERTSON. It is the interest of every tradesman to provide himself with such goods as he can recommend to his customers; the proper choice of which depends on judgement and experience; 'It gives me very great scandal to observe, wherever I go, how much skill in buying all manner of goods there is necessary to defend yourself from being cheated.'—Steele. The conveyance of merchandise into England is always attended with considerable risk, as they must be transported by water: on the continent it is very slow and expensive, as they are generally transported by land; 'If we consider this expensive voyage, which is undertaken in search of knowedge, and how few there are who take in any considerable merchandise; how hard is it, that the very small number who are distinguished with abilities to know how to vend their wares, should suffer being plundered by privateers under the very cannon that should protect them !'-Appison. All kinds of wares are not the most saleable commodities, but earthen ware claims a preference over every other.

GOODS, FURNITURE, CHATTELS, MOVE-ABLES, EFFECTS.

All these terms are applied to such things as belong to an individual; the first term is the most general both in sense and application; all the rest are species.

Furniture comprehends all household goods; where Furtiture compenents an nonsenou goods; where fore in regard to an individual, supposing the house to contain all he has, the general is put for the specifick term, as when one speaks of a person's moving his goods for his furniture: but in the strict sense goods comprehends more than furniture, including not only that which is adapted for the domestick purposes of a family, but also every thing which is of value to a person: the chairs and tables are a part of furniture; papers, books, and money are included among his goods; it is obvious, therefore, that goods, even in its most limited sense, is of wider import than furniture; 'Now I give up my shop and dispose of all my poetical goods at once; I must therefore desire that the publick would please to take them in the gross, and that every body would turn over what he does not like.'—PRIOR. 'Considering that your houses, your place and furni-ture, are not suitable to your quality, I conceive that your expense ought to be reduced to two-thirds of your estate.'- WENTWORTH.

Chattels, which is probably changed from cattle, is a term not in ordinary use, but still sufficiently employed to deserve notice. It comprehends that species of goods which is in a special manner separated from one's person and house; a man's cattle, his implements of husbandry, the alienable rights which he has in land or buildings, are all comprehended under chattels; hence the propriety of the expression to seize a man's goods and chattels, as denoting the disposable property which he has about his person or at a distance. Some-times this word is used in the singular number, and also in the figurative;

Honour's a lease for lives to come, And cannot be extended from The legal tenant; 't is a chattel Not to be forfeited in battle.-HUDIBRAS.

Moveables comprehends all the other terms in the limited application to property, as far as it admits of being removed from one place to the other; it is opposed either to fixtures, when speaking of furniture, or to land as contrasted to goods and rhattels; 'There can be no doubt but that moveables of every kind become sooner appropriated than the permanent, sub-

Stantial soil.'—BLACKSTONE.

Effects is a term of nearly as extensive a signification as goods, but not so extensive in application: whatever a man has that is of any supposed value, or Convertible into money, is entitled his goods; whatever a man has that can effect, produce, or bring forth money by sale, is entitled his effects; goods therefore is applied only to that which a man has at his own uisposal; effects more properly to that which is left at the disposal of others. A man makes a sale of his goods on his removal from any place; his creditors or executors take care of his effects either on his bankruptcy or decease: goods, in this case, is seldom employed but in the limited sense of what is removeable; but effects includes every thing personal, freehold, and copyhold;
The laws of bankruptcy compel the bankrupt to give up all his effects to the use of the creditors without any concealment.'—BLACKSTONE.

GOODS, POSSESSIONS, PROPERTY.

All these terms are applicable to such things as are the means of enjoyment; but the former term respects the direct quality of producing enjoyment, the latter two have regard to the subject of the enjoyment: we consider goods as they are real or imaginary, adapted consuler goods as they are reat of imaginary, adapted or not adapted for the producing of real happiness; those who abound in the goods of this world are not always the happiest; 'The worldling attaches himself wholly to what he reckons the only solid goods, the possession of riches and influence.'—BLAIR. Possespossession of riches and influence.—DARK. Possessions must be regarded as they are lasting or temporary; he who is anxious for earthly possessions forgets that they are but transitory and dependent upon a thousand contingencies; 'While worldly men enlarge their possessions, and extend their connexions, they imagine they are strengthening themselves.'-BLAIR. Property is to be considered as it is legal or illegal, just or unjust; those who are anxious for great property are not always scrupulous about the means by which it is to be obtained.

> For numerous blessings yearly shower'd, And property with plenty crown'd, Accept our pious praise.—DRYDEN.

The purity of a man's Christian character is in danger from an overweaning attachment to earthly goods; no wise man will boast the multitude of his possescions, when he reflects that if they do not leave him, the time is not far distant when he must leave them: the validity of one's claim to property which comes by inheritance is better founded than any other.

RICHES, WEALTH, OPULENCE, AFFLUENCE.

Riches, in German reichthum, from reiche a kingdom, comes from the Latin rego to rule; because riches and power are intimately connected; wealth, from well, signifies well being; opulence, from the Latin opes riches, denotes the state of having riches; affluence, from the Latin ad and fluo, denotes either the act of riches flowing in to a person, or the state of having riches to flow in.

Riches is a general term denoting any considerable share of property, but without immediate reference to a possessor; wealth denotes the prosperous condition the possessor; opulence characterizes the present of the possessor; opulence characterizes the present possession of great riches; affluence denotes the increasing wealth of the individual. Riches is a condition opposed to poverty; the whole world is divided into rich and poor; Riches are apt to betray a man into arrogance. — Addison. Wealth is that positive and substantial share in the goods of fortune which distinguish an individual from his neighbours, by states this in progression of all that is constant. putting him in possession of all that is commonly de sired and sought after by man;

His best companions innocence and health, And his best riches ignorance of wealth. GOLDSMITH.

He who has much money has great wealth:

Along the lawn where scatter'd hamlets rose, Unwieldly wealth and cumb'rous pomp repose GOLDSMITH. Opulence is likewise a positively great share of richts, but refers rather to the external possessions, than to the whole condition of the man. He who has much land, much cattle, many houses, and the like, is properly denominated opulent; 'Our Saviour did not choose for himself an easy and opulent condition.'— BLAIR. Affluence is a term pechliarly applicable to the fluctuating condition of things which flow in in quantities, or flow away in equally great quantities; 'Prostities, or flow away in equally great quantities; 'Prosperity is often an equivocal word denoting merely affuence of possession.'—Blare. Hence we do not say that a man is opulent, but that he is affluent in his circumstances.

Wealth and opulence are applied to individuals, or communities: affluence is applicable only to an indi-vidual. The wealth of a nation must be procured by the industry of the inhabitants; the opulence of a town may arise from some local circumstance in its favour, as its favourable situation for trade and the like; he who lives in affluence is apt to forget the uncertain tenure by which he holds his rickes; we speak of rickes as to their effects upon men's minds and manners; it is not every one who knows how to use them. We speak of wealth as it raises a man in the scale of society; the wealthy merchant is an important member of the community: we speak of opulence as it indicates the flourishing state of the individual: an opulent man shows unquestionable marks of his opulence around him: we speak of affluence to characterize the abundance of the individual; we show our affluence by the style of our living.

MONEY, CASH.

Money comes from the Latin moneta, which signt fied stamped coin, from moneo to advise, to inform of its value, by means of an inscription or stamp; cash, from the French caisse a chest, signifies that which is put in a chest.

* Money is applied to every thing which serves as a circulating medium: cash is, in a strict sense, put for coin only: bank notes are money; guineas and shillings are cash: all cash is therefore money, but all money is not cash. The only money the Chinese have are square bits of metal, with a hole through the centre, by which they are strung upon a string: travellers on the Continent must always be provided with letters of credit, which may be turned into cash as convenience requires.

TO HEAP, PILE, ACCUMULATE, AMASS.

To heap signifies to form into a heap, which through the medium of the northern languages is derivable from the Latin copia plenty. To pile is to form into a pile, which, being a variation of pole, signifies a high raised heap. To accumulate, from the Latin cumulus a heap, signifies to put heap upon heap. To amass is literally to form into a mass.

To heap is an indefinite action; it may be performed

with or without order: to pile is a definite action done with design and order; thus we heap stones, or pile wood: to heap may be to make into large or small heaps;

Within the circles arms and tripods lie, Ingots of gold and silver heap'd on high. DRYDEN.

To pile is always to make something considerable; This would I celebrate with annual games, With gifts on altars pil'd, and holy flames.

Children may heap sticks together; men pile loads of wood together. To heap and pile are used mostly in the physical, accumulate and amass in the physical or moral acceptation; the former is a species of k-aping, the latter of piling: we accumulate whatever is brought together in a loose manner; we amass that which can coalesce: thus a man accumulates guineas; he amasses

To accumulate and to amass are not always the acts of conscious agents: things may accumulate or amass; water or snow accumulates by the continual accession of fresh quantities; the ice amasses in rivers until is frozen over: so in the moral acceptation, evils, abuses, and the like, accumulate; corruption amasses

* Vide Trusler: "Money, cash."

When overwhelmed with an accumulation of sorrows, the believer is never left comfortless; 'These odes are marked by glittering accumulations of ungraceful ornaments.'—Journson. The industrious inquirer may collect a mass of intelligence; 'Sir Francis' Bacon, by an extraordinary force of nature, compass of thought, and indefatigable study, had amassed to himself such stores of knowledge as we cannot look upon without amazement.'—HUGHES.

STOCK, STORE.

Stock, from stick, stoke, stow, and stuff, signifies any quantity laid up; store, in Welch stor, comes from the

Hebrew התר to hide.

The ideas of wealth and stability being naturally allied, it is not surprising that stock, which expresses the latter idea, should also be put for the former, particularly as the abundance here referred to serves as a foundation in the same manner as stock in the literal

sense does to a tree

Store likewise implies a quantity; but agreeable to the derivation of the word, it implies an accumulated quantity. Any quantity of materials which is in hand may serve as a *stock* for a given purpose; thus a few shillings with some persons may be their stock in trade: any quantity of materials brought together for a given purpose may serve as a store; thus the industrious ant collects a store of grain for the winter: we judge of a man's substantial property by the stock of goods which he has on hand; we judge of a man's disposable property by the store which he has. The stock is that which must increase of itself; it is the source and foundation of industry: the store is that which we must add to occasionally; it is that from which we draw in time of need. By a stock we gain riches; by a store we guard against want: a stock requires skill and judgement to make the proper application; a store requires foresight and management to make it against the proper season. It is necessary for one who has a large trade to have a large stock; and for him who has no prospect of supply to have a large store.

The same distinction subsists between these words in their moral application; he who wishes to speak a foreign language must have a stock of familiar words; stores of learning are frequently lost to the world for want of means and opportunity to bring them forth to publick view; 'It will not suffice to rally all one's little utmost into one's discourse, which can constitute a Any man would then quickly be drained; and his short stock would serve but for one meeting in ordinary converse; therefore there thust be store, plenty, and a treasure, lest he turn broker in divinity.

-South.

As verbs, to stock and to store both signify to provide; but the former is a provision for the present use, and the latter for some future purpose; a tradesman stocks himself with such articles as are most saleable; a fortress or a ship is stored: a person stocks himself with patience, or stores his memory with knowledge.

TO TREASURE, HOARD.

The idea of laying up carefully is common to these verbs; but to treasure is to lay up for the sake of preserving; to hoard, to lay up for the sake of accumulating; we treasure up the gifts of a friend; the miser hoards up his money: we attach a real value to miser noards up his money; we attach a real value to that which we treasure; a fictitious value to that which is hoarded. To treasure is used either in the proper or improper sense; to hoard only in the proper sense; we treasure a book on which we set particular value, or we treasure the words or actions of another in our recollection; 'Fancy can combine the ideas which memory has treasured.'—HAWKESWORTH. The miser hoards in his coffers whatever he can

Hoards ev'n beyond the miser's wish abound. GOLDSMITH.

PLENTIFUL, PLENTEOUS, ABUNDANT, COPIOUS, AMPLE.

Plentiful and plentrous signify the presence of plenty, plenitude, or fulness; abundance, in Latin abundantia, from abunda to overflow, compounded of the intensive ab and unda a wave, signines flowing | Fruitful expresses a state containing or possessing

over in great quantities like the waves; copious, in Latin copiusus, from copia, or con, and opes a stock, signifies having a store; ample, in Latin amplus, from

the Greek ἀνάπλεως, signifies over full.

Plentiful and plenteous differ only in use; the former being most employed in the familiar, the latter

in the grave style.

Plenty fills; abundance does more, it leaves a superfluity; as that, however, which fills suffices as much as that which flows over, the term abundance is often employed promiscuously with that of plenty: we can indifferently say a plentiful harvest, or an abundant harvest. Plenty is, however, more frequent in the literal sense for that which fills the body; abundance, for that which fills the mind, or the desire of the mind. A plenty of provisions is even more common than an abundance; a plenty of food; a plenty of corn, wine. and oil:

The resty knaves are overrun with ease, As plenty ever is the nurse of faction .- Rows.

But an abundance of words; an abundance of riches; an abundance of wit and humour. In certain years fruit is plentiful, and at other times grain is plentiful: in all cases we have abundant cause for gratitude to the Giver of all good things;

And God said, let the waters generate Reptile with spawn abundant, living soul.

Copious and ample are modes either of plenty of abundance; the former is employed in regard to what is collected or brought into one point: the zmple is employed only in regard to what may be narrowed or expanded. A copious stream of blood, or a copious flow of words, equally designate the quantity which is collected together;

Smooth to the shelving brink a copious flood Rolls fair and placid .- Thomson.

As an ample provision, an ample store, an ample share marks that which may at pleasure be increased or diminished:

Peaceful beneath primeval trees, that cast Their ample shade o'er Niger's yellow stream, Leans the huge elephant, wisest of brutes.

FULNESS, PLENITUDE.

Although plenitude is no more than a derivative from the Latin for fulness, yet the latter is used either in the proper sense to express the state of objects that are full, or in the improper sense to express great quantity, which is the accompaniment of fulness; the former only in the higher style and in the improper sense: hence we say in the fulness of one's heart, in the fulness of one's joy, or the fulness of the Godhead bodily; but the plenitude of glory, the plenitude of power:

All mankind Must have been lost, adjudg'd to death and hell, By doom severe, had not the Son of God, In whom the fulness dwells of love divine, His dearest meditation thus renew'd .- MILTON.

'The most beneficent Being is he who hath an absolute fulness of perfection in himself, who gave existence to the universe, and so cannot be supposed to want that which he communicated without diminishing from the plenitude of his own power and happi ness.'-GROVE.

FERTILE, FRUITFUL, PROLIFICK.

Fertile, in Latin fertilis, from fero to bear, signifies capable of bearing or bringing to light; fruitful signifies full of fruit, or containing within itself much fruit; prolifick is compounded of proles and facio to make a progeny.

Fertile expresses in its proper sense the faculty of sending forth from itself that which is not of its own nature, and is peculiarly applicable to the ground which causes every thing within itself to grow up;

Why should I mention those, whose oozy soil Is render'd fertile by the o'erflowing Nile. JENYNS.

abundantly that which is of the same nature; it is, therefore, peculiarly applicable to trees, plants, vegeta-bles, and whatever is said to bear fruit;

When first the soil receives the fruitful seed, Make no delay, but cover it with speed .- DRYDEN.

Prolifick expresses the faculty of generating; it conveys therefore the idea of what is creative, and is peculiarly applicable to animals; 'All dogs are of one species they mugling logether in generation, and the breed of such mixtures being prolifick.'—Ray. We may say that the ground is either fertile or fruitful, but not prolifick: we may speak of a female of any species being fruitful and prolifick, but not fertile; we may speak of nature as being fruitful, but neither fertile nor prolifick. A country is fertile as it respects the quality of the soil; it is fruitful as it respects the abundance of its produce: it is possible, therefore, for a country to be fruitful by the industry of its inhabitants, although not fertile by nature.

An animal is said to be fruitful as it respects the number of young which it has; it is said to be prolifick as it respects its generative power. Some women are more fruitful than others; but there are many animals more prolifick than human creatures. in Egypt are rendered fertile by means of mud which they receive from the overflowing of the Nile: they consequently produce harvests more fruitful than in almost any other country. Among the Orientals barrenness was reckoned a disgrace, and every woman was ambitious to be fruitful: there are some insects, particularly among the noxious tribes, which are so prolifice, that they are not many hours in being before they begin to bread

they begin to breed.

In the figurative application they admit of a similar distinction. A man is fertile in expedients who readily contrives upon the spur of the occasion; he is fruiful in resources who has them ready at his hand; his brain is prolifick if it generates an abundance of new conceptions. A mind is fertile which has powers that admit of cultivation and expansion; 'To every work Warburton brought a memory full fraught, togework Warnurton brought a memory full fraught, together with a fancy fertitle of combinations. "Johnson. An imagination is fruitful that is rich in stores of imagery; a genius is prolifek that is rich in invention. Females are fertile in expedients and devices; ambition and avarice are the most fruitful sources of discord and misery in publick and vivate life; 'The philosophy received from the Greeks has been fruitful in controverses, but barren of works."—Bacon. Novelwriters are the most prolifick class of authors;

Parent of light! all-seeing sun, Prolifick beam, whose rays dispense The various gifts of Providence.—GAY.

LARGELY, COPIOUSLY, FULLY.

Largely (v. Great) is here taken in the moral sense. and, if the derivation given of it be true, in the most proper sense; copiously comes from the Latin copia plenty, signifying in a plentiful degree; fully signifies in a full degree; to the full extent, as far as it can reach.

Quantity is the idea expressed in common by all these terms; but largely has always a reference to the freedom of the will in the agent; copiously qualifies actions that are done by inanimate objects; fully qualifies the actions of a rational agent, but it denotes a degree or extent which cannot be surpassed.

A person deals largely in things, or he drinks large draughts; rivers are copiously supplied in rainy sea-Bons; a verson is fully satisfied, or fully prepared. A Bons; a nerson is juty satisfied, or jutty prepared. A bountful Providence has distributed his gifts largely among his creatures; 'There is one very faulty method of drawing up the laws, that is, when the case is largely set forth in the preamble.'—Bacon. Blood flows copiously from a deep wound when it is first made:

The youths with wine the copious goblets crown'd. And pleas'd dispense the flowing bowls around.

When a man is not fully convinced of his own insuffriency, he is not prepared to listen to the counsel of others; Every word (in the Bible) is so weighty that it onglit to be carefully considered by all that desire fully to understand the sense.'- BEVERIDGE.

PROFUSION, PROFUSENESS.

Profusion, from the Latin profunds to pour forth, is taken in relation to unconscious objects, which pour forth in great plenty; profuseness is taken from the same, in relation to conscious agents, who likewise pour forth in great plenty. The term profusion, therefore, is put for plenty itself, and the term profuser. ness as a characteristick of persons in the sense of extravagance.

At the hospitable board of the rich there will naturally be a profusion of every thing which can gratify the appetite;

Ye glitt'ring towns with wealth and splendout crown'd,

Ye fields where summer spreads profusion round, For me your tributary stores combine. - Goldsmith. When men see an unusual degree of profusion, they are apt to indulge themselves in profuseness; 'I was convinced that the liberality of my young companions was only profuseness.'-Johnson.

EXTRAVAGANT, PRODIGAL, LAVISH, PROFUSE

Extravagant, from extra and vagans, signifies in general wandering from the line; and prodigal, from the Latin prodigus and prodigo to launch forth, sig-nifies in general to send forth, or give out in great quantities; lavish comes probably from the Latin lavo to wash, signifying to wash away in waste; profuse, from the Latin profusus, participle of profundo to pour forth, signifies pouring out freely.

The idea of using immoderately is implied in all The idea of using immoderately is implied in an these terms, but extravagant is the most general in its meaning and application. The extravagant man spends his money without reason; the prodigal man spends it in excesses; the former errs against plain sense, the latter violates the moral law: the extravagant man sense, the latter violates the moral law: the extravagant plain is the state of t sense, the latter violates the moral haw; the extravagant man will ruin himself by his follies; the produgal by his vices. One may be extravagant with a small sum where it exceeds one's means; one cannot be prodigal but with large sums.

odigal but with large sums.

Extravagance is practised by both sexes; prodi-Extrangunce is practised by the scales, produ-gality is peculiarly the vice of the male sex. Extra-vagance is opposed to meanness; prodigality to ava rice. Those who know the true value of money, as contributing to their own enjoyments, or those of others, will guard against extranagance. Those who lay a restraint on their passions, can never fall into

prodigality.

Extravagant and prodigal serve to designate habitual as well as particular actions; lavish and profuse are employed only in particular; hence we say to be lavish of one's money, one's presents, and the like; to be profuse in one's entertainments, both of which may be modes of extravagance. An extravagant man, however, in the restricted sense, mostly spends upon himself to indulge his whims and idle fancies; but a man may be lavish and profuse upon others from a misguided generosity

In a moral use of these terms, a man is extravagant in his praises who exceeds either in measure or appli cation; 'No one is to admit into his petitions to his Maker, things superfluous and extravagant.'-South. He is prodigal of his strength who consumes it by an excessive use;

Here patriots live, who for their country's good, In fighting fields were prodigal of blood

DRYDEN.

He is lavish of his compliments who deals them out so largely and promiscuously as to render them of no service;

See where the winding vale its lavish stores Irriguous spreads .- Thomson.

He is profuse in his acknowledgments who repeats them oftener, or delivers them in more words, than are necessary; 'Cicero was most liberally profuse in com mending the ancients and his contemporaries.'-ADDI SON (after Plutarch),

Extravagant and profuse are said only of indi-viduals; prodigal and lavish may be said of many in a general sense. A nation may be prodigal of its resources; a government may be lanish of the publick money, as an individual is extravagant with his own and profuse in what he gives another.

ENOUGH, SUFFICIENT.

Enough, in German genug, comes from genügen, to satisfy; sufficient, in Latin sufficiens, participle of sufficie, compounded of sub and facto, signifies made

or suited to the purpose.

He has enough whose desires are satisfied; he has sufficient whose wants are supplied. We may therefore frequently have sufficiency when we have not enough. A greedy man is commonly in this case, he has never chough, although he has more than a sufficiency. Enough is said only of physical objects of desire; sufficient is employed in a moral application, for that which serves the purpose. Children and animals never have crough food, nor the miser enough money:

My loss of honour's great enough, Thou need'st not brand it with a scoff.

It is requisite to allow sufficient time for every thing that is to be done, if we wish it to be done well; 'The time present seldom affords sufficient employment for the mind of man.'-Applison.

EXCESS, SUPERFLUITY, REDUNDANCY.

Excess is that which exceeds any measure; superfaity from super and fan to flow over; and redun-dancy, from redundo to stream back or over, signifies an excess of a good measure. We may have an excess of heat or cold, wet or dry, when we have more than the ordinary quantity; but we have a superfluity of provisions when we have more than we want. Excess is applicable to any object; but superfluity and redundancy are species of excess. Superfluity is applicable in a particular manner to that which is an object of our desire; and redundancy to matters of expression or feeling. We may have an excess of prosperity or adversity, 'It is wisely ordered in our present state that joy and fear, hope and grief, should act alternately as checks and balances upon each other, in order to prevent an excess in any of them.'—BLAIR. We may have a superfluity of good things; 'When by force or policy, by wisdom, or by fortune, property and superiority were introduced and established, then they whose possessions swelled above their wants naturally laid out their superfluities on pleasure.'— Johnson. There may be a redundancy of speech or words; 'The defect or redundance of a syllable might be easily covered in the recitation.'—Tyrrwhit.

EXCESSIVE, IMMODERATE, INTEMPERATE.

The excessive is beyond measure: the immoderate. from modus a mode or measure, is without measure the intemperate, from tempus a time or term, is that which is not kept within bounds.

Excessive designates excess in general; immoderate and intemperate designate excess in moral agents. The excessive lies simply in the thing which exceeds any given point: the immoderate lies in the passions which range to a boundless extent; the intemperate lies in the will which is under no control. Hence we speak of an excessive thirst physically considered: an immoderate ambition or lust of power: an intemperate indulgence, an intemperate warmth. Excessive admits of degrees; what is excessive may exceed in a greater or less degree: immoderate and intemperate mark a positively great degree of excess; the former still higher than the latter: immoderate is in fact the highest conceivable degree of excess.

The excessive use of any thing will always be attended with some evil consequence; 'Who knows not the languar that attends were the languor that attends every excessive indulgence in pleasure?—BLAIR. The immoderate use of wine will rapidly tend to the ruin of him who is guilty of the excess; 'One of the first objects of wish to every one is to maintain a proper place and rank in society: among the vain and ambitious is always the favourite aim. With them it arises to immoderate expecta-tions founded on their supposed talents and imagined merits.'—BLAIR. The intemperate use of wine will merits.—Blate. The intemperate use of which win proceed by a more gradual but not less sure process to his ruin; 'Let no wantonness of youthful spirits, no compliance with the intemperate match of others, ever betray you into profane sallies.'-BLAIR.

Excessive designates what is partial; immoderate is used oftener for what is partial than what is habitual; intemperate oftener for what is habitual than what is partial. A person is excessively displeased on what is partial. A person is exceeding the an immediate cater at all times, or only immoderate in that which he likes; at all times, or only immoderate in that which he likes are when his appear is he is intemperate in his language when his anger is intemperate; or he leads an intemperate life. The excesses of youth do but too often settle into confirmed habits of intemperance.

EXUBERANT, LUXURIANT.

Exuberant, from the Latin exuberans or ex and ubero, signifies very fruitful or superabundant: luxuriant, in Latin luxurians, from laxus, signifies expanding with unrestrained freedom. These terms are both applied to vegetation in a flourishing state; but exuberance expresses the excess, and luxuriance the perfection: in a fertile soil where plants are left unrestrainedly to themselves there will be an exuberance:

Another Flora there of bolder hues And richer sweets, beyond our garden's pride Plays o'er the fields, and showers with sudden hand Exuberant spring.—Thomson.

Plants are to be seen in their luxuriance only in seasons that are favourable to them;

On whose luxurious herbage, half conceal'd, Like a fall'n cedar, far diffus'd his train, Cas'd in green scales, the crocodile extends.

In the moral application, exuberance of intellect is often attended with a restless ambition that is incompatible both with the happiness and advancement of its possessor; 'His similes have been thought too exuberant and full of circumstances.'—Pope. Luxuriance of imagination is one of the greatest gifts which a poet can boast of; 'A fluent and luxuriant speech becomes youth well, but not age.'-BACON.

EMPTY, VACANT, VOID, DEVOID.

Empty, in Saxon empti, is not improbably derived from the Latin inopis poor or wanting; vacant, in Latin vacans or vaco, comes from the Hebrew בקק to draw out or exhaust; void and devoid, in Latin viduns and Greek idios, signifies solitary or bereft.

Empty is the term in most general use; vacant, void, and devoid are employed in particular cases: empty and vacant have either a proper or an improper

application; void or devoid only a moral acceptation.

Empty, in the natural sense, marks an absence of that which is substantial, or adapted for filling; vacant designates or marks the absence of that which should occupy or make use of a thing. That which is hollow may be empty; that which respects any space may be vacant. A house is capty which has no inhabitants; a seat is vacant which is without an occupant: a room is empty which is without furniture; a space on paper is vacant which is free from writing.

In the figurative application empty and vacant have a similar analogy: a dream is said to be empty, or a

title empty, &cc.

To honour Thetis' son he bends his care, And plunge the Greeks in all the woes of war: Then bids an empty phantom rise to sight, And thus commands the vision of the night

A stare is said to be vacant, or an hour vacant: 'An inquisitive man is a creature naturally very vacant of thought in itself, and therefore forced to apply itself to foreign assistance.'—STEELE. Void or devoid are used in the same sense as vacant, as qualifying epitheis, but not prefixed as adjectives, and always followed by some object: thus we speak of a creature as void of reason; and of an individual as devoid of common

My next desire is, void of care and strife, To lead a soft, secure, inglorious life. - DRYDEN.

We Tyrians are not so devoid of sense, Nor so remote from Phæbus' influence.-DRYDEN.

VACANCY, VACUITY, INANITY.

Vacancy and vacuity both denote the space unoccupied, or the abstract quality of being unoccupied. Inanity, from the Latin inanise, denotes the abstract quality of emptiness, or of not containing any thing: hence the former terms vacancy and vacuity are used in an indifferent or bad sense; inanity always in a had sense: there may be a vacancy in the seat, or a vacancy in the mind, or a vacancy in life, which we may or may not fill up as we please;

How is 't

That thus you bend your eye on vacancy And with th' incorporal air do hold discourse? SHAKSPEARE.

Vacuities are supposed to be interspersed among the particles of matter, or, figuratively, they may be posed to exist in the soul and in other objects; 'There posed to exist in the sour and in other objects; I here are vacuities in the happiest life, which it is not in the power of the world to fill;—BLAIR. Inanity of character denotes the want of the essentials that constitute a character; 'When I look up and behold the heavens, it makes me scorn the world and the pleasures thereof, considering the vanity of these and the 'inanity of the other.'-Howell.

HOLLOW, EMPTY.

Hollow, from hole, signifies being like a hole; empty,

v. Empty.

Hollow respects the body itself; the absence of its own material produces hollowness: empty respects foreign bodies; their absence in another body constitutes emptiness. Hollowness is therefore a preparative to emptiness, and may exist independently of it; tive to emptiness, and may exist independently of it; but emptiness presupposes the existence of hollowness: what is empty must be hollow; but what is hollow need not be empty. Hollowness is often the natural property of a body; emptiness is a contingent property; that which is hollow is destined by nature to contain; but that which is empty is deprived of its contents by a casualty: a nut is hollow for the purpose of receiving the fruit: it is empty if it contain no fruit. They are both employed in a normal accentation, and

They are both employed in a moral acceptation, and in a bad sense; the hollow, in this case, is applied to what ought to be solid or sound; and empty in what ought to be filled: a person is hollow whose goodness bles only at the surface, whose fair words are without meaning; a truce is hollow which is only an external cessation from hostilities;

For dignity compos'd, and high exploit; But all was false and hollow .- MILTON

A person is empty who is without the requisite portion of understanding and knowledge; an excuse is *empty* which is unsupported by fact and reason; a pleasure is empty which cannot afford satisfaction;

The creature man Condemn'd to sacrifice his childish years To babbling ignorance and empty fears .- PRIOR.

TO SPEND, EXHAUST, DRAIN.

Spend, contracted from expend, in Latin expendo to pay away, signifies to give from oneself; exhaust, from the Latin exhaurie to draw out, signifies to draw out all that there is; drain, a variation of draw, signifies

to draw dry.

The idea of taking from the substance of any thing is common to these terms; but to spend is to deprive in a less degree than to exhaust, and that in a less degree than to develope the today of the second in that degree spends his strength; if the exertions are violent he exhausts himself; a country which is drained of men is supposed to have no more left. To spend may be applied to that which is either external or inherent in a body;

Your tears for such a death in vain you spend, Which straight in immortality shall end.

Exhaust applies to that which is inherent or essential; drain to that which is external of the body in which it is contained; 'Teaching is not a flow of words nor the draining of an hour-glass.'—South. We may

speak of spending our wealth, our resources, our time, and the like. The strength, the vigour, or the voice is exhausted; 'Many of our provisions for ease or happiness are exhausted by the present day.'—Johnson. Draining is applied in its proper application to a vessel which is drained of its liquid; or, in extended appli-cation, to a treasury which is drained of money. Hence arises this farther distinction, that to spend and to exhaust may tend, more or less, to the injury of a body; but to drain may be to its advantage. Inasmuch as what is spent or exhausted may be more or less essential to the soundness of a body, it cannot be parted with without diminishing its value, or even destroying its existence; as when a fortune is spent it is gone, or when a person's strength is exhausted he is no longer able to move: on the other hand, to drain, though a more complete evacuation, is not always injurious, but sometimes even useful to a body; as when the land is drained of a superapundance of water.

TO SPEND OR EXPEND, WASTE, DISSIPATE, SQUANDER.

Spend and expend are variations from the Latin expendo; but spend may be used in the sense of turning to some purpose, or making use of; to expend carries with it likewise the idea of exhausting; and waste moreover, comprehends the idea of exhausting to no good purpose: we spend money when we purchase any thing with it; we expend it when we lay it out in large quantities, so as essentially to diminish its quantity: individuals spend what they have; government expends vast sums in conducting the affairs of a nation; all persons waste their property who have not sufficient discretion to use it well: we spend our time, or our lives, in any employment;

Then having spent the last remains of light, They give their bodies due repose at night.

We expend our strength and faculties upon some arduous undertaking; 'The king of England wasted the French king's country, and thereby caused him to expend such sums of money as exceeded the debt.'— HAYWARD. Men are apt to waste their time and talents in trifles:

What numbers, guiltless of their own disease, Are snatch'd by sudden death, or waste by slow degrees !- JENYNS.

Dissipate, in Latin dissipatus, from dissipo, that is, dis and stop, in Greek often to scatter, signifies to scatter different ways, that is, to waste by throwing away in all directions: squander, which is a variation of wander, signifies to make to run wide apart. Both these terms, therefore, denote modes of wasting; but the former seems peculiarly applicable to that which is wasted in detail upon different objects, and by a distraction of the mind; the latter respects rather the act of wasting in the gross, in large quantities, by planless profusion: young men are apt to dissipate their property in pleasures;

He pitied man, and much he pitied those Whom falsely smiling fate has curs'd with means To dissipate their days in quest of joy. ARMSTRONG.

The open, generous, and thoughtless are apt to squander their property; 'To how many temptations are all, but especially the young and gay, exposed to squander their whole time amid the circles of levity.' BLAIR.

TO SPREAD, SCATTER, DISPERSE.

Spread (v. To spread) applies equally to divisible or spreau (v. 10 spreau) appues equally to divisible or indivisible bodies; we spread our money on the table; or we may spread a cloth on the table; but scatter which, like shatter, is a frequentative of shake, is applicable to divisible bodies only; we scatter corn on the ground. To spread may be an act of design or other table by the spread of the spr wise, but mostly the former; as when we spread books or papers before us: scatter is mostly an act without design; a child scatters the papers on the floor. When taken, however, as an act of design, it is done without order; but spread is an act done in order: thus hay is spread out to dry, but corn is scattered over the land;

All in a row Advancing broad, or wheeling round the field, They spread their breathing harvest to the sun.

Each leader now his scatter'd force conjoins

POPE

Things may spread in one direction, or at least without separation; but they disperse (n. To dispet) in many directions, so as to destroy the continuity of bodies: a leaf spreads as it opens in all its parts, and a tree also spreads as its branches increase; but a multitude disperses, an army disperses. Between scatter and disperse there is no other difference than that one is immethodical and involuntary, the other systematick and intentional: flowers are scattered along a path, which accidentally fall from the hand; a mob is dispersed by an act of authority: sheep are scattered along the hills; religious tracts are dispersed among the poor: the disciples were scattered as sheep without a shepherd, after the delivery of our Saviour into the hands of the Jews, they dispersed themselves, after his ascension, over every part of the world;

Straight to the tents the troops dispersing bend. Pope.

TO SPREAD, EXPAND, DIFFUSE.

Spread, in Saxon spredan, Low German spredan, High German spreiten, is an intensive of breit broad, signifying to stretch wide; expand, in Latin expando, compounded of ex and pando to open, and the Greek

 continuous de la continuo del continuo del continuo de la continuo del direct separation of its parts, or by an accession to the substance; but to *cxpand* is to *spread* by means of separating or unfolding the parts: a mist *spreads* over the earth; a flower expands its leaves: a tree spreads by the growth of its branches; the opening bud ex-pands when it feels the genial warmth of the sun. Spread and expand are used likewise in a moral

application; diffuse is seldom used in any other application: spread is here, as before, equally indefinite as to the mode of the action; every thing spreads, and it

spreads in any way;

See where the winding vale its lavish'd stores Irriguous spreads .- THOMSON.

Expansion is that gradual process by which an object opens or unfolds itself after the manner of a flower;

As from the face of heaven the shatter'd clouds Tumultuous rove, th' interminable sky Sublimer swells, and o'er the world expands A purer azure.—Thomson.

Diffusion is that process of spreading which consists literally in pouring out in different ways;

Th' uncurling floods diffus'd In glassy breadth, seem, through delusive lapse, Forgetful of their course.—Thomson.

Evils spread, and reports spread; the mind expands, and prospects expand; knowledge diffuses itself, or cheerfulness is diffused throughout a company.

TO DILATE, EXPAND.

Dilate, in Latin dilato, from di apart and latus, wide, that is, to make very wide; expand, v. To

spread, in the preceding article.

The idea of drawing any thing out so as to occupy a greater space is common to these terms in opposition a greater space is common to these terms in opposition to contracting. Dilate is an intransitive verty; expand is transitive or intransitive; the former marks the action of any body within itself; the latter an external action on any body. A bladder dilates on the admission of air, or the heart dilates with joy; knowledge expands the mind, or a person's views expand with circumstances. In the circulation of the blood through the body, the vessels are exposed to a perpetual dilation and contraction, the gradual expansion of the tation and contraction: the gradual expansion of the mind by the regular modes of communicating knowledge to youth is unquestionably to be desired; but the sudden expansion of a man's thoughts from a

comparative state of ignorance by any powerful action is very dangerous:

The conscious heart of charity would warm, And her wide wish benevolence dilate

' The poet (Thomson) leads us through the appearances of things as they are successively varied by the vicissi-tudes of the year, and imparts to us so much of his own enthusiasm that our thoughts expand with his imagery.'-Johnson.

TO SPREAD, CIRCULATE, PROPAGATE, DISSEMINATE.

To spread (v. To spread, expand) is said of any object material or spiritual; the rest are mostly employed in the moral application. To spread is to extend to an indefinite width;

Love would between the rich and needy stand, And spread heaven's bounty with an equal hand.
WALLER.

To circulate is to spread within a circle; thus news spreads through a country; but a story circulates in a village, or from house to house, or a report is circulated in a neighbourhood;

Our God, when heaven and earth he did create, Form'd man, who should of both participate; If our lives' motions theirs must imitate, Our knowledge, like our blood, must circulate. DENHAM.

Spread and circulate are the acts of persons or things; propagate and disseminate are the acts of persons only. propagate and assemnate are the acts of persons only. A thing spreads and circulates, or it is spread and circulated by some one: it is always propagated and disseminated by some one. Propagate, from the Latin propago a breed, and disseminate, from semen a seed, are here figuratively employed as modes of spreading, according to the natural operations of increasing the quantity of any thing which is implied in the first two terms. What is propagated is supposed to generate new subjects; as when doctrines, either good or bad, are propagated among the people so as to make them converts:

He shall extend his propagated sway Beyond the solar year, without the starry way. DRYDEN.

What is disseminated is supposed to be sown in different parts; thus principles are disseminated among youth; 'Nature seems to have taken care to disseminate her blessings among the different regions of the world.'-Appison.

TO DISPEL, DISPERSE, DISSIPATE.

Dispel, from the Latin pello to drive, signifying to drive away, is a more forcible action than to disperse, which signifies merely to cause to come asunder: we destroy the existence of a thing by dispelling it; we merely destroy the junction or cohesion of a body by dispersing it: the sun dispels the clouds and darkness:

As when a western whirlwind, charg'd with storms, Dispels the gathering clouds that Notus forms POPE.

The wind disperses the clouds, or a surgeon disperses a tumour; but the clouds and the tumour may both gather again:

The foe dispers'd, their bravest warriours kill'd, Fierce as a whirlwind now I swept the field.

Dispelling and dispersing are frequently natural and regular operations; dissipating is oftentimes a violent and disorderly proceeding. Dissipate, in Latin dissipatum, participle of dissipo, compounded of dis and the obsolete sipo, in Greek vidos, was originally applied to fluids, whence the word siphon takes its rise. The word dissipate therefore denotes the act of scattering after the manner of fluids which are thus lost; where that which is dissipated loses its existence as an aggregate hody; 'The heat at length grows so great, that it again dissipates and bears off those corpuscles which it brought.'—Woodward. In the same manner wealth is said to be dissipated when it is lost to the owner by being spent. These terms admit of a similar distinction in the moral acceptation :

If the night Have gather'd aught of evil, or conceal'd Disperse it, as now light dispels the dark .- MILTON.

When the thoughts are dissipated the mind is as it when the thoughts are dissipated the mind is as it were lost; 'I have begun two or three letters to you by snatches, and been prevented from finishing them by a thousand avocations and dissipations.'—SWIFT.

Dispet is used figuratively; disperse only in the natural sense; gloom, ignorance, and the like, are dispetled; books, people, papers, and the like, are dispersed.

persed.

TO POUR, SPILL, SHED.

Pour is probably connected with pore, and the Latin preposition per through, signifying to make to pass as it were through a channel; spill and splash, and the German spilen are probably onomatopelas; shed comes from the German scheiden to separate, significant probably on the German scheiden to separate, significant probably on the German scheiden to separate.

nifying to cast from.

We pour with design; we spill by accident: we we pour with design; we spill by accident; we pour water over a plant or a bed; we spill it on the ground. To pour is an act of convenience; to spill and shed are acts more or less hurtful; the former is to cause to run in small quantities; the latter in large quantities: we pour wine out of a bottle into a glass; but the blood of a person is said to be spilled or shed when his life is reliable to the account of the spilled or shed when his life is violently taken away: what is poured is commonly no part of the body from whence it is poured; but what is shed is no other than a component part; hence trees are said to shed their leaves, animals their hair, or human beings to shed tears; 'Poesy is of so subtle a spirit, that in the pouring out of one language into another, it will evaporate.'— DENHAM.

O reputation! dearer far than life,

Thou precious balsam, lovely sweet of smell, Whose cordial drops once spill'd by some rash hand, Not all the owner's care, nor the repenting toil of the rude spiller, can collect.—Sewel.

'Herod acted the part of a great mourner for the deceased Aristobulus, shedding abundance of tears.' PRIDEAUX.

POVERTY, INDIGENCE, WANT, NEED, PENURY.

Poverty marks the condition of being poor; indigence, in Latin indigentia, comes from indigeo and the Greek δέομαι to want, signifying in the same manner as the word want, the abstract condition of wanting; need, v. Necessity; penury, in Latin penuria, comes in all probability from the Greek πήνης poor.

Poverty is a general state of fortune opposed to that of riches; in which one is abridged of the conveniences of life: indigence is a particular state of poverty, which rises above it in such a degree, as to exclude the necessaries as well as the conveniences of life; want and need are both partial states, that refer only to individual things which are wanting to any one. Poverty and indigence comprehend all a man's external circumstances; but want, when taken by itself, denotes the want of food or clothing, and is opposed to abundance; need, when taken by itself, implies the want of money, or any other useful article; but they are both more commonly taken in connexion with the object which is wanted, and in this sense they are to the two former as species to the genus. Poverty and indigence are permanent states; want and need are Poverty and temporary: poverty and indigence are the order of Providence, they do not depend upon the individual. and are, therefore, not reckoned as his fault; want and need arise more commonly from circumstances of one's own creation, and tend frequently to one's disoredit. What man has not caused, man cannot so easily obviate; poverty and indigence cannot, therefore, be removed at one's will: but want and need are frequently removed by the aid of others. Poverty is that which one should learn to bear, so as to lessen its pains; 'That the poverty of the Highlanders is gra-dually diminished cannot be mentioned among the unpleasing consequences of subjection.'-Johnson

digence is a calamity which the compassion of others may in some measure alleviate, if they cannot entirely remove it; 'If we can but raise him above indigence, a moderate share of good fortune and merit will be sufficient to open his way to whatever else we can wish him to obtain.'-- MELMOTH (Letters of Cicero). Want, when it results from intemperance or extravagance, is not altogether entitled to any relief;

Want is a bitter and a hateful good, Because its virtues are not understood; Yet many things, impossible to thought, Have been by need to full perfection brought. DRYDEN.

But need, when it arises from casualties that are independent of our demerits, will always find friends.

It is a wise distribution of Providence which has made the rich and poor to be mutually dependent upon each other, and both to be essential to the happiness of the whole. Among all descriptions of indigent persons, none are more entitled to charitable attention than those who in addition to their wants suffer under any bodily infirmity. The old proverb says, "That waste makes want," which is daily realized among waste makes want, which is tany realized allong men without making them wiser by experience. "A friend in need," according to another vulgar proverb, "is a friend indeed," which, like all proverbial sayings, contains a striking truth; for nothing can be more acceptable than the assistance which we receive from a friend when we stand in need of it; 'God grant we never may have need of you.'—Shakspeare. All these terms may be used, either in a general or in a particular sense, to denote a privation of things in general or a partial privation. Penury is used to denote a privation of things in general, but particularly of things most essential for existence; 'The penury of the ecclesiastical state.'—HOOKER.

Sometimes am I a king, Then treason makes me with myself a beggar; And so I am; then crushing penury Persuades me, I was better when a king. SHAKSPEARE.

NECESSITY, NEED.

Necessity (v. Necessary) respects the thing wanted; need, in German noth, probably from the Greek ἀνάγκη necessity, the person wanting. There would be no necessity for punishments, if there were not evil doers; he is peculiarly fortunate who finds a friend in time of need. Necessity is more pressing than need; the former places us in a positive state of compulsion to act; it is said to have no law, it prescribes the law for itself; the latter yields to circumstances, and leaves us in a state of deprivation. We are frequently under in a state of deprivation. We are frequently under the necessity of going without that of which we stand most in need; Where necessity ends, curiosity be-gins.—Johnson. 'One of the many advantages of friendship is, that one can say to one's friend the things that stand in need of pardon.—Pops. From these two nouns arise two epithets for each,

which are worthy of observation, namely, necessary and needful, necessitous and needful. Necessary and needful are both applicable to the thing wanted; necessitous and needy to the person wanting; necessary is applied to every object indiscriminately; needful only to such objects as supply temporary or partial wants. Exercise is necessary to preserve the health of the body; restraint is necessary to preserve that of the mind; assistance is needful for one who has not sufficient resources in himself: it is necessary to go by water to the continent: money is needful for one who is travelling.

The dissemination of knowledge is necessary to dispel the ignorance which would otherwise prevail in the world:

It seems to me most strange that men should fear eeing that death, a necessary end,

Will come when it will come .- SHAKSPEARE

It is needful for a young person to attend to the instructions of his teacher, if he will improve;

Time, long expected, eas'd us of our load, And brought the needful presence of a god DRYDEN

Necessitous expresses more than needy: the former comprehends a general state of necessity or deficiency In the thing that is wanted or needful; needy expresses only a particular condition. The poor are in a necessitous condition who are in want of the first necessaries, or who have not wherewithal to supply the cessaries, of who have not wherewith to supply the most pressing necessities; 'Steele's imprudence of generosity, or vanity of profusion, kept him always incurably necessitous.'—Johnson. Adventurers are said to be needy, when their vices make them in need of that which they might otherwise obtain; 'Charity sethe work of heaven, which is always laying itself cut on the needy and the impotent.'—South. It is charity to supply the wants of the necessitous, but those of the needy are sometimes not worthy of one's

POOR, PAUPER.

Poor and pauper are both derived from the Latin pauper, which comes from the Greek παυρος small. Poor is the term of general use; pauper is a term of particular use: a pauper is a poor man who lives upon alms or the relief of the parish: the former is, therefore, indefinite in its meaning; the latter conveys a reproachful idea. The word poor is used as a sub stantive only in the plural number; pauper is a substantive both in the singular and plural: the poor of a parish are, in general, a heavy burden on the inhabitants; there are some persons who are not ashamed to live and die as paupers.

NECESSITIES, NECESSARIES.

Necessity, in Latin necessitas, and necessary, in Latin necessarius, from necesse, or ne and cesso, sig-nify not to be yielded or given up. Necessity is the mode or state of circumstances, or the thing which circumstances render necessary; the necessary is that which is absolutely and unconditionally necessary.

Art has ever been busy in inventing things to supply the various necessities of our nature, and yet there are always numbers who want even the first necessaries of life. Habit and desire create necessities; nature only requires necessaries; a voluptuary has necessi-ties which are unknown to a temperate man; the poor have in general little more than necessaries; whose condition has always restrained them to the contemplation of their own necessities will scarcely understand why nights and days should be spent in study -Johnson. 'To make a man happy, virtue must be accompanied with at least a moderate provision of all the necessaries of life, and not disturbed by bodily pains.'-Budgell.

TO WANT, NEED, LACK.

To be without is the common idea expressed by these terms: but to want is to be without that which contributes to our comfort, or is an object of our desire; to need is to be without that which is essential for our existence or our purposes. To lack, which is probably a variation from leak, and a term not in frequent use, expresses little more than the general idea of being without, unaccompanied by any collateral idea. From the close connexion which subsists between desiring and want, it is usual to consider what we want as artificial, and what we need as natural and indispensable. What one man wants is a superfluity to another; but that which is needed by one is in like circumstances needed by all: tender people want a fire when others would be glad not to have it; all persons need warm clothing and a warm house in the winter.

To want and need may extend indefinitely to many To want and need may extend indefinitely to many or all objects; to lack, or be deficient, is properly said of a single object: we may want or need every thing; we lack one thing, we lack this or that; a rich man may lack understanding, virtue, or religion. He who wants nothing is a happy man; 'To be rich is to have more than is desired, and more than is wanted.'—
Johnson. He who needs nothing, may be happy if he

wants no more than he has;

The old from such affairs are only freed, Which vig'rous youth and strength of body need. DENHAM.

Contentment is often the only thing a man lacks to make him happy;

See the mind of beastly man! That hath so soon forgot the excellence Of his creation, when he life began, That now he chooseth with vile difference To be a beast and lacke intelligence .- SPENSER

TO INCREASE, GROW.

Increase, from the Latin in and cresco, signifies to grow upon or grow to a thing, to become one with it; grow, in Saxon growan, very probably comes from, or is connected with, the Latin crevi, perfect of cresco to increase or grow.

increase or grow.

The idea of becoming larger is common to both these terms: but the former expresses the idea in an unqualified manner: and the latter annexes to this general idea also that of the mode or process by which this is effected. To increase is either a gradual or an instantaneous act; to grow is a gradual process: a stream increases by the addition of other waters; it may come suddenly or in course of time, by means of may come suddenly or in course of time, by means of gentle showers or the rushing in of other streams; but if we say that the river or stream grows, it is supposed to grow by some regular and continual process of receiving fresh water, as from the running in of different rivulets or smaller streams. To increase is either a natural or an artificial process; to grow is always natural: money increases but does not grow, because it increases by artificial means: corn may either increase or grow: in the former case we speak of it in the sense of becoming larger or increasing in bulk; in the latter case we consider the mode of its increasing, namely, by the natural process of vegetation. On this ground we say that a child grows when we wish to denote the natural process by which his body arrives at its proper size; but we may speak of his increasing in stature, in size, and the like

Then, as her strength with years increas'd, began To pierce aloft in air the soaring swan .- DRYDEN.

For this reason likewise increase is used in a transi tive as well as intransitive sense; but grow always in an intransitive sense; we can increase a thing, though not properly grow a thing, because we can make it larger by whatever means we please; but when it grows it makes itself larger. 'Bones, after full growth, continue at a stay; as for nails, they grow continually. -BACON.

In their improper acceptation these words preserve the same distinction: 'trade increases' bespeaks the simple fact of its becoming larger; but 'trade grows' implies that gradual increase which flows from the natural concurrence of circumstances. The affections which are awakened in infancy grow with one's growth; here is a natural and moral process combined .

Children, like tender oziers, take the bow, And, as they first are fashion'd, always grow DRYDEN.

The fear of death sometimes increases as one grows old; the courage of a truly brave man increases with the sight of danger: here is a moral process which is both gradual and immediate, but in both cases produced by some foreign cause.

I have enlarged on these two words the more be-cause they appear to have been involved in some considerable perplexity by the French writers Girard and Robaud, who have entered very diffusely into the distinction between the words croitre and augmenter, corresponding to increas and grow; but I trust that from the above explanation, the distinction is clearly to be observed.

INCREASE, ADDITION, ACCESSION, AUGMENTATION.

Increase is here as in the former article the generick term (v. To increase): there will always be increase where there is augmentation, addition, and accession, though not vice versâ.

Addition is to increase as the means to the end: the addition is the artificial mode of making two things into one; the increase is the result: when the value of one figure is added to another, the sum is increased: hence a man's treasures experience an increase by the addition of other parts to the main stock Addition is

an intentional mode of increasing; accession is an accidental mode: one thing is added to another, and thereby increased; but an accession takes place of itself; it is the coming or joining of one thing to another so as to *morease* the whole. A merchant *increases* his property by adding his gains in trade every versuses ms property by adding insigning in trade every year to the mass; but he receives an accession of property either by inheritance or any other contingency. In the same manner a monarch increases his dominions by adding one territory to another, or by various accessions of territory which fall to his lot.

When we speak of an increase, we think of the makes each its relative promitted and the second of the second

whole and its relative magnitude at different times;

At will I crop the year's increase, My latter life is rest and peace.—DRYDEN.

When we speak of an addition, we think only of the part and the agency by which this part is joined; 'The ill state of health into which Tullia is fallen is a very severe addition to the many and great disquietudes that afflict my mind.'—Melmoth (Letters of Cicero). When we speak of an accession, we think only of the circumstance by which one thing becomes thus joined to another; 'There is nothing in my opinion more pleasing in religion than to consider that the soul is to shine for ever with new accessions of glory.'-ADDIson. Increase of happiness does not depend upon increase of wealth; the miser makes daily additions to the latter without making any to the former: sudden accessions of wealth are seldom attended with any good consequences, as they turn the thoughts too violently out of their sober channel, and bend them too strongly on present possessions and good fortune.

Augmentation is another term for increase, which

differs less in sense than in application: the latter is generally applied to all objects that admit such a change: but the former is applied only to objects of higher import or cases of a less familiar nature. We higher import or cases of a less familiar nature. We may say that a person experiences an increase or an augmentation in his family; or that he has had an increase or an augmentation of his salary, or that there is an increase or augmentation of the number: in all which cases the former term is most adapted to the colloquial, and the latter to the grave style.

TO ENLARGE, INCREASE, EXTEND.

Enlarge signifies literally to make large or wide, and Entarge significant to make that; increase, from the Latin incresco to grow to a thing, is applicable to quantity, signifying to become greater in size by the junction of other natter; extend, in Latin extendo, or z and tendo, signifies to stretch out, that is, to make greater in space. We speak of enlarging a house, a room, premises, or boundaries; of increasing the prosent the name of the entarge of the control of the co perty, the army, the capital, expense, &c.; of extending the boundaries of an empire. We say the hole or cavity enlarges, the head or bulk enlarges, the number increases, the swelling, inflammation, and the like, increase: so likewise in the figurative sense, the views, the prospects, the powers, the ideas, and the mind, are enlarged;

Great objects make Great minds, enlarging as their views enlarge, Those still more godlike, as these more divine.

Pain, pleasure, hope, fear, anger, or kindness, is increased; 'Good sense alone is a sedate and quiescent quality, which manages its possessions well, but does not increase them.'—Johnson. Views, prospects, connexions, and the like, are extended;

The wise extending their inquiries wide. See how both states are by connexion tied: Fools view but part, and not the whole survey, So crowd existence all into a day .- JENYNS.

TO REACH, STRETCH, EXTEND.

Reach, through the medium of the northern languages, as also the Latin rego in the word porrigo, and the Greek ὀρέγω, comes from the Hebrew γρη to draw out, and not length; stretch is but an intensive of

reach; extend, v. To extend.

The idea of drawing out in a line is common to these terms, but they differ in the mode and circum-

stances of the action. To reach and to stretch are employed only for drawing out in a straight line, that is, lengthwise; extend may be employed to express the drawing out in all directions. In this sense a wall is said to reach a certain number of yards; a neck of land is said to stretch into the sea; a wood extends many miles over a country. As the act of persons, in the proper sense, they differ still more widely; reach and stretch signify drawing to a given point, and for a given end: extend has no such collateral meaning. We reach in order to take hold of something; we stretch in order to surmount some object: a person reaches with his arm in order to get down a book; he stretches his neck in order to see over another person: in both cases we might be said simply to extend the arm or the neck, where the collateral circumstance is not to be expressed.

In the improper application, they have a similar distinction: to reach is applied to the movements which tinction: to reach is applied to the movements which one makes to a certain end, and is equivalent to arriving at, or attaining. A traveller strives to reach his journey's end as quickly as possible; an ambitious man aims at reaching, the summit of human power or honour; 'The whole power of cunning is privative; to say nothing, and to do nothing, is the utmost of its reach.'—Junnson. To stretch is applied to the direction which one gives to another object, so as to bring it to a certain point; a ruler stretches his power or any to a certain point; a ruler stretches his power or au-

thority to its utmost limits;

Plains immense Lie stretch'd below interminable meads. THOMSON.

To extend retains its original unqualified meaning; as when we speak of extending the meaning or application of a word, of extending one's bounty or charity, extending one's sphere of action, and the like;

Our life is short, but to extend that span To vast eternity is virtue's work .- Shakspeare.

SIZE, MAGNITUDE, GREATNESS, BULK.

Size, from the Latin cisus and cædo to cut, signifies that which is cut or framed according to a certain pro portion; magnitude, from the Latin magnitude, answers literally to the English word greatness; bulk, v. Bulky.

Size is a general term including all manner of dimension or measurement; magnitude is employed in science or in an abstract sense to denote some specifick science or in an abstract sense to denote some specific measurement; greatness is an unscientifick term applied in the same sense to objects in general; size is indefinite, it never characterizes any thing either as large or small; but magnitude and greatness always suppose something great; and bulk denotes a considerable degree of greatness: things which are diminutive in size will often have an extraordinary degree of beauty, or some other adventitious perfection to compensate the deficiency;

Soon grows the pigmy to gigantick size.- DRYDEN. Astronomers have classed the stars according to their different magnitudes;

Tnen form'd the moon, Globose, and every magnitude of stars.-MILTON.

Greatness is considered by Burke as one source of the sublime; 'Awe is the first sentiment that rises in the mind at the first view of God's greatness.'—BLAIR. Bulk is that species of greatness which destroys the symmetry, and consequently the beauty, of objects;

His hugy bulk on seven high volumes roll'd. DRYDEN.

BULKY, MASSIVE OR MASSY.

Bulky denotes having bulk, which is connected with our words, belly, body, bilge, bulge, &c., and the Ger man balg; massive, in French massif, from mass, signifies having a mass or being like a mass, which, through the German masse, Latin massa, Greek μάζα dough, comes from μάσσω to knead, signifying made into a solid substance.

Whatever is bulky has a prominence of figure what is massive has compactness of matter. The bulky, therefore, though larger in size, is not so weighty as the massive; 'In Milton's time it was suspected nor animals had the height or bulk of their predecessors.'-Johnson.

> His pond'rous shield, Ethereal temper, massy, large, and round, Behind him cast.—MILTON.

Hollow bodies commonly have a bulk; none but solid bodies can be massive.

A vessel is bulky in its form; lead, silver, and gold,

LARGE, WIDE, BROAD.

Large (v. Great) is applied in a general way to express every dimension; it implies not only abundance in solid matter, but also freedom in the space, or extent of a plane superficies; wide, in German weit, is most probably connected with the French wide, and the Latin viduus empty, signifying properly an empty or open space unincumbered by any obstructions; broad, in German breit, probably comes from the noun bret, board; because it is the peculiar property of a board, that is to say, it is the width of what is particularly long. Many things are large, but not wide, as a large town, a large circle, a large ball, a large nut: other things are both large and wide; as a large field, or a wide field: a large house, or a wide house; but the field is said to be large from the quantity of ground it contains; it is said to be wide both from its figure, or the extent of its space in the cross directions; in like manner, a house is large from its extent in all direc-tions; it is said to be wide from the extent which it runs in front: some things are said to be wide which are not denominated large; that is, either such things as have less bulk and quantity than extent of plane face; as ell wide cloth, a wide opening, a wide entrance, and the like; or such as have an extent of space only one way; as a wide road, a wide path, a wide passage, and the like;

Wide was the wound, But suddenly with flesh fill'd up and heal'd. MILTON.

What is broad is in sense, and mostly in application, wide, but not vice versa: a ribbon is broad; a ledge is broad; a ditch is broad; a plank is broad; the brim of a hat is broad; or the border of any thing is broad: on the other hand, a mouth is wide, but not broad; apertures in general are wide, but not broad. The large is opposed to the small; the wide to the close; the broad to the narrow. In the moral application, we speak of largeness in regard to liberality

Shall grief contract the largeness of that heart, In which nor fear nor anger has a part?

WALLER

Wide and broad only in the figurative sense of space or size: as a wide difference; or a broad line of dis-tinction; 'The wider a man's comforts extend, the broader is the mark which he spreads to the arrows of misfortune.'-BLAIR.

GREAT, LARGE, BIG.

Great, derived through the medium of the northern languages from the Latin crassus thick, and cresco to grow, is applied to all kinds of dimensions in which things can grow or increase; large, in Latin largus wide, is probably derived from the Greek λα and ρέειν to flow plentifully; for largior signifies to give freely, and large has in English a similar sense; it is properly applied to space, extent, and quantity: big, from the German bauch belly, and the English bulk, denotes great as to expansion or capacity. A house, a room, a heap, a pile, an army, &c., is great or large; 'At one's first entrance into the Pantheon at Rome, how the imagination is filled with something great and amazing; and at the same time how little in proportion one is affected with the inside of a Gothick cathedral, although it be five times larger than the other.'-ADDIson. An animal or a mountain is great or big; a road, a city, a street, and the like, is termed rather great than large; 'An animal no bigger than a mite cannot appear perfect to the eye, because the sight takes it in at once.'—Addison. 'We are not a little pleased to find every green leaf swarm with millions

that the whole creation languished, that neither trees 1 of animals, that at their largest growth are not visible to the naked eye. —Addison. Great is used generally in the improper sense; large and big are used only occasionally: a noise, a distance, a multitude, a number, a power, and the like, is termed great, but not we may, however, speak of a large portion, a large share, a large quantity; or of a mind big with conception, or of an event big with the fate of nations; 'Among all the figures of architecture, there are none that have a greater air than the concave and the con vex."-Applson.

> Sure he that made us with such large discourse, Looking before and after, gave us not, That capability and godlike reason, To rust in us unus'd .-SHAKSPEARE.

Amazing clouds on clouds continual heap'd, Or whirl'd tempestuous by the gusty wind, Or silent borne along heavy and slow, With the big stores of streaming oceans charg'd. THOMSON.

ENORMOUS, HUGE, IMMENSE, VAST.

Enormous, from e and norma a rule, signifies out of Enormous, from e and norma a rule, signifies out of rule or order; huge is in all probability connected with high, which is hoogh in Dutch; immense, in Latin immensus, compounded of in privative and mensus measured, signifies not to be measured; vast, in French vaste, Latin vastus, from vaco to be vacant, open, or wide, signifies extended in space.

Enormous and huge are peculiarly applicable to magnitude; immense and vast to extent, quantity, and number. Enormous expresses more than huge,

as immense expresses more than vast: what is enor mous exceeds in a very great degree all ordinary bounds; what is huge is great only in the superlative degree. The enormous is always out of proportion; the huge is relatively extraordinary in its dimensions. Some animals may be made enormously fat by a parbut level ground common hills will appear to be huge mountains

The Thracian Acamus his falchion found, And hew'd the enormous giant to the ground.

Great Areathous, known from shore to shore, By the huge knotted iron mace he bore, No lance he shook, nor bent the twanging bow, But broke with this the battle of the foe.

The immense is that which exceeds all calculation. the vast comprehends only a very great or unusual excess. The distance between the earth and sun may he said to be immense: the distance between the poles is vast;

Well was the crime, and well the vengeance sparr'd, E'en power immense had found such battle hard.

Just on the brink they neigh and paw the ground, And the turf trembles, and the skies resound; Eager they view'd the prospect dark and deep, Vast was the leap, and headlong hung the steep.

Of all these terms huge is the only one confined to the proper application, and in the proper sense of size: the rest are employed with regard to moral objects. the rest are employed with regard to find objects. We speak only of a huge animal, a huge monster, a huge mass, a huge size, a huge bulk, and the like; but we speak of an enormous waste, an immense difference, and a vast number.

The epithets enormous, immense, and vast are applicable to the same objects, but with the same distinc-tion in their sense. A sum is enormous which exceeds in magnitude not only every thing known, but every thing thought of or expected; a sum is *immense* that scarcely admits of calculation: a sum is *vast* which rises very high in calculation. The national debt of England has risen to an enormous amount: the revolutionary war has been attended with an immense loss of blood and treasure to the different nations of Europe: there are individuals who, while they are expending vast sums on their own gratifications, refuse to contribute any thing to the relief of the u-cessitous

ENORMOUS, PRODIGIOUS, MONSTROUS.

Enormous, v. Enormous; prodigious comes from prodigy, in Latin prodigium, which in all probability comes from prodigo to lavish forth, signifying literally breaking out in excess or extravagance; monstrous, from monster, in Latin monstrum, and monstro to show or make visible, signifies remarkable, or exciting notice.

The enormous contradicts our rules of estimating and calculating: the prodigious raises our minds be-yond their ordinary standard of thinking: the montrous contradicts nature and the course of things. What is enormous excites our surprise or amazement;

Jove's bird on sounding pinions beat the skies,

A bleeding serpent of enormous size, His talons truss'd, alive and curling round,

He stung the bird whose throat receiv'd the wound.

What is prodigious excites our astonishment; 'I dreamed that I was in a wood of so prodigious an extent, and cut into such a variety of walks and alleys,

that all mankind were lost and bewildered in it.'—Addison. What is monstrous does violence to our senses and understanding;

Nothing so monstrous can be said or feign'd But with belief and joy is entertain'd.—DRYDEN.

There is something enormous in the present scale upon which property, whether publick or private, is amassed and expended: the works of the ancients in general, but the Egyptian pyramids in particular, are objects of admiration, on account of the prodigious labour which was bestowed on them: ignorance and superstition have always been active in producing monstrous images for the worship of its blind votaries.

LITTLE, SMALL, DIMINUTIVE.

Little, in Low German litje, Dutch lettel, is, in all probability, connected with light, in Saxon leoht, old German lihto, Swedish lätt, &c.; small is, with some variations, to be found in most of the northern dialects, in which it signifies, as in English, a contracted space or quantity; diminutive, in Latin diminutivus, signifies made small.

Little is properly opposed to the great (v. Great), small to the large, and diminutive is a species of the small, which is made so contrary to the course of things: a child is said to be little as respects its age as well as its size; it is said to be small as respects its size only; it is said to be diminutine when it is exceedingly small considering its age: little children cannot be left with safety to themselves; small children are pleasanter to be nursed than large ones: if we look down from any very great height the largest men will look diminutive; 'The talent of turning men into ridicule, and exposing to laughter those one converses with is the qualification of little, ungenerous tempers;'—Addison, 'He whose Fnowledge is at best but -Apptson. 'He whose knowledge is at best but limited, and whose intellect proceeds by a small, diminutive light, cannot but receive an additional light by the conceptions of another man.'-South.

SPACE, ROOM.

Space, in Latin spatium, Greek 5άδιον, Æol. σπάδιον a race ground; room, in Saxon rum, &c. Hebrew ramah

a wide place.

These are both abstract terms, expressive of that portion of the universe which is supposed not to be occupied by any solid body: space is a general term, which includes within itself that which infinitely surpasses our comprehension; room is a limited term, which comprehends those portions of space which are artificially formed: space is either extended or bounded; room is always a bounded space: the space between two objects is either natural, incidental, or designedly formed:

The man of wealth and pride Takes up a space that many poor supplied. GOLDSMITH.

The room is that which is the fruit of design, to suit the convenience of persons;

For the whole world, without a native home. Is nothing but a prison of a larger room. - Cowley.

There is a sufficient space between the heavenly bodies to admit of their moving without confusion; the value of a house essentially depends upon the quantity of room which it affords: in a row of trees there must always be vacant spaces between each tree; in a coach

there will be only room for a given number of persons.

Space is only taken in the natural sense; room is also employed in the moral application: in every person there is ample room for amendment or improve-

AMPLE, SPACIOUS, CAPACIOUS.

Ample, in French ample, Latin amplus, probably competent relief ample, Latin amplus, probably comes from the Greek avankéos full; spacious, in French spacieux, Latin spacious, comes from spatium a space, implying the quality of having space; capacious, in Latin capac, from capio to hold, signifies the quality of being able to hold.

These epithets convey the analogous ideas of extent in quantity, and extent in space. Ample is figuratively employed for whatever is extended in quantity; spacious is literally used for whatever is extended in space; capacious is literally and figuratively employed to express extension in both quantity and space. Stores are ample, room is ample, an allowance is ample: a room, a louse, a garden is spacious: a vessel or hollow of any kind is capacious; the soul, the mind, and the heart

are canacious.

Ample is opposed to scanty, spacious to narrow, capacious to small. What is ample suffices and satisfies; it imposes no constraint; 'The pure consciousness of worthy actions, abstracted from the views of popular applause, is to a generous mind an ample re ward.'-HUGHES. What is spacious is free and open, it does not confine;

These mighty monarchies, that had c'erspread The spacious earth, and stretch'd their conq'ring arms From pole to pole by ensnaring charms Were quite consumed .- MAY.

What is capacious readily receives and contains: it is spacious, liberal, and generous;

Down sunk, a hollow bottom broad and deep Capacious bed of waters .- MILTON.

Although sciences, arts, philosophy, and languages afford to the mass of maukind ample scope for the exercise of their mental powers without recurring to mysterious or fanciful researches, yet this world is hardly spacious enough for the range of the intellectual faculities: the capacious minds of some are no less capa ble of containing than they are disposed for receiving whatever spiritual food is offered them.

DEPTH, PROFUNDITY.

Depth, from deep, dip, or dive, the Greek δύπτω, and the Hebrew \$30 to dive, signifies the point under water which is dived for; profundity, from profound, in Latin profundus, compounded of pro or procul far, and fundus the bottom, signifies remoteness from the surface of any thing.

These terms do not differ merely in their derivation; but depth is indefinite in its signification; and pro-fundity is a positive and considerable degree of depth. Moreover, the word depth is applied to objects in general; 'By these two passions of hope and fear, we reach forward into futurity, and bring up to our pre-sent thoughts objects that lie in the remotest depths of sent thoughts opects that he in the remotest depths of time.'—Addison. Profundity is confined in its application to moral objects: thus we speak of the depth of the sea, or the depth of a person's learning; but his profundity of thought; 'The peruser of Swift will want very little previous knowledge: it will be sufficient that he is acquainted with common words and common things: he is neither required to mount elevations nor to explore profundities.'—Johnson.

OBLONG, OVAL.

Oblong, in Latin oblongus, from the intensive sylla-

Ottong, in Latin octongus, from the interester synable ob, signifies very long, longer than broad: oval, from the Latin ovum, signifies egg-shaped.

The oval is a species of the oblong: what is oval is oblong is but what is oblong is not always oval. Oblong is peculiarly applied to figures formed by right

lines, that is, all rectangular parallelograms, except | squares, are oblong: but the aval is applied to curvilinear oblong figures, as ellipses, which are distinguished from the circle: tables are oftener oblong than oval; garden beds are as frequently oval as they are oblong.

ROUNDNESS, ROTUNDITY.

Roundness and rotundity both come from the Latin rotundus and rota a wheel, which is the most perfectly round body that is formed: the former term is however applied to all objects in general; the latter only to solid bodies which are round in all directions: one speaks of the roundness of a circle, the roundness of the moon, the roundness of a tree; but the rotundity of a man's body which projects in a round form in all directions, and the rotundity of a full cheek, or the rotundity of a turnip;

Bracelets of pearls gave roundness to her arms.

Angular bodies lose their points and asperities by frequent friction, and approach by degrees to uniform rotundity.'—Johnson.

OUTWARD, EXTERNAL, EXTERIOUR.

Outward, or inclined to the out, after the manner of the out, indefinitely describes the situation; exterof the out, indefinitely describes the studation; external, from the Latin externus and extra, is more definite in its sense, since it is employed only in regard to such objects as are conceived to be independent of man as a thinking being: hence, we may speak of the outward part of a building, of a board, of a table, a box, and the like; but of external objects acting on the mind, or of an external agency; 'The controversy about the reality of external evils is now at an -Johnson. Exteriour is still more definite than either, as it expresses a higher degree of the outward or external; the former being in the comparative, and the two latter in the positive degree: when we speak of any thing which has two coats, it is usual to designate the outermost by the name of the exteriour; when we speak simply of the surface, without reference to any thing behind, it is denominated external: as the exteriour coat of a walnut, or the external surface of In the moral application the external or outward is that which comes simply to the view; but the exteriour is that which is prominent, and which consequently may conceal something:

But when a monarch sins, it should be secret,
To keep exteriour show of sanctity,
Maintain respect, and cover bad example.—DRYDEN.

A man may sometimes neglect the outside, who is altogether mindful of the in;

And though my outward state misfortune hath Depress'd thus low, it cannot reach my faith.

A man with a pleasing exteriour will sometimes gain more friends than those who have more solid merit.

INSIDE, INTERIOUR.

The term inside may be applied to bodies of any magnitude, small or large; interiour is peculiarly appropriate to bodies of great magnitude. We may speak of the inside of a nut-shell, but not of its inte We may riour: on the other hand, we speak of the interiour of St. Paul's, or the interiour of a palace; 'As for the inside of their nest, none but themselves were concerned in it, according to the inviolable laws esta-blished among those animals (the ants).'—Addison. 'The gates are drawn back, and the interiour of the fane is discovered.'—Cumberland. This difference of application is not altogether arbitrary: for inside literally signifies the side that is inward; but interiour signifies the space which is more inward than the rest, which is enclosed in an enclosure: consequently cannot be applied to any thing but a large space that is enclosed.

THICK, DENSE.

Between thick and dense there is little other difference, than that the latter is employed to express that

species of thickness which is philosophically considered as the property of the atmosphere in a certain condition; hence we speak of thick in regard to hard or soft bodies, as a thick board or thick cotton; solid or liquid, as a thick cheese or thick milk: but the term dense only in regard to the air in its various forms, as a dense air, a dense vapour, a dense cloud; 'I have discovered, by a long series of observations, that invention and elecution suffer great impediments from dense and impure vapours."—Johnson.

THIN, SLENDER, SLIGHT, SLIM.

Thin, in Saxon thinne, German dunn, Latin tener, from tendo, in Greek τείνω to extend or draw out, and the Hebrew הוסן; slender, slight, and slim are all variations from the German schlank, which are connected with the words slime and sling, as also with the German schlingen to wind or wreathe, and schlange a serpent, designating the property of length and small-ness, which is adapted for bending or twisting. Thin is the generick term, the rest are specifick: thin

may be said of that which is small and short, as well as small and long; slender is always said of that which is small and long at the same time: a board is thin which wants solidity or substance; a poplar is slender because its tallness is disproportionate to its magnitude or the dimensions of its circumference. Thinness is sometimes a natural property; slight and slim are applied to that which is artificial; the leaves of trees are of a thin texture; a board may be made slight by continually planing; a paper box is very slim. Thinness is a good property sometimes; thin paper is frequently preferred to that which is thick; slightness and slimness, which is a greater degree of slightness, are always defects; that which is made slight is unfit to bear the stress that will be put upon that which is slim is altogether unfit for the purpose proposed; a carriage that is made *slight* is quickly broken, and always out of repair; paper is altogether too slim to serve the purpose of wood.

These terms admit of a similar distinction in the moral application; 'I have found dulness to quicken into sentiment in a thin ether.'—Johnson. 'Very slender differences will sometimes part those whom beneficence has united.'- Johnson. 'Friendship is often destroyed by a thousand secret and slight competitions.'—Johnson.

TO ABATE, LESSEN, DIMINISH, DECREASE.

Abate, from the French abattre, signified originally to beat down, in the active sense, and to come down, in the neuter sense; diminish, or, as it is sometimes written, minish, from the Latin diminuo, and minuo to lessen, and minus less, expresses, like the verb lessen, the sense of either making less or becoming less; decrease is compounded of the privative de and crease, in Latin cresco to grow, signifying to grow less. The first three are used transitively or intransitively;

the latter only intransitively.

Abate respects the vigour of action: a person's fever Adotte respects the vigori of action: a person's rever is abated or abates; the violence of the storin abates; pain and anger abate; 'My wonder abated, when upon looking around me, I saw most of them attentive to three Syrens clothed like goddesses, and distinguished by the names of Sloth, Ignorance, and Pleasure.—
Addison. Lessen and diminish are both applied to size, quantity, and number; but the former mostly in the proper and familiar sense, the latter in the figurative and higher acceptation; the size of a room or garden is lessened; the credit and respectability of a person is diminished.

Nothing is so calculated to abate the ardour of youth as grief and disappointment; 'Tully was the first who observed that friendship improves happiness and abates misery. —Addison. An evil may be lessened when it cannot be removed by the application of remedies:

He sought fresh fountains in a foreign soil;

The pleasure lessened the attending toil. - Apprison. Nothing diminishes the lustre of great deeds more Nothing unimates the instance of persons than cruelty. 'If Parthenissa can now possess herown mind, and think as little of her beauty, as she ought to have done when she had it, there will be no grea diminution of her charms.'—HUOHES.

The passion of an angry man ought to be allowed to | office which they derive from their original meaning: abute before any appeal is made to his understanding; we may lessen the number of our evils by not dwelling upon them. Objects apparently diminish according to the distance from which they are observed.

To decrease is to diminish for a continuance:

retreating army will decrease rapidly when exposed to all the privations and hardships attendant on forced marches, it is compelled to fight for its safety: things decrease so gradually that it is some time before they are observed to be diminished;

These leaks shall then decrease; the sails once more Direct our course to some relieving shore

FALCONER.

In the abstract sense the word lessening is mostly supplied by diminution: it will be no abatement of sorrow to a generous mind to know that the diminution of evil to itself has been produced by the abridgment of good to another.

TO OVERFLOW, INUNDATE, DELUGE.

What overflows simply flows over; what inundates, from in and unda a wave, flows into; what deluges,

from diluo, washes away.

The overflow bespeaks abundance; whatever exceeds the measure of contents must flow over, because it is more than can be held: to inundate bespeaks not only abundance, but vehemence; when it inundates it flows in faster than is desired, it fills to an inconvenient height: to deluge bespeaks impetuosity; a deluge irresistibly carries away all before it. This explanation of these terms in their proper sense will illustrate their improper application: the heart is said to overflow with joy, with grief, with bitterness, and the like, in order to denote the superabundance of the thing; 'I am too full of you not to overflow upon those I converse with.'-Pope. A country is said to be in-undated by swarms of inhabitants, when speaking of numbers who intrude themselves to the annoyance of the natives; 'There was such an inundation of speakers, young speakers in every sense of the word, that neither my Lord Germaine, nor myself, could find room for a single word.'—Gibbon. The town is said to be deluged with publications of different kinds, when they appear in such profusion and in such quick succession as to supersede others of more value

At length corruption, like a general flood, Shall deluge all.—Pore.

TO FLOW, STREAM, GUSH.

Flow, in Latin fluo, and Greek βλύω or φλύω, to be in a ferment, is in all probability connected with δέω, which signifies literally to flow; stream, in German strömen, from riemen a thong, signifies to run in a line; gush comes from the German giessen, &c. to

pour out with force.

Flow is here the generick term: the two others are specifick terms expressing different modes: water may flow either in a large body or in a long but narrow course; the stream in a long, narrow course only: thus, waters frow in seas, rivers, rivulets, or in a small pond; they stream only out of pouts or small channels; they flow gently or otherwise; they stream gently; but they gush with violence: thus, the blood flows from a wound when it comes from it in any manner; it streams from a wound when it runs as it were in a channel; it gushes from a wound when it runs with impetuosity, and in as large quantities as the cavity admits;

Down his wan cheek a briny torrent flows .- POPE. Fires stream in lightning from his sanguine eyes. POPE.

Sunk in his sad companions' arms he lay, And in short pantings sobb'd his soul away (Like some vile worm extended on the ground), While his life's torrent gush'd from out the wound.

Pope.

FLUID, LIQUID.

Fluid, from fluo to flow, signifies that which from Its nature flows; liquid, from liquesco to melt, signifies that which is melted. These words may be employed as epithets to the same objects; but they have a distinct when we wish to represent a thing as capable of pas ing along in a stream or current, we should denominate it a fluid;

Or serve they as a flow'ry verge to bind The fluid skirts of that same wat'ry cloud, Lest it again dissolve, and show'r the earth

MILTON.

When we wish to represent the body as passing from a congealed to a dissolved state, we should name it a

As when the fig's press'd juice, infus'd in cream, To curds coagulates the liquid stream. - POPE.

Water and air are both represented as fluids from their general property of flowing through certain spaces; but ice when thawed becomes a liquid and melts; lead when melted is also a liquid: the humours of the animal body, and the juices of trees, are fluids; what we drink is a liquid, as opposed to what we eat which is solid.

LIQUID, LIQUOR, JUICE, HUMOUR.

Liquid (v. Fluid) is the generick term: liquor, which is but a variation from the same Latin verb, liquesco, whence liquid is derived, is a liquid which is made to be drunk: juice, in French jus, is a liquid that issues from bodies; and humour, in Latin humor, from humeo, and the Greek v_{ω} to rain, is a species of liquid which flows in bodies and forms a constituent part of them. All natural bodies consist of liquids or solids, or a combination of both;

How the bee Sits on the bloom, extracting liquid sweet.

Liquor serves to quench the thirst as food satisfies the

They who Minerva from Jove's head derive, Might make old Homer's scull the muse's hive, And from his brain that Helicon distill, Whose racy liquor did his offspring fill.—DENHAM.

The juices of bodies are frequently their richest parts:

Give me to drain the cocoa's milky bowl, And from the palm to draw its freshening wine, More bounteous far than all the frantick juice Which Bacchus pours .- THOMSON.

The humours are commonly the most important parts of any animal body; 'The perspicuity of the humours of the eye transmit the rays of light.'—STRLE. Liquid and liquor belong peculiarly to vegetable substances; humour to animal bodies; and juice to either; water is the simplest of all liquids; when is the most inviting of all liquors; the orange produces the most agreeable juice; the hamours of both men and brutes are most liable to corruption, whence the term is very frequently applied to fluids of the body when in a corrupt state: 'He denied himself nothing that he had a mind to eat or drink, which gave nim a body full of humours, and made his fits of the gout frequent and violent. — Temple.

STREAM, CURRENT, TIDE.

A fluid body in a progressive motion is the object described in common by these terms; stream is the most general, the other two are but modes of the stream; stream, in Saxon stream, in German strom, is an onomatopeta which describes the prolongation of any body in a narrow line along the surface: a current from curro to run, is a running stream; and a tide from tide, in German zeit time, is a periodical stream or current. All rivers are streams which are more or less gentle according to the nature of the ground through which they pass; the force of the current is very much increased by the confinement of any water between rocks or by received a spriseful invading the confinement of any water between rocks, or by means of artificial impediments. The tide is high or low, strong or weak, at different hours of the day; when the tide is high the current is strongest.

From knowing the proper application of the terms their figurative use becomes obvious; a stream of air, or a stream of light is a prolonged body of air or light a current of air is a continued stream that has rapid motion; streets and passages which are open at each extremity are the channels of such currents. In the moral sense the tide is the ruling fashion or propensity of the day; it is in vain to stem the tide of folly; it is wiser to get out of its reach;

When now the rapid stream of eloquence Bears all before it, passion, reason, sense, Can its dread thunder, or its lightning's force, Derive their essence from a mortal source.

JENYNS.

With secret course, which no loud storms amoy, Glides the smooth current of domestick joy.

GOLDSMITH.

There is a tide in the affairs of men, Which taken at the flood leads on to fortune.

SHAKSPEARE.

SPRING, FOUNTAIN, SOURCE.

The spring denotes that which springs; the word, therefore, carries us back to the point from which the water issues. Fountain, in Latin fons, from fundo to pour out, signifies the spring which is visible on the the earth: and source (v. Origin) is said of that which is not only visible, but runs along the earth. Springs are to be found by digging a sufficient depth in all parts of the earth: in mountainous countries, and also in the East, we read of fountains which form themselves, and supply the surrounding parts with refreshing streams: the sources of rivers are always to be traced to some mountains.

These terms are all used in a figurative sense; in the Bible the gospel is depictured as a spring of living waters; the eye as a fountain of tears; 'The heart of the citizen is a perennial spring of energy to the state.'——RURBE.

Eternal king! the author of all being. Fountain of light, thyself invisible.—MILTON.

In the general acceptation the source is taken for the channel through which any event comes to pass, the primary cause of its happening: a war is the source of many evils to a country; an imprudent step in the outset of life is oftentimes the source of ruin to a young person;

These are thy blessings, industry! rough power! Yet the kind source of every gentle art.—Thomson.

TO SPRINKLE, BEDEW.

To sprinkle is a frequentative of spring, and denotes either an act of nature or design: to bedew is to cover with dew, which is an operation of nature. By sprinkling, a liquid falls in sensible drops upon the earth; by bedewing, it covers by imperceptible drops: rain besprinkles the earth; dew bedews it. So likewise, aguratively, things are sprinkled with flour; the cheeks are bedewed with tears.

TO SPROUT, BUD.

Sprout, in Saxon sprytan, Low German sprouyten, is doubtless connected with the German spritzen to spurt, spretten to spread, and the like; to bud is to put forth buds; the noun bud is a variation from button, which it resembles in form. To sprout is to come forth from the stem; to bud, to put forth in buds.

TO SPURT, SPOUT.

To spurt and spout are, like the German spritzen, variations of spreiten to spread (v. To spread), and springen to spring (v. To arise); they both express the idea of sending forth liquid in small quantities from a cavity; the former, however, does not always include the idea of the cavity, but simply that of springing up; the latter is however confined to the circumstance of issuing forth from some place; dirt may be spurted in the face by means of kicking it up; or blood may be spurted out of a vein when it is opened, water out of the mouth, and the like; but a liquid spouts out from a pipe. To spurt is a sudden action arising from a momentary impetus given to a liquid either intentionally or incidentally; the beer will spurt from a barrel when the vent peg is removed: to spout is a continued action produced by a perpetual impetus which the liquid receives equally from design or accident; the

water spouts out from a pipe which is denominated a spout, or it will spurt out from any cavity in the earth, or in a rock which may resemble a spout;

Far from the parent stream it boils again Fresh into day, and all the glittering hill Is bright with spouting rills.—Thomson.

A person may likewise spout water in a stream from his mouth. Hence the figurative application of these terms; any sudden conceit which compels a person to an eccentrick action is a spurt, particularly if it springs from ill-humour or caprice; a female will sometimes take a spurt and treat her intimate friends very coidly, either from a fancied offence or a fancied superiority; to spout, on the other hand, is to send forth a stream of words in imitation of the stream of liquid, and is applied to those who affect to turn speakers, in whom there is commonly more sound than sense.

TO PLUNGE, DIVE.

Flunge is but a variation of pluck, pull, and the Latin pello to drive or force forward; dive is but a variation of dip, which is, under various forms, to be found in the northern languages.

One plunges sometimes in order to dive; but one

One plunges sometimes in order to dive; but one may plunge without diving, and/one may dive without plunging: to plunge is to dart head foremost into the water: to dive is to go to the bottom of the water, or towards it: it is a good practice for bathers to plunge into the water when they first go in, although it is not advisable for them to dive; ducks frequently dive into the water without ever plunging. Thus far they differ in their natural sense; but in the figurative application they differ more widely: to plunge, in this case is an act of rashness: to dive is an act of design: a young man hurried away by his passions will plunge into every extravagance when he comes into possession of his estate; 'The French plunged themselves into these calamities they suffer, to prevent themselves from settling into a British constitution.'—Burke. People of a prying temper seek to dive into the secrets of others;

How he did seem to dive into their hearts With humble and familiar courtesy.

SHAKSPEARE.

WAVE, BILLOW, SURGE, BREAKER.

Wave, from the Saxon waegan, and German wiegen to weigh or rock, is applied to water in an undulating state; it is, therefore, the generick term, and the rest are specifick terms;

The wave behind impels the wave before.—Pops.

Those waves which swell more than ordinarily are termed billows, which is derived from bulge or bilge, and German balg, the panneth or belly;

I saw him beat the billows under him, And ride upon their backs.—SHARSPEARE.

Those waves which rise higher than usual are termed surges, from the Latin surge to rise;

He flies aloft, and with impetuous roar Pursues the foaming surges to the shore.

DRYDEN.

Those waves which dash against the shore, or against vessels with more than ordinary force, are termed breakers;

Now on the mountain wane on high they ride, Then downward plunge beneath th' involving tide,

Till one who seems in agony to strive
The whirling breakers heave on shore alive.

FALCONER.

BREEZE, GALE, BLAST, GUST, STORM, TEMPEST, HURRICANE. All these words express the action of the wind, in

spurted out of a vein when it is opened, water out of the mouth, and the like; but a liquid spouts out from a pipe. To spurt is a sudden action a frising from a momentary impetus given to a liquid either intention-ally or incidentally; the beer will spurt from a barrel when the vent peg is removed: to spout is a continued action produced by a perpetual impetus which the fliquid receives equally from design or accident; the

landish origin, and expresses the phenomena which are characteristick of the northern climates; but in all probability it is a variation of gush, signifying a violent stream of wind; storm, in German sturm, from stören op ut in commotion, like gust, describes the phenomenon of northern climates; tempest, in Latin tempestus, or tempus a time or season, describes that season or sort of weather which is most remarkable, but at the same time most frequent, in southern climates; hurricane has been introduced by the Spaniards into European languages from the Caribee islands; where it describes that species of tempestuous wind, most frequent in the tropical climates.

A breeze is gentle; a gale is brisk, but steady; we have breezes in a calm summer's day: the mariner has favourable gales which keep the sails on the stretch;

Gradual sinks the breeze Into a perfect calm. - Thomson.

What happy gale
Blows you to Padua here from old Verona?
SHARSPEARE.

A blast is impetuous; the exhalations of a trumpet, the breath of bellows, the sweep of a violent wind, are blasts. A gust is sudden and vehement; gusts of wind are sometimes so violent as to sweep every thing before then while they last;

As when fierce northern blasts from th' Alps descend,

From his firm roots with struggling gusts to rend An aged sturdy oak, the rustling sound Grows loud.—Denham.

Storm, tempest, and hurricane include other particulars besides wind.

A storm throws the whole atmosphere into commotion; it is a war of the elements, in which wind, rain, hail, and the like, conspire to disturb the heavens; tempest is a species of storm, which has also thunder and lightning to add to the confusion. Hurricane is a species of storm, which exceeds all the rest in violence and duration:

Through storms and tempests so the sailor drives, While every element in combat strives; Lond roars the thunder, fierce the lightning flies, Winds wildly rage, and billows tear the skies.

Shirley.

So where our wide Numidian wastes extend, Sudden th' impetuous hurricanes descend, Wheels through the air in circling eddies play, Tear up the sands, and sweep whole plains awny,

Gust, storm, and tempest, which are applied figuratively, preserve their distinction in this sense. The passions are exposed to gusts and storms, to sudden bursts, or violent and continued agitations; the soul is exposed to tempests when agitated with violent and contending emotions;

Stay these sudden gusts of passion, That hurry you away.—Rowe.

I burn, I burn! The storm that 's in my mind Kindles my heart, like fires provok'd by wind.

All deaths, all tortures, in one pang combin'd, Are gentle, to the tempest of my mind.—Thomson.

TO HEAVE, SWELL.

Heave is used either transitively or intransitively, as a reflective or a neuter verb; swell is used only as a neuter verb. Heave implies raising, and swell implies distension: they differ therefore very widely in sense, but they sometimes agree in application. The bosom is said both to heave and to swell; because it happens that the bosom swells by heaving; the waves are likewise said to heave themselves or to swell, in which there is a similar correspondence between the actions: otherwise most things which heave do not swell, and those which swell do not heave;

He heaves for breath, he staggers to and fro, And clouds of issuing smoke his nostrils loudly blow.

Meantime the mountain billows to the clouds, In dreadful tumult, swell'd surge above surge. Тиомsом.

TO LIFT, HEAVE, HOIST.

Lift is in all probability contracted from levatus participle of leva to lift, which comes from levis light, because what is light is easily borne up; heave, in Saxon heavian, German heben, &c. comes from the absolute particle ha, signifying high, because to heave is to set upon high; hoist, in French hausser, Low German hissen, is a variation from the same source as heave.

The idea of making high is common to all these words, but they differ in the objects and the circumstances of the action; we lift, with or without an effort; we heave and hoist always with an effort; we lift a child up to let him see any thing more distinctly; workmen heave the stones or beams which are used in a building; sailors hoist the long boat into the water. To lift and hoist are transitive verbs; they require an agent and an object: heave is intransitive, it may have an inanimate object for an agent: a person lifts his hand to his head; when whales are killed, they are hoisted into vessels: the bosom heaves when it is oppressed with sorrow, the waves of the sea heave when they are agitated by the wind;

What god so during in your aid to move, Or lift his hand against the force of Jove?—Porg. Murni'ring they move, as when old Ocean roars, And heaves huge surges to the trembling shores.

The reef enwrap'd, th' inserted knittles tied, To hoist the shorten'd sail again they tried. FALCONER.

TO LIFT, RAISE, ERECT, ELEVATE, EXALT.

Lift, v. To lift; raise, signifies to cause to rise; erect, in Latin erectus, participle of crigo, or e and rego, probably from the Greek $\delta o \delta \gamma \omega$, signifies literally to extend or set forth in the height; elevate is a variation from the same source as lift; exalt comes from the Latin altus high, and the Hebrew olah to ascend, and signifies to cause to be high (v.High). The idea of making one thing higher than another

The idea of making one thing higher than another is common to these verbs, which differ in the circumstances of the action. To Uft is to take off from the ground, or from any spot where it is supposed to be fixed; to rasise and erect are to place in a higher position, while in contact with the ground: we Uft up a stool; we raise a chair, by giving it longer legs; we erect a monument by heaping one stone on another;

Now rosy morn ascends the court of Jove, Lifts up her light, and opens day above.—Pope. Such a huge bulk as not twelve bards could raise, Twelve starveling bards of these degenerate days.

Twelve starveling bards of these degenerate days.

Pope
From their assistance happier walls expect,
Which, wand'ring long, at last thou shall erect.

Whatever is to be carried is lifted; whatever is to be situated higher is to be raised; whatever is to be constructed above other objects is erected. A ladder is lifted upon the shoulders to be conveyed from one place to another; a standard ladder is raised against a building; a scaffolding is erected.

These terms are likewise employed in a moral ac ceptation; exalt and elevate are used in no other sense. Lift expresses figuratively the artificial action of setting aloft; as in the case of lifting a person into notice: to raise preserves the idea of making higher by the accession of wealth, honour, or power; as in the case of persons who are raised from begal v to a state of affluence: to erect retains its idea of artificially constructing, so as to produce a solid as well as lofty mass; as in the case of erecting a tribunal, erecting a system of spiritual dominion. A person cannot be himself, but he may raise himself; individuals lift or raise up each other; but communities, or those only who are invested with power, have the opportunity of erecting.

To lift is seldom used in a good sense; to raise is used in a good or an indifferent sense; to elevate and exalt are always used in the best sense. A person is seldom lifted up for any good purpose, or from any merit in himself; it is commonly to suit the ends of party that people are lifted into notice, or lifted into

office; on the same ground, if a person is lifted up in his own imagination, it is only his pride which gives him the devotion; 'Our successes have been great, and our hearts have been much lifted up by them, so that we have reason to humble ourselves. -ATTER-BURY. A person may be raised for his merits, or raise himself by his industry, in both which cases he is entitled to esteem; or he may with propriety be raised in the estimation of himself or others;

Rais'd in his mind the Trojan hero stood, And long'd to break from out his ambient cloud. DRYDEN.

One is elevated by circumstances, but still more so by one's character and moral qualities; one is rarely exalted but by means of superiour endowments; ' Prudence operates on life in the same manner as rules on composition; it produces vigilance rather than elevation.'-JOHNSON

A creature of a more exalted kind Was wanting yet, and then was man design'd. DRYDEN.

To elevate may be the act of individuals for themselves; to exalt must be the act of others. There are some to whom elevation of rank is due, and others who require no adventitious circumstances to elevate them; the world have always agreed to exalt great power, great wisdom, and great genius.

HIGH, TALL, LOFTY.

High, in German hoch, &c. comes in all probability from the Hebrew 228, the king of the Amalekites, so called on account of his size, and is connected with the Latin gigas; tall, in Welch tal, is derived by Davis from the Hebrey of the elevate; lofty is doubtless derived from bift, and that from the Latin levatus raised.

High is the term in most general use, which seems likewise in the most unqualified manner to express the idea of extension upwards, which is common to them all. Whatever is tall and lofty is high, but every thing is not tall or lofty which is high. Tall and lofty both designate a more than ordinary degree of height but tall is peculiarly applicable to what shoots up or stands up in a perpendicular direction: while lofty is said of that which is extended in breadth as well as in height; that which is lifted up or raised by an accretion of matter or an expansion in the air. By this rule we say that a house is high, a chimney tall, a room lofty.

Trees are in general said to be high which exceed the ordinary standard of height; they are opposed to the low ;

High at their head he saw the chief appear, And bold Merion to excite their rear .- Pops.

A poplar is said to be tall, not only from its exceeding other trees in height, but from its perpendicular and spiral manner of growing is opposed to that which is bulky;

Prostrate on earth their beauteous bodies lay, Like mountain firs, as tall and straight as they

A man and a horse are likewise said to be tall: but a A final and a folse are however each to be cate; but a bedge, a desk, and other common objects, are high. A fill is high, but a mountain is lofty; churches are in general high, but the steeples or the domes of cathedrals are lofty, and their spires are tall;

E'en now, O king! 't is giv'n thee to destroy The lofty tow'rs of wide-extended Troy.—Pope.

With the high is associated no idea of what is striking; but the tall is coupled with the aspiring or that which strives to out-top: the lofty is always coupled with the grand, and that which commands

High and lofty have a moral acceptation, but tall is taken in the natural sense only: high and lofty are applied to persons or what is personal, with the same difference in degree as before: a lofty title or lofty pretension conveys more than a high title or a high pretension. Men of high rank should have high ideas of virtue and personal dignity, and keep themselves clear from every thing low and mean;

When you are tried in scandai's court, Stand high in honour, wealth, or wit, All others who inferiour sit Conceive themselves in conscience bound

To join and drag you to the ground.-Swift. A lofty ambition often soars too high to serve the purpose of its possessor, whose fall is the greater when

he finds himself compelled to descend; Without thee, nothing lofty can I sing; Come, then, and with thyself thy genius tring. DRYDEN.

TO HEIGHTEN, RAISE, AGGRAVATE.

To heighten is to make higher (v. Haughty). To raise is to cause to rise (v. To arise). To aggravate (v. To aggravate) is to make heavy. Heighten refers more to the result of the action of making higher; raise to the mode: we heighten a house by raising the roof; as raising conveys the idea of setting up aloft, which is not included in the word heighten; 'Purity and virtue heighten all the powers of fruition.' -Blair. On the same ground a headdress may be said to be heightened, which is made higher than it was before; and a chair or a table is raised that is set upon something else: but in speaking of a wall, we may say, that it is either heightened or raised, because the operation and result must in both cases be the same; 'I would have our conceptions raised by the dignity of thought and sublimity of expression, rather than by a train of robes or a plume of feathers.'-Addison. In the improper sense of these terms they preserve a similar distinction: we heighten the value of a thing; we raise its price: we heighten the grandeur of an object; we raise a family.

Heighten and aggravate have connexion with each other only in application to offences: the enormity of an offence is heightened, the guilt of the offender is aggravated by particular circumstances. The horrours of a murder are heightened by being committed in the dead of the night; the guilt of the perpetuator is aggravated by the addition of ingratitude to murder; 'The counsels of pusillanimity are very rarely put off, while they are always sure to aggravate the evils from which they would fly.'—Burke.

TO ANIMATE, INSPIRE, ENLIVEN, CHEER, EXHILARATE.

To animate is to give life (v. To encourage); inspire, in French inspirer, Latin inspire, compounded of in and spire, signifies to breathe life or spirit into any one; enliven, from en or in and liven, has the same sense; cheer, in French chère, l'lemish cière the countenance, Greek xapa joy, signifies the giving joy or spirit; exhilarate, in Latin exhilaratus, participle of exhilaro, from hilaris, Greek ίλαρος joyful, Hebrew

to exult or leap for joy, signifies to make glad.

Animate and inspire imply the communication of the vital or mental spark; enliven, cheer, and exhilarate signify actions on the mind or body. To be ani-mated, in its physical sense, is simply to receive the first spark of animal life in however small a degree; for there are animated beings in the world possessing the vital power in an infinite variety of degrees and forms;

Through subterranean cells Where searching sunbeams scarce can find a way, Earth animated heaves .- Thomson.

To be animated in the moral sense is to receive the smallest portion of the sentient or thinking faculty; which is equally varied in thinking beings: animation which is equally varied in thinking beings: animation therefore never conveys the idea of receiving any strong degree of either physical or moral feeling; 'The more to animate the people, he stood on high, from whence he might best be heard, and cried unto them with a loud voice.'—KNOLLES. To inspire, on the contrary, expresses the communication of a strong moral sentiment or passion: hence to animate with courage is a less forcible expression than to inspire with courage: we likewise speak of inspiring with emulation or a thirst for knowledge; not of animating with emulation or a thirst for knowledge;

Each gentle breast with kindly warmth she moves, Inspires new flames, revives extinguished loves DRYDEN, ON MAY

To enliven respects the mind; cheer relates to the heart; exhibarate regards the spirits, both animal and mental; they all denote an action on the frame by the mental; they all denote an action on the frame by the communication of pleasmable emotions: the mind is enlivened by contemplating the scenes of nature; the imagination is enlivened by the reading of poetry;

To grace each subject with enlivening wit.

The benevolent heart is cheered by witnessing the happiness of others; 'The creation is a perpetual feast to a good man; every thing he sees cheers and delights him.'—Addisons. The spirits are exhibitanted by the convivialities of social life;

Nor rural sights alone, but rural sounds Exhilarate the spirit.—Cowper.

Conversation enlivens society; the conversation of a kind and considerate friend cheers the drooping spirits in the moments of trouble; unexpected good news is apt to exhilarate the spirits.

ANIMATION, LIFE, VIVACITY, SPIRIT.

Animation and life do not differ either in sense or application, but the latter is more in familiar use. hey express either the particular or general state of the mind; vivacity and spirit express only the habit-

ual nature and state of the feelings.

A person of no animation is divested of the distinguishing characteristick of his nature, which is mind: a person of no vivacity is a dull companion: a person of no spirit is unfit to associate with others.

A person with animation takes an interest in every thing; a vivacious man catches at every thing that is pleasant and interesting: a spirited man enters into plans, makes great exertions, and disregards difficul-

A speaker may address his audience with more or less animation according to the disposition in which he finds it; 'The British have a lively, animated aspect.'-STEELE. A painter may be said by his skill to throw life into his picture;

The very dead creation from thy touch Assumes a mimick life.—Thomson,

A man of a vivacious temper diffuses his vivacity into all his words and actions; 'His vivacity is seen in doing all the offices of life, with readliess of spirit, and propriety in the manner of doing them.'—Strell A man of spirit suits his measures to the exigency of his circumstances:

Farewell the big war, The spirit-stirring drum, th' ear-piercing fife. SHAKSPEARE.

LIFELESS, DEAD, INANIMATE.

Lifeless and dead suppose the absence of life where nanmate; We may in some sort to said to have a society even with the inanimate world.'—Burke. Lifeless is negative; it signifies simply without life, or the vital spark: dead is positive; it denotes an actual and perfect change in the object. We may speak of a lifeless corpse, when speaking of a body which sinks from a state of animation into that of inanimation ;

Nor can his lifeless nostril please, With the once ravishing smelt.—Cowley.

We speak of dead bodies to designate such as have undergone an entire change; 'A brute and a man are another thing, when they are alive and when they are dead."—HALES. A person, therefore, in whom animation is suspended, is, for the time being, lifeless, in appearance at least, although we should not say dead.

In the moral acceptation, lifeless and inanimate In the moral acceptation, typewes and transmate respect the spirits; dead respects the moral feeling. A person is said to be lifeless who has lost the spirits which he once had; he is said to be inaximate when he is naturally wanting in spirits; a person who is lifeless is unfitted for enjoyment; he who is dead to

moral sentiment i otally bereft of the essential properties of his nal e. The epithet dead is sometimes of having the stillness of death;

How dead the

etable kingdom lies!-Thomson

TO CHEEL ENCOURAGE, COMFORT.

Cheer has the same signification as given under the head of To animate; encourage, compounded of en and courage, signifies to inspite with courage; comfort, compounded of com or cum, and fortis strong, signifies to invigorate or strengthen.

To cheer regards the spirits; to encourage the resolution: the sad require to be cheered; the timid to be encouraged. Mirthful company is suited to cheer those who labour under any depression; ' Every eye best ws the cheering look of approbation upon the humble man.'—Cumberland. The prospect of success encourages those who have any object to obtain; 'Complaisance produces good nature and mutual benevo-lence, encourages the timorous, sooths the turbulent, humanizes the fierce, and distinguishes a society of civilized persons from savages.'-Addison.

To cheer and comfort have both regard to the spirits, but the latter differs in degree and manner; to cheer expresses more than to comfort; the former signifying to produce a lively sentiment, the latter to lessen or remove a painful one: we are cheered in the moments of despondency, whether from real or ina-ginary causes; we are comforted in the hour of dis-

Sleep seldom visits sorrow, When it does, it is a comforter.—Shakspeare.

Cheering is mostly effected by the discourse of others; comforting is effected by the actions, as well others; comforting is elected by the actions, as well as the words, of others. Nothing tends more to cheer the drooping soul than endearing expressions of tenderness from those we love; the most effectual means of comforting the poor and afflicted, is by relieving their wants; 'There are writers of great distinction who have made it an argument for providence, that the whole earth is covered with green, rather than with any other colour, as being such a right mixture of light and shade, that comforts and strengthens the eye, instead of weakening or grieving it.'—Addison. The voice of the benevolent man is cheering to the aching heart; his looks encourage the sufferer to disclose his griefs; his hand is open to administer relief and com fort.

TO CONSOLE, SOLACE, COMFORT

Console and solace are derived from the same source, in French consoler, Latin consolor and solution, possibly from solum the ground, which nourishes all things; to comfort signifies to afford comfort (v. To cheer).

Console and solace denote the relieving of pain: comfort marks both the communication of positive pleasure and the relief of pain. We console others with words; we console or solace ourselves with reflections; we comfort by words or deeds. Console is used on more important occasions than solace. console our friends when they meet with afflictions; we solace ourselves when we meet with disasters; we comfort those who stand in need of comfort.

The greatest consolation which we can enjoy on the

death of our friends is derived from the hope that they have exchanged a state of imperfection and sorrow for one that is full of pure and unmixed felicity; afflictions men generally draw their consolation out of books of morality, which indeed are of great use to fortify and strengthen the mind against the impressions of sorrow.'-Addison. It is no small solare to us in the midst of all our troubles, to consider that they are the miss of all our troubles, to consider that they are not so bad as that they might not have been worse; 'He that undergoes the fatigue of labour must solace his weariness with the contemplation of its reward.'—Johnson. The comforts which a person enjoys may be considerably enhanced by the comparison with what he has formerly suffered; 'If our afflic tions are light, we shall be comforted by the comparison we make bet even ourselves and our fellow-suf ferers.'—Addison.

COMFORT, PLEASURE.

Comfort (v. To cheer), that grouine English word, describes what England only alfords: we may find pleasure in every country; but comfort is to be found in our own country only: the grand feature in comfort is substantiality; in that of pleasure is warmth. Pleasure is warmth. Pleasure is warmth a pleasure is the lot of hamanity that to every pleasure there should be an alloy: comfort is that portion of pleasure which seems to lie exempt from this disadvantage; it is the most durable soit of pleasure. Comfort must be sought for at home; pleasure is

Comfort must be sought for at home; pleasure is pursued abroad: comfort depends upon a thousand nameless trifles which daily arise; it is the relief of a pain, the heightening of a gratification, the supply of a want, or the removal of an inconvenience;

Thy growing virtues justified my cares, And promis'd comfort to my silver hairs.—Pope.

Pleasure is the companion of luxury and abundance; it dwells in the palaces of the rich and the abodes of the voluptuary: but comfort is within the reach of the poorest, and the portion of those who know how to husband their means, and to adapt their enjoyments to their habits and circumstances in life. Comfort is less than pleasure in the detail; it is more than pleasure in the aggregate.

SYMPATHY, COMPASSION, COMMISERATION, CONDOLENCE.

Sympathy, from the Greek σv_μ or σv_ν with, and σv_μ and σv_μ is a shindred or like feeling, or feeling in company with another. Compassion, from com and patior suffer; commiscration, from the Latin com and missera misery; condolence, from the Latin com and misera may be said either of pleasure or pain, the rest only of that which is painful. Sympathy preserves its original meaning in its application, for we laugh or cry by sympathy; this may, however, be only a merely physical affection; 'You are not young, no more am I; go to, then, there's sympathy; you are merry, so am I; ha! ha! then there's more sympathy; you love sack, and so do I; would you!—Shakspeare. Hence it is that the word sympathy may be taken for a secret alliance or kindred feeling between two minds or between the mind and other objects;

Or sympathy or some connatural force, Powerful at greatest distance to unite, With secret amity, things of like kind, By secretest conveyance.—MILTON.

That mind and body often sympathize Is plain; such is this union nature ties.—Jenyns.

But sympathy when taken in a sense the most closely allied to compassion, does not go beyond the feeling another's pleasures or pains; we may sympathize with others without essentially serving them; 'Their countrymen were particularly attentive to all their story, and sympathized with their heroes in all their adventures.'—ADDISON. Compassion, on the other hand, not only a moral, but an active feeling; if we feel compassion, we naturally turn our thoughts towards relieving the object;

'Mong those whom honest lives can recommend, Our justice more compassion should extend.

Compassion is awakened by any sort of suffering, but particularly those which are attributable to nisfortune; "The good-natured man is apt to be moved with compassion for those misfortunes and infirmities, which another would turn into ridicule."—ADDISON. Commisseration is a stronger feeling awakened by deep distress, above all by the troubles which people bring on themselves; a criminal going to suffer the penalty of the law demands commiseration;

iaw demands commescration;
She indeed weeping; and her lovely plight
Immoveable, till peace obtain'd from fault
Acknowledg'd and deplor'd, in Adam wrought
Commiscration.—Milton.

And the calamities of human life equally call for commiseration: Then must we those who groan beneath the weight Of age, disease, or want, commiscrate?—Denham.

Compassion may be awakened in the minds of persons of very unequal condition; commiseration supposes a certain distance, at least in the external condition of the parties; he who commiserates being set above the chance of falling into the calamities of him who is commiserated: whence it is represented as the feeling which our wretchedness excites in the Supreme Being, Condolence supposes an entire equality; it excludes every thing but what flows out of the couriesy and good-will of one friend to another, and is called forth by events which the parties on either side are equally exposed to; we condole with a person on the death of a relative; 'Why should I think that all that devout multitude, which so lately cried Hosanna in the streets, did not also bear their part in these publick condolings (on the crucifixion of our Saviour)."—HALL.

Rather than all must suffer, some must die, Yet nature must condole their misery.—Denham

GRACIOUS, MERCIFUL, KIND.

Gracious, when compared to merciful, is used only in the spiritual sense; the latter is applicable to the conduct of man as well as of the Deity.

Grace is exerted in doing good to an object that has

Grace is exerted in doing good to an object that has merited the contrary; mercy is exerted in withholding the evil which has been merited. God is gracious to his creatures in affording them not only an opportunity to address him, but every encouragement to lay open their wants to him; their unworthiness and sinfulness are not made impediments of access to him. God is merciful to the vilest of sinners, and lends an ear to the smallest breath of repentance; in the moment of executing vengeance he stops his arm at the voice of supplication: he expects the same mercy to be extended by man towards his offending brother.

Grace, in the lofty sense in which it is here admitted, cannot with propriety be made the attribute of any human being, however elevated his rank: nothing short of infinite wisdom as well as goodness can be supposed capable of doing good to offenders without producing ultimate evil;

He heard my vows, and graciously decreed
My grounds to be restor'd, my former flocks to feed.

DRYDEN.

Were a king to attempt any display of grace by bestowing favours on criminals, his conduct would be highly injurious to the interests of society; but when we speak of the Almighty as dispensing his goods to sinners, and even courting them by every act of endearment to lay aside their sins, we clearly perceive that this difference arises from the infinite disparity between him and us; which makes that "his ways are not our ways, nor are his thoughts our thoughts." I am inclined therefore to think that in our language we have made a peculiarly just distinction between grace and mercy, by confining the former to the acts of the Almighty, and applying the latter indiscriminately to both; for it is obvious that mercy as far as it respects the suspension of punishment, lies altogether within the reach of human discretion;

He that 's merciful Unto the bad is cruel to the good.—RANDOLPH.

Gracious, when compared with kind, differs principally as to the station of the persons to whom it is applied. Gracious is altogether confined to superiours; kind is indiscriminately employed for superiours and equals: a king gives a gracious reception to the nobles who are presented to him; one friend gives a kind reception to another by whom he is visited. Gracious is a term in peculiar use at court, and among princes; it necessarily supposes a voluntary descent from a lofty station, to put oneself, for the time being, upon a level with those to whom one speaks: it comprehends, therefore, condescension in manner, affability in address; 'So gracious hath God been to us, that he hath made those things to be our duty which naturally-tend to our felicity.'—Titutorson. Kindness is a domestick virtue: it is found mostly among those who have not so much ceremonial to dispense with; it is the display of our good-will not only in the manner, but in the action itself; it is not confined to the tone of the voice, the gesture of the body, or the mode of expression;

but extends to actual services in the closest relations of society; a master is head to his servants in the time of their sickness; friends who are kind to one another nave perpetual opportunities of displaying their kindness in various little offices;

Love! that would al! men just and temp'rate make, Kind to themselves and others for his sake WALLER.

PITY, COMPASSION.

The pain which one feels at the distresses of another is the idea that is common to the signification of both these terms, but they differ in the object that causes the distress. Pity, which is probably changed from picty, is excited principally by the weakness or de-graded condition of the subject: compassion (v. Sym-pathy) by his uncontrollable and inevitable mistor-tunes. We pity a man of a weak understanding who exposes his weakness: we compassionate the man who is reduced to a state of beggary and want. Pity is kindly extended by those in higher condition to such as are humble in their outward circumstances; the poor are at all times deserving of pity when their poverty is not the positive fruit of vice;

y is not the positive fluit of the floor,
Others extended naked on the floor,
Exil'd from human pity here they lie,
And know no end of mis'ry till they die.
Pompret.

Compassion is a sentiment which extends to persons in all conditions; the good Samaritan had compassion on the traveller who fell among thieves;

His fate compassion in the victor bred; Stern as he was, he yet rever'd the dead .- Pope.

Pity, though a tender sentiment, is so closely allied to contempt, that an ingenuous mind is always loath to be the subject of it, since it can never be awakened but by some circumstances of inferiority; it hurts the honest pride of a man to reflect that he can excite no interest but by provoking a comparison to his own disadvartage; on the other hand, such is the general infirmity of our natures, and such our exposure to the casualties of human life, that compassion is a pure and delightful sentiment, that is reciprocally bestowed and acknowledged by all with equal satisfaction.

PITY, MERCY.

The feelings we indulge, and the conduct we adopt, towards others who suffer for their demerits, is the common idea which renders these terms synonymous; but pity lays hold of those circumstances which do not affect the moral character, or which diminish the culpability of the individual: mercy lays hold of those external circumstances which may diminish punishment. Pity is often a sentiment unaccompanied with action; mercy is often a mode of action unaccompanied with sentiment; we have or take pity upon a person, but we show mercy to a person. Pity is bestowed by men in their domestic and private capacity; mercy is shown in the exercise of power: a master has pity upon his offending servant by passing over his offences, and affording him the opportunity of amendment, or an individual may feel a sentiment towards another whom he thinks in a degraded situation.

I pity from my soul unhappy men, Compell'd by want to prostitute their pen. ROSCOMMON.

The magistrate shows mercy to a criminal by abridging his punishment; 'Examples of justice must be made for terrour to some; examples of mercy for comfort to others; the one procures fear, and the other love."—Bacon. Pity lies in the breast of an individual, and may be bestowed at his discretion: mercy is restrictand may be besolved at its discretion: mercy is restricted by the rules of civil society; it must not interfere with the administration of justice. Young offenders call for great pity, as their offences are aften the fruit of inexperience and bad example, rather than of depravity: mercy is an imperative duty in those who have the power of inflicting punishment, particularly in cases

where life and death are concerned.

Pity and mercy are likewise applied to the brute creation with a similar distinction: pity shows itself in Relieving real misery, and in lightening burdens;

mercy is displayed in the measure of pain which one inflicts. One takes pity on a poor ass to whom one gives fodder to relieve hunger; 'An ant dropped into the water; a wood pigeon took pity on her, and threw her a little bough. L'ESTRANGE. One shows a brute mercy by abstaining to lay heavy stripes upon its hack :

Cowards are cruel, but the brave Love mercy, and delight to save. - GAY.

These terms are moreover applicable to the Deity, in regard to his creatures, particularly man. God takes pity on us as entire dependants upon him: he extends his mercy towards us as offenders against him: he shows his pity by relieving our wants; he shows his mercy by forgiving our sins.

PITIABLE, PITEOUS, PITIFUL.

These three epithets drawn from the same word have shades of difference in sense and application; pitiable signifies deserving of pity; piteous, moving pity; piteful, full of that which awakens pity; a condition is pitiable which is so distressing as to call forth pity; a cry is piteous which indicates such distress as can excite pity; a conduct is pitiful which marks a character entitled to pity.

The first of these terms is taken in the best sense of the term pity; the last two in its unfavourable sense; what is pritable in a person is independent of any thing in himself; circumstances have rendered him pitiable; 'Is it then impossible that a man may be found who without criminal ill intention, or pitiable absurdity, shall prefer a mixed government to either of the extremes ?--Burkk. What is piteous and pitiful in a man arises from the helplessness and im-becility or worthlessness of his character; the former respects that which is weak; the latter that which is worthless in him: when a poor creature makes piteous moans, it indicates his incapacity to help himself as he ought to do out of his troubles, or at least his impatience under suffering;

I have in view, calling to mind with heed Part of our sentence, that thy seed shall bruise The serpent's head; piteous amends, unless Be meant, whom I conjecture, our grand foe.

When a man of rank has recourse to pitiful shifts to

gain his ends, he betrays the innate meanness of his soul; 'Bacon wrote a pitiful letter to King James I not long before his death.'—Howell.

CLEMENCY, LENITY, MERCY.

Clemency is in Latin clementia, signifying mildness; lenity, in Latin lenitas, comes from lenis soft, or lavis smooth, and the Greek $\lambda \hat{g}_{ij}$ smild; mercy, in Latin misericordia, compounded of miscria and cordis, i. e. affliction of the heart, signifies the pain produced by observing the pain of others.

Clemency and lenity are employed only towards ffenders; mercy towards all who are in trouble, who offenders; ther from their own fault, or any other cause.

Clemency lies in the disposition; lenity and mercy in the act; the former as respects superiours in general, the latter in regard to those who are invested with civil power: a monarch displays his clemency by showing nercy; a master shows lenity by not inflicting punishment where it is deserved.

Clemency is arbitrary on the part of the dispenser, flowing from his will independent of the object on

whom it is bestowed:

We wretched Trojans, toss'd on ev'ry shore, From sea to sea, thy clemency implore; Forbid the fires our shipping to deface,

Receive th' unhappy fugitives to grace.-DRYDEN.

Lenity and mercy are discretionary, they always have regard to the object and the nature of the offence, or misfortunes; lenity therefore often serves the purposes misortunes; tenty therefore often serves the purposes of discipline, and mercy those of justice by forgiveness, instead of punishment; but clemency defeats its end by forbearing to punish where it is needful; 'The King (Charles II.) with lenity of which the world has had perhaps no other example, declined to be the judge or avenger of his own or his father' wrongs.'-

The gods (if gods to goodness are inclin'd, If acts of mercy touch their heav'nly mind), And more than all the gods, your gen'rons heart, Conscious of worth, requite its own desert.

A mild master who shows clemency to a faithless servant by not bringing him to justice, often throws a worthless wretch upon the public to commit more atrocious depredations. A well-timed lenity sometimes recalls an offender to himself, and brings him back to good order. Upon this principle, the English constitution has wisely left in the hands of the monarch the discretionary power of showing mercy in all cases that do not demand the utmost rigour of the law.

SOFT, MILD, GENTLE, MEEK.

Soft, in Saxon soft, German sanft, comes most probably from the Saxon sib, Gothick sef, Hebrew Taile colli-Latin mollis, Greek µeλινός, comes from µειλίσσσω to sooth with soft words, and µέλι honey; gentle, v. Gentle; meek, like the Latin mitis, may in all probability come from the Greek μετόω to make less, signifying to make one's self small, to be humble.

Soft and mild are employed both in the proper and the improper application; meek only in the moral application: soft is opposed to the hard; mild to the sharp or strong. All bodies are said to be soft which yield or strong. All bodies are said to be soft which yield easily to the touch or pressure, as a soft bed, the soft

earth, soft fruit;

Soft stillness, and the night, Become the touches of sweet harmony.

SHAKSPEARE.

Some bodies are said to be *mild* which act weakly, but pleasantly, on the taste, as *mild* fruit, or a *mild* cheese; or on the feelings, as mild weather;

Sylvia's like autumn ripe, yet mild as May, More bright than noon, yet fresh as early day

Some things are said to be gentle, which in their nature might be boisterous as the winds;

As when the woods by gentle winds are stirr'd. DRYDEN.

In the improper application, soft, mild, and gentle may be applied to that which acts weakly upon others, or is easily acted upon by others; meek is said of that only which is acted upon easily by others: in this sense they are all employed as epithets, to designate either the person, or that which is personal.

In the sense of acting weakly, but pleasantly, on others, soft, mild, and gentle are applied to the same objects, but with a slight distinction in the sense: the voice of a person is either soft or mild; it is naturally soft, it is purposely made mild; a soft voice strikes agreeably upon the ear; a mild voice, when assumed by those who have authority, dispels all fears in the minds of inferiours. A person moves either softly or gently, but in the first case he moves with but little in the second he moves with a slow pace. necessary to go softly in the chamber of the sick, that they may not be disturbed; it is necessary for a sick person to move *gently*, when he first attempts to go abroad after his confinement, or at least his impatience under suffering:

Pray you tread softly, that the blind mole may not Hear a foot fall .- SHAKSPEARE.

Close at mine ear one call'd me forth to walk, With gentle voice.-MILTON.

To tread softly is an art which is acquired from the dancing-master; to go gently is a voluntary act: we may go a gentle or a quick pace at pleasure. Words are either soft, mild, or gentle: a soft word falls lightly upon the person to whom it is addressed; it does not excite any angry sentiment; the proverb says, "A soft answer turneth away wrath." A reproof is mild when it falls easily from the lips of one who has power to oppress and wound the feelings; a censure, an admonition, or a hint, is gentle, which bears indirectly on the offender, and does not expose the whole of his infirmity to view: a kind father always tries the efficacy of mild reproofs; a prudent

friend will always try to correct our errours by gentle remonstrances.

In like manner we say that punishments are mild. which inflict but a small portion of pain; they are op-posed to those which are severe: those means of correction are gentle, which are opposed to those that are violent. It requires discretion to know how to inflict punishment with the due proportion of mildness and severity; it will be fruitless to adopt gentle means of correction, when there is not a power of resorting to those which are violent in case of necessity. Persons, or their manners, are termed soft, mild, and gentle, but still with similar distinctions: a soft address, a soft air, and the like, are becoming or not, according to the sex in that which is denominated the softer sex, these qualities of softness are characteristick excellencies; even in this sex they may degenerate, by their excess, into insipidity; and in the male sex they are compatible only in a small degree with manly firmness of carriage. Mild manners are peculiarly becoming in superiours, whereby they win the love and esteem of those who are in interiour stations:

> Nothing reserv'd or sullen was to see, But sweet regards, and pleasing sanctity; Mild was his accent, and his action free

Gentle manners are becoming in all persons who take a part in social life: gentleness is, in fact, that due medium of softness which is alike suitable to both sexes, and which it is the object of polite education to produce; 'He had such a gentle method of reproving their faults, that they were not so much afraid as ashamed to repeat them.'—ATTERBURY.

In the sense of being acted on easily, the disposition

is said to be not only soft, mild, and gentle, but also meck: softness of disposition and character is an infirmity both in the male and female, but particularly in the former; it is altogether incompatible with that steadiness and uniformity of conduct which is requisite for every man who has an independent part to act in life;

> However soft within themselves they are, To you they will be valiant by despair.

A man of a *soft* disposition often yields to the entreaties of others, and does that which his judgement condemns; mildness of disposition unfits a man alto-gether for command, and is to be clearly distinguished from that mildness of conduct which is founded on principle;

If that mild and gentle god thou be, Who dost mankind below with pity see. DRYDEN.

Gentleness, as a part of the character, is not so much to be recommended as gentleness from habit; human life contains so much in itself that is rough, that the gentle disposition is unable to make that resistance which is requisite for the purposes of self-defence

> Still she retains Her maiden gentleness, and oft at eve Visits the herds.—MILTON.

Meekness is a Christian virtue forcibly recommended to our practice by the example and precepts of our blessed Saviour; it consists not only in an unresisting, but a forgiving temper, a temper that is unruffled by injuries and provocations: it is, however, an infirmity, if it springs from a want of spirit, or an unconsciousness of what is due to ourselves: meekness, therefore, as a natural temper, sinks into meanness and servility; but when, as an acquired temper, built upon principle and moulded into a habit of the mind, it is the grand distinctive characteristick of the religion we profess.

Gentle and meek are likewise applied to animals; the former to designate that easy flow of spirits which

fits them for being guided in their movements, and the latter to mark that passive temper, that submits to every kind of treatment, however harsh, without an indication even of displeasure. A horse is gentle, as opposed to one that is spirited; the former is devoid of opposed to one that is spirited; the former is devoid of that impetus in himself to move, which renders the other ungovernable: the lamb is a pattern of meekness, and yields to the knife of the butcher without a struggle or a groan:

How meek, how patient, the mild creature lies, What softness in its melancholy face, What dumb-complaining innocence appears! THOMSON.

GENTLE, TAME.

Gentleness lies rather in the natural disposition; tameness is the effect either of art or circumstances. Any unbroken horse may be gentle, but not tame: a lorse that is broken in will be tame, but not always

Gentle (v. Genteel) signifies literally well-born, and is opposed either to the herce or the rude; 'Gentleness and gentility are the same thing, and, if they are not the same words, they come from one and the same original, from whence likewise is deduced the word gentleman."—Prock. Tame, in German zahm, from zaum a bridle, signifies literally curbed or kept under, and is opposed either to the wild or the spirited

Animals are in general said to be gentle which show a disposition to associate with man, and conform to his will: they are said to be tame, if either by compulsion or habit they are brought to mix with human society. Of the first description there are individuals in almost every species which are more or less entitled to the name of gentle; of the latter description are many species, as the dog, the sheep, the hen, and the like;

This said, the hoary king no longer staid, But on his car the slaughter'd victims laid; Then seiz'd the reins, his gentle steeds to guide, And drove to Troy, Antenor at his side .- POPE. For Orpheus' lute could soften steel and stone, Make tigers tame, and huge leviathans. SHAKSPEARE.

In the moral application gentle is always employed in the good, and tame in the bad sense: a gentle spirit needs no control; it amalgamates freely with the will of another: a tame spirit is without any will of its own; it is alive to nothing but submission; it is perconsistent with our natural liberty to have gentleness, but tameness is the accompaniment of slavery The same distinction marks the use of these words when applied to the outward conduct or the language: gentle bespeaks something positively good; tame be-speaks the want of an essential good; the former is allied to the kind, the latter to the abject and mean qualities which naturally flow from the compression or destruction of energy and will in the agent. A gentle expression is devoid of all acrimony, and serves to turn away wrath: a tame expression is devoid of force or energy, and ill calculated to inspire the mind with any feeling whatever. In giving counsel to an irritable and conceited temper, it is necessary to be gentle: tame expressions are nowhere such striking deformities as in a poem or an oration; Gentleness stands opposed, not to the most determined regard to virtue and truth, but to harshness and severity, to pride and arrogance.'—BLAIR. 'Though all wanton provocations, and contemptuous insolence, are to be diligently avoided, there is no less danger in timid compliance and tame resignation.'-Johnson.

DOCILE, TRACTABLE, DUCTILE.

Docile, in Latin docilis, from doceo to teach, is the Latin term for ready to be taught; tractable, from the Latin trake to draw, signifies ready to be drawn; and ductile, from duce to lead, ready to be led.

The idea of submitting to the directions of another is comprehended in the signification of all these terms: docility marks the disposition to conform our actions in all particulars to the will of another, and lies altogether in the will; tractability and ductility are modes of docility, the former in regard to the conduct, the latter in regard to the principles and sentiments latter in regard to the principles and sentiments. accility is in general applied to the ordinary actions of the life, where simply the will is concerned; 'The Persians are not wholly void of martial spirit; and if they are not naturally brave, they are at least extremely docite, and might with proper discipline be made excellent soldiers.—Str Wm. Jones. Tractability is applicable to points of conduct in which the judgement is concerned; ductility to matters in which the character is formed: a child ought to be docile with its parents at all times. A person ought to be tractable when acting under the direction of his superiour; 'The people, with-

out being servile, must be tractable.'-BURKE. young person ought to be ductile to imbibe good prin-ciples: the want of docility may spring from a defect in the disposition: the want of tractubleness may spring either from a defect in the temper, or from selfconceit; the want of ductility lies altogether in a natural stubbornness of character: docility, being altogether independent of the judgement, is applicable to the brutes as well as to men;

Their reindeer form their riches: these their tents, Their robes, their beds, and all their homely wealth, Supply their wholesome fare, and cheerful cups; Obsequious at their call, the docile tribe

Yield to the sledge their necks .- Thomson.

Tractableness and ductility are applicable mostly to thinking and rational objects only, though sometimes extended to inanimate or moral objects: the ox is a docile animal; the humble are tractable; youth is ductile; 'The will was then (before the fall) ductile and pliant to all the motions of right reason.'-South.

FLEXIBLE, PLIABLE, PLIANT, SUPPLE.

Flexible, in Latin flexibilis, from flecto to bend, signifies able to be bent; pliable signifies able to be plied or folded: pliant, plying, bending, or folding; supple, in French souple, from the intensive syllable sub and ply, signifies very pliable.

*Flexible is used in a natural or moral sense; pliable

in the familiar and natural sense only; pliant in the higher and moral application only; what can be bent in any degree as a stick is flexible; what can be bent as wax, or folded like cloth, is pliable. Supple, whether in a proper or a figurative sense, is an excess of plia-bility; what can be bent backward and forward, like

ozier twig, is supple.

In the moral application, flexible is indefinite both in degree and application; it may be greater or less in point of degree: whereas pliant supposes a great degree of pliability; and suppleness, a great degree of pliancy or pliability: it applies likewise to the outward actions, to the temper, the resolution, or the principles; but pliancy is applied to the principles, or the conduct dependent upon those principles; suppleness to the outward actions and behaviour only. A temper is flexible which yields to the entreaties of others; the person or character is pliant when it is formed or moulded easily at the will of another; a person is supple who makes his actions and his manners bend according to the varying humours of another: the first belongs to one in a superiour station who yields to the wishes of the applicant; the latter two belong to equals or inferiours who yield to the influence of others

Flexibility may be either good or bad, according to circumstances; when it shortens the duration of resentments it produces a happy effect; but flexibility is not a respectable trait in a master or a judge, who ought to be guided by higher motives than what the momentary impulse of feeling suggests: pliancy is very commendable in youth, when it leads them to yield to the counsels of the aged and experienced; but it may sometimes make young men the more easy victims to the seductions of the artful and vicious: suppleness is in no case good, for it is flexibility either in indifferent matters, or such as are expressly bad. A good-natured man is flexible; a weak and thoughtless man is pliant;

a parasite is supple.

Flexibility is frequently a weakness, but never a vice; it always consults the taste of others, sometimes to its own inconvenience, and often in opposition to its judgement; 'Forty-four is an age at which the mind begins less easily to admit new confidence, and the will to grow less flexible."—Johnson. Pliancy is often both a weakness and a vice; it always yields for its own pleasure, though not always in opposition to its sense of right and wrong: 'As for the bending and forming the mind, we should doubtless do our utmost to render it pliable, and by no means stiff and refractory.'—Bacon. 'The future is pliant and ductile.'— Johnson. Suppleness is always a vice, but never a weakness; it seeks its gratification to the injury of another by flattering his passions; 'Charles I. wanted another by naturing his passions; Charles I. wanted suppleness and dexterity to give way to the encroachments of a popular assembly.—Hence Flexibility is opposed to firmness; pliancy to steadiness; supplenes to rigidity.

^{*} Vide Roubaud: "Flexible, soupile, docile,"

TO ALLAY, SOOTH, APPEASE, ASSUAGE, MITIGATE.

To allay is compounded of al or ad, and lay to lay to or by, signifying to lay a thing to rest, to abate it; sooth probably comes from sweet, which is in Swedish sot, Low German, &c. sot, and is doubtless connected with the Hebrew Pi2D to allure, invite, compose; appease, in French appuiser, is compounded of ap or ad and paix peace, signifying to quiet; assuage is compounded of as or ad and suage, from the Latin suasi, perfect of suadeo to persuade, signifying to treat with gentleness, or to render easy; mitigate, from the Latin mitis gentle, signifies to make gentle or easy to be borne.

All these terms indicate a lessening of something painful. In a physical sense a pain is allayed by an immediate application; it is soothed by affording ease and comfort in other respects, and diverting the mind from the pain. Extreme heat or thirst is allayed; 'Without expecting the return of hunger, they eat for an appetite, and prepare dishes not to allay, but to excite it.'—Addison. Extreme hunger is appeased;

They cut in legs and fillets, for the feast,

Which drawn and served, their hunger they appeare.

DRYDEN

A punishment or sentence is mitigated;

Before thee, and, not repenting, this obtain
Of right, that I may mitigate them down.

MILTON.

In a moral sense one allays what is fervid and vehement:

If by your art you have Put the wild waters in this war, allay them.

Shakspeare.

One sooths what is distressed; 'Nature has given all the little arts of socthing and blandishing to the female.'—ADDISON. One appeases what is tumultuous and boisterous; 'Charon is no sooner appeased, and the triple-headed dog and asleep, but Æneas makes his entrance into the dominions of Pluto.'—ADDISON. One assuages grief or afflictions; 'If I can any way assuage private inflammations, or allay publick ferments, I shall apply myself to it with the utmost endeavours.'—ADDISON. One mitigates pains, or what is rigorous and severe; 'All it can do is, to devise how that which must be endured may be mitigated.'—Hooker. Nothing is so calculated to allay the fervour of a distempered imagination, as prayer and religious meditation: religion has every thing in it which can sooth a wounded conscience by presenting it with the hope of pardon, that can appease the angry passions by giving us a sense of our own sinfulness and need of God's pardon, and that can assuage the bitterest griefs by affording us the brightest prospect of future biliss.

TO ALLEVIATE, RELIEVE.

Alleviate, in Latin alleviatus, participle of allevio, is compounded of the intensive syllable al or ad, and levo to lighten, signifying to lighten by making less; relieve, from the Latin relevo, is re and levo to lift up, signifying to take away or remove.

A pain is allemated by making it less burdensome; a necessity is relieved by supplying what is wanted. Allemate respects our internal feelings only; relieve our external circumstances. That allemates which affords ease and comfort; that relieves which removes the pain. It is no allemates of sorrow to a feeling mind, to reflect that others undergo the same suffering; 'Half the misery of human life might be extinguished, would men allemate the general curse they lie under, by mutual offices of compassion, benevolence, and humanity.'—Addison. A change of position is a considerable relief to an invalid, wearied with confinement;

Now sinking underneath a load of grief, From death alone she seeks her last relief.

Condolence and sympathy tend greatly to alleviate the sufferings of our fellow-creatures; it is an essential

part of the Christian's duty to relieve the wants of his indigent neighbour.

APPEASE, CALM, PACIFY, QUIET, STILL.

Appease, v. To allay; calm, in French calmer, from almus fair, signifies to make fair; pucify, in Latin pacifico, compounded of pax and facio, signifies to make peace or peaceable; quiet, in French quiet, Latin quietus, from quies rest, signifies to put to rest; still, signifies to make still.

To appease is to put an end to a violent motion; to calm is to produce a great tranquility. * The wind is appeased; the sea is colmed. With regard to persons it is necessary to appease those who are in transports of passion, and to calm those who are in trouble, anxiety, or apprehension.

Appease respects matters of force or violence;

A lofty city by my hand is rais'd, Pygmalion punish'd, and my lord appeased.

Calm respects matters of inquietude and distress;

All-powerful harmony, that can assuage
And calm the sorrows of the phrensied wretch.

MARSH.

One is appeased by a submissive behaviour, and calmed by the removal of danger.

Pacify corresponds to appease, and quiet to calm. In sense they are the same, but in application they differ. Appease and calm are used only in reference to objects of importance; pacify and quiet may be applied to those of a more familiar nature. The measy humours of a child are pacified, or its groundless fears are quieted.

Still is a loftier expression than any of the former terms; serving mostly for the grave or poetick style, It is an onomatopela for restraining or putting to si lence that which is noisy and boisterous;

My breath can still the winds, Uncloud the sun, charm down the swelling sea. And stop the floods of heaven.—Beaumont

PEACE, QUIET, CALM, TRANQUILLITY.

Peace, in Latin pax, may either come from pactio an agreement or compact which produces peace, or it may be connected with pausa, and the Greek mayw to cease, because a cessation of all violent action and commotion enters into the idea of peace; quiet, in Latin quietus, probably from xéqua to he down, signifies a lying posture which best promotes quiet; calm signifies the state of being calm; tranquillity, in Latin tranquillitas, from tranquillus, that is, trars, the intensive syllable, and quillus or quietus, signifies altogether or exceedingly aniet.

gether or exceedingly quiet.

Peace is a term of more general application, and more comprehensive meaning than the others; it respects either communities or individuals; but quiet respects only individuals or small communities. Nations are said to have peace, but not quiet; persons or families may have both peace and quiet. Peace implies an exemption from publick or private broils; quiet implies a freedom from noise or interruption. Every well-disposed family strives to be at peace with its neighbours, and every affectionate family will naturally act in such a manner as to promote peace among all its members; 'A false person ought to be looked upon as a publick enemy, and a disturber of the peace of mankind."—SOUTH. The quiet of a neighbourhood its one of its first recommendations as a place of residence; 'A palry tale-bearer will discompose the quiet of a whole family.'—SOUTH.

Peace and quiet, in regard to individuals, have like wise a reference to the internal state of the mind; but the former expresses the permanent condition of the mind, the latter its transitory condition. Serious mat ters only can disturb our peace; trivial matters may disturb our quiet: a good man enjoys the peace of a good conscience; 'Religion directs us rather to secure inward peace than outward ease, to be more careful to avoid everlasting torments than light affliction.'-Tillotson. The best of men may have unavoidable cares and anxieties which disturb his quiet.'

* Vide Abbe Girard: "Appaiser, calmer."

Indulgent quict, pow'r serene, Mother of peace, and joy, and love.—Hughes. There can be no peace where a man's passions are perpetually engaged in a conflict with each other; there can be no quiet where a man is embarrassed in his

pecuniary affairs.

Calm is a species of quict, which respects objects in the natural or the moral world; it indicates the ab sence of violent motion, as well as violent noise; it is sence of violent motion, as well as violent hoise; it is that state which more immediately succeeds a state of agitation. As storms at sea are frequently preceded as well as succeeded, by a dead colm, so political storms have likewise their calms which are their attendants, if not their precursors; 'Cheerfulness banishes all anxious care and discontent, sooths and comissible succeeding the storms of the s poses the passions, and keeps the soul in a perpetual calm.'—Addison. Peace, quiet, and calm have all respect to the state contrary to their own; they are properly cessations either from strife, from disturbance, or From agitation and tumult. Tranquility, on the other hand, is taken more absolutely: it expresses the situa-tion as it exists in the present moment, independently of what goes before or after; it is sometimes applicable to society, sometimes to natural objects, and sometimes to the mind. The tranquillity of the state cannot be preserved unless the authority of the magistrates be upheid; the tranquillity of the air and of all the sur-rounding objects is one thing which gives the country its peculiar charms; the tranquillity of the mind in the second charms; the tranquitty of the mind in the season of devotion contributes essentially to produce a suitable degree of religious fervour; 'By a patient acquiescence under painful events for the present, we shall be sure to contract a tranquillity of temper.'—Cumperrland.

As epithets, these terms bear the same relation to each other: people are *peaceable* as they are disposed to promote *peace* in society at large, or in their private relations; they are quiet, inasmuch as they abstain from every loud expression, or are exempt from any commotion in themselves: they are ealm, inasmuch as they are exempt from the commotion which at any given moment rages around them; they are tranquil, inasmuch as they enjoy an entire exemption from every thing which can discompose. A town is peaceable as respects the disposition of the inhabitants; it is quiet, as respects its external circumstances, or freedom from bustle and noise: an evening is calm when the air is 'ulled into a particular stillness, which is not interrupted by any loud sounds: a scene is tranquil which combines every thing calculated to sooth the spirits to rest.

PEACEABLE, PEACEFUL, PACIFICK.

Peaceable is used in the proper sense of the word peace, as it expresses an exemption from strife or contest (v. Peace); but peaceful is used in its improper test (v. reace), but peaceful is teach in a imported sense, as it expresses an exemption from agitation or commotion. Persons or things are peacefule; things, particularly in the higher style, are peaceful: a family is designated as peaceable, in regard to its inhabitants; 'I know that my peaceable disposition already gives me a very ill figure here' (at Ratisbon).—Lady W. Montague. A house is designated as a peaceful abode, as it is remote from the bustle and hurry of a multitude:

Still as the peaceful walks of ancient night, Silent as are the lamps that burn in tombs. SHAKSPEARE.

Pacifick signifies either making peace, or disposed to make peace, and is applied mostly to what we do to others. We are peaceable when we do not engage in quarrels of our own; we are pacifick if we wish to keep peace, or make peace, between others. Hence the term peaceable is mostly employed for individual or private concerns, and pacifick most properly for national concerns: subjects ought to be peaceable, and monarchs pacifick; 'The most peaceable way for you, if you do take a thief, is to let him show himself, and stead out of your company.'-SHAKSPEARE. 'The tragical and untimely death of the French monarch put an end to all pacifick measures with regard to Scotland'.-ROBERTSON.

CALM, COMPOSED, COLLECTED.

Calm, v. To appease; composed, from the verb compose, marks the state of being composed; and collected, from collect, the state of being collected.

These terms agree in expressing a state; but calm respects the state of the feelings, composed the state of the thoughts and feelings, and collected the state of the thoughts more particularly.

Calmness is peculiarly requisite in seasons of distress, and amid scenes of horror; composure, in moments of trial, disorder, and tumult; collectedness, in moments of danger. Calmness is the companion of fortitude; no one whose spirits are easily disturbed can have strength to bear misfortune: composure is an attendant upon clearness of understanding; no one can express himself with perspicuity whose thoughts are any way deranged: collectedness is requisite for a determined promptitude of action; no one can be expected to act promptly who cannot think fixedly.

It would argue a want of all feeling to be calm on

some occasions, when the best affections of our nature

are put to a severe trial;

T is godlike magnanimity to keep, When most provok'd, our reason calm and clear.

Composedness of mind associated with the detection of guilt, evinces a hardened conscience, and an insensibility to shame; 'A moping lover would grow a pleasant fellow by that time he had rid thrice about the island (Anticyra); and a hair-brained rake, after a short stay in the country, go home again a composed, grave, worthy gentleman.'—Sterle. Collectedness of mind has contributed in no small degree to the preserva-tion of some persons' lives, in moments of the most imminent peril;

Be collected, No more amazement.—SHAKSPEARE

CALM, PLACID, SERENE.

Calm, v. To appease; placid, in Latin placidus, from place to please, signifies the state of being pleased, or free from uneasiness; serene, in Latin serenus, comes most probably from the Greek ἐιρήνη peace, signifying a state of peace.

Calm and serene are applied to the elements; placid only to the mind. Calmness respects only the state of the winds, serenity that of the air and heavens: the weather is calm when it is free from agitation; it is screne when free from noise and vapour. Calm respects the total absence of all perturbation; placid the ease and contentment of the mind; serene clearness and composure of the mind.

As in the natural world a particular agitation of the

wind is succeeded by a calm, so in the mind of man, when an unusual effervescence has been produced, it commonly subsides into a calm;

Preach patience to the sea, when jarring winds Throw up the swelling billows to the sky

And if your reasons mitigate her fury, My soul will be as calm.—SMITH.

Placidity and serenity have more that is even and regu Placidity and sevently have more that is even and regular in then; they are positively what they are. Calm is a temporary state of the feelings; placid and sevene are habits of the mind. We speak of a calm state; but a placid and sevene temper. Placidity is more of a natural gift; sevently is acquired; people with not very ardent desires or warmth of feeling will evince placidity; they are pleased with all that passes inwardly or outwardly. Placid and scophing is the variable. or outwardly; 'Placid and soothing is the remembran of a ife passed with quiet, innocence, and elegance.' 'Placid and soothing is the remembrance Nothing contributes so much to serenity of mind as a pervading sense of God's good providence, which checks all impatience, softens down every asperity of humour, and gives a steady current to the feelings: 'Every one ought to fence against the temper of his climate or constitution, and frequently to indulge in himself those considerations which may give him a serenity of mind.'-Addison.

EASE, QUIET, REST, REPOSE.

Ease comes immediately from the French aise glad F.ase comes immediately from the French arise glad and that from the Greek ἀςɨŋδɨ young, fresh; quiet, in Latin quietus, comes probably from the Greek κείμαι to lie down, signifying a lying posture; rest, in German rast, comes from the Latin resto to stand still or make a halt; repose comes from the Latin state of placing one's self backward or downward

The idea of a motionless state is common to all these terms: ease and quiet respect action on the body; rest and repose respect the action of the body: we are easy or quiet when freed from any external agency that is painful; we have rest or repose when the body is no longer in motion.

Ease denotes an exemption from any painful agency in general; quiet denotes an exemption from that in particular, which noise, disturbance, or the violence of others may cause; we are easy or at ease, when the body is in a posture agreeable to itself, or when no circumjacent object presses unequally upon it: we are quiet when there is an agreeable stillness around: our ease may be disturbed either by internal or external causes; our quiet is most commonly disturbed by external objects; we may have ease from pain, bodily or mental; we have quiet at the will of those around us: a sick person is often far from enjoying ease, although he may have the good fortune to enjoy the most perfect quiet: a man's mind is often uneasy from its own faulty constitution; it suffers frequent disquietudes from the vexations tempers of others: let a man be in ever such easy circumstances, he may still expect to meet with disquietudes in his dealings with the world: wealth and contentment are the great promoters of

By this we plainly view the two imposthumes That choke a kingdom's welfare; ease and wantonness .- BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER.

Retirement is the most friendly to quiet:

But easy quiet, a secure retreat, A harmless life that knows not how to cheat, With homebred plenty the rich owner bless And rural pleasures crown his happiness .- DRYDEN.

Rest simply denotes the cessation of motion; repose is that species of rest which is agreeable after labour; we rest as circumstances require; in this sense, our Creator is said to have rested from the work of creathen; 'Like the sun, it had light and agility; it knew no rest but in motion, no quiet but in activity.'—SOOTH. Repose is a circumstance of necessity; the weary seek repose; there is no human being to whom it is not sometimes indispensable;

I all the livelong day Consume in meditation deep, recluse From human converse; nor at shut of eve Enjoy repose .- PHILLIPS.

We may rest in a standing posture; we can repose only in a lying position; the dove which Noah first sent out could not find rest for the sole of its foot; soldiers who are hotly pursued by an enemy, have no time nor opportunity to take repose; the night is the time for rest; the pillow is the place for repose. Rest may be properly applied to things and persons;

The peaceful peasant to the wars is press'd, The fields lie fallow in inglorious rest .- DRYDEN.

Repose may be employed figuratively in the same

Nor can the tortur'd wave here find repose, But raging still amid the shaggy rocks, Now flashes o'er the scatter'd fragments. THOMSON.

EASE, EASINESS, FACILITY, LIGHTNESS.

Ease, (v. Ease) denotes either the abstract state of a person or quality of a thing; easiness, from easy, signifying having ease, denotes simply an abstract quality which serves to characterize the thing: a person enjoys ease, or he has an easiness of disposition:
'Ease is the utmost that can be hoped from a sedentary and inactive habit.'—JOHNSON. 'His yielding unto them in one thing might happily put them in hope, that time would breed the like easiness of condescending further unto them.'—Hooker. Ease is said of that which is borne, or that which is done; easiness and facility, from the Latin facilis easy, most commonly of that which is to be done; the former in application to the thing as before, the latter either to the person or the thing: we speak of the easiness of the task, but of a person's facility in doing it; we judge of the easiness

reposui, perfect of repono to place back, signifying the of a thing by comparing it with others more difficult; 'Nothing is more subject to mistake and disappoint ment than anticipated judgement, concerning the easiness or difficulty of any undertaking.'—Johnson. We judge of a person's facility by comparing him with others, who are less skilful; 'Every one must have remarked the facility with which the kindness of others is sometimes gained by those to whom he never could have imparted his own.'—Johnson.

Ease and lightness are both said of what is to be borne; the former in a general, the latter in a particular sense. Whatever presses in any form is not easy; that which presses by excess of weight is not light; a coat may be easy from its make; it can be light only from its texture. A work is easy which requires no great exertion either of body or mind; 'The service of God, in the solemn assembly of saints, is a work, though easy, yet withal very weighty, and of great respect.'—Hooker. A work is light which requires no effort of the body;

Well pleas'd were all his friends, the task was light, The father, mother, daughter, they invite.

The same distinction exists between their derivatives, to ease, facilitate, and lighten; to ease is to make easy or free from pain, as to ease a person of his labour: to facilitate is to render a thing more practicable or less difficult, as to facilitate a person's progress; to lighten is to take off an excessive weight, as to lighten a person's burdens.

EASY, READY.

Easy (v. Ease, easiness) signifies here a freedom from obstruction in ourselves, ready, in German bereit,

Latin paratus, signifies prepared.

Easy marks the freedom of being done; ready the disposition or willingness to do; the former refers mostly to the thing or the manner, the latter to the person: the thing is easy to be done; the person is ready to do it: it is easy to make professions of friendship in the ardour of the moment; but every one is not ready to act up to them, when it interferes with his convenience or interest.

As epithets, both are opposed to difficult, but agreeably to the above explanation of the terms; the former denotes a freedom from such difficulties or obstacles as lie in the nature of the thing itself; the latter an exemption from such as lie in the temper and character of the person; hence we say a person is easy of access whose situation, rank, employments, or circumstances, do not prevent him from admitting others to his presence; he is ready to hear when he himself throws no obstacles in the way, when he lends a willing ear to what is said. So likewise a task is said to be easy; a what is said. So likewise a task is said to be easy; a person's wit, or a person's reply, to be ready; a young man who has birth and fortune, wit and accomplishments, will find an easy admittance into any circle; 'An easy manner of conversation is the most desirable quality a man can have.'—STEELE. The very name of a favourite author will be a ready passport for the works to which it may be affixed;

The scorpion, ready to receive thy laws, Yields half his region and contracts his claws. DRYDEN.

When used adverbially, they bear the same relation to each other. A man is said to comprehend easily, who from whatever cause finds the thing easy to be comprehended; he pardons readily who has a temper ready to pardon.

TO RECLINE, REPOSE.

To recline is to lean back; to repose is to place one's. self back: he who reclines reposes; but we may re cline without reposing: when we recline we put ourselves into a particular position;

or consolation on his friend reclin'd.-FALCONER.

When we repose we put ourselves into that position which will be most easy

> I first awak'd, and found myself repos'd Under a shade, on flowers .- MILTON

HARD, DIFFICULT, ARDUOUS.

Hard is here taken in the improper sense of trouble caused, and pains taken, in which sense it is a much stronger term than difficult, which, from the Latin difficilis, compounded of the privative dis and facilis, signifies merely not easy. Hard is therefore positive, and difficult negative. A difficult task cannot be got through without exertion, but a hard task requires great exertion. Difficult is applicable to all trivial matters which call for a more than usual portion either of labour or thought; 'As Swift's years increased, his fits of eiddiness and deafness grew more frequent, and his deafness made conversation difficult.'—Johnson. Hard is applicable to those which are of the highest importance, and accompanied with circumstances that call for the utmost stretch of every power;

Antigones, with kisses, often tried
'To beg this present in his beauty's pride,
When youth and love are hard to be denied.

DRYDEN.

It is a difficult matter to get admittance into some circles of society; it is a hard matter to find societies that are select: it is difficult to decide between two fine paintings which is the finest; it is a hard matter to come at any conclusion on metaphysical subjects. A child mostly finds it difficult to learn his letters; there are many passages in classical writers which are hard to be understood by the learned.

Ardwows, in Latin ardwas lofty, from ardeo to burn, because flame ascends upwards, denotes set on

Arduous, in Latin arduus lofty, from ardeo to burn, because flame ascends upwards, denotes set on high or out of reach except by great efforts; arduous expresses a high degree of difficulty. What is difficult requires only the efforts of ordinary powers to sur-

mount;

Whatever melting metals can conspire, Or breathing bellows, or the forming fire, Is freely yours: your anxious fears remove, And think no task is difficult to love.—DRYDEN.

But what is arduous is set above the reach of common intellect, and demands the utmost stretch of power both physical and mental; 'The translation of Homer was an arduous undertaking, and the translator entered upon it with a candid confession that he was utterly incapable of doing justice to Homer.'—CUMBERLAND. A child may have a deficult exercise which he cannot perform without labour and attention: the man who strives to remove the difficulties of learners undertakes an arduous task. It is difficult to conquer our own passions: it is arduous to control the unruly and contending wills of others.

HARDLY, SCARCELY.

What is hard is not common, and in that respect scarce: hence the idea of unfrequency assimilates these terms both in signification and application. In many cases they may be used indifferently; but where the idea of practicability predominates, hardly seems most proper; and where the idea of frequency predominates, scarcely seems preferable. One can hardly judge of a person's features by a single and partial glance; 'I do not expect, as long as I stay in India, to be free from a had digestion, the "morbus literatorum," for which there is hardly any remedy but abstinence from food, literary and culinary.'—Srx Wm. JOKES. We scarcely ever see men lay aside their vices from a thorough conviction of their enormity; 'In this assembly of princes and nobles [the Congress of the Hague], to which Europe has perhaps scarcely seen any thing equal, was formed the grand alliance against Lewis."—JOINSON. But in general sentences it may with equal propriety be said, hardly one in a thousand, or scarcely one in a thousand, would form such a conclusion.

TO HELP, ASSIST, AID, SUCCOUR, RELIEVE.

Help, in Saxon helpan, German helfen, probably comes from the Greek δφέλλω to do good to; assist, in Latin assisto, or ad and sisto, signifies to place one's self by another so as to give him our strength; aid, in Latin adjuco, that is, the intensive syllable ad and juro, signifies to profit towards a specifick end: succour, in Latin succurro, signifies to run to the help of any one; relieve, v. To allocate.

The idea of communicating to the advantage of another is common to all these terms. Help is the generick term; the rest specifick: help may be substituted for the others, and in many cases where they would not be applicable. The first three are employed either to produce a positive good or to remove an evil; the two latter only to remove an evil. We help a person to prosecute his work, or help him out of a difficulty; we assist in order to forward a scheme, or we assist a person in the time of his embarrassment; we aid a good cause, or we aid a person to make his escape; we succour a person who is in danger; we relieve him in time of distress. To help and assist respect personal service, the former by corporeal, the latter by corporeal or mental labour; one servant helps another by taking a part in his employment; one author assists another in the composition of his work. We help up a person's load, we assist him to rise when he has fallen: we speak of a helper or a helpmate in mechanical employments, of an assistant to a professional man;

Their strength united best may help to bear .- Pops.

"T is the first sanction nature gave to man, Each other to assist in what they can.—Denham.

To assist and aid are used for services directly or indirectly performed; but assist is said only of individuals, aid may be said of bodies as well as individuals. One friend assists another with his purse, with his counsel, his interest, and the like; 'She no sooner yielded to adultery, but she agreed to assist in the murder of her husband.'—Browne. One person aids another in carrying on a scheme; or one king, or nation, aids another with armies and subsidies;

Your private right, should impious power invade, The peers of Ithaca would rise in aid.—Pope.

We come to the assistance of a person when he has met with an accident; we come to his aid when contending against numbers. Assistance is given, aid is sent.

To succour is a species of immediate assistance, which is given on the spur of the occasion; the good Samaritan went to the succour of the man who had fallen among thieves;

Patroclus on the shore,
Now pale and dead, shall succour Greece no more.
Pope.

So in like manner we may succour one who calls us by his cries; or we may succour the poor whom we find in circumstances of distress;

My father

Flying for succour to his servant Banister, Being distress'd, was by that wretch betrayed. Shakspeare.

The word relieve has nothing in common with succour, except that they both express the removal of pain; but the latter does not necessarily imply any mode by which this is done, and therefore excludes the idea of personal interference.

All these terms, except succour, may be applied to things as well as persons; we may walk by the help of a stick; 'A man reads his prayers out of a book, as a means to help his understanding and direct his expressions.'—STILLINGTLEET. We read with the assistance of glasses; 'Acquaintance with method will assist one in ranging human affairs.'—WATTS. We learn a task quickly by the aid of a good memory;

Wise, weighty counsels aid a state distress'd .- Pope.

We obtain relief from medicine; 'An unbeliever feels the whole pressure of a present calamity, without being relieved by the memory of any thing that is past, or the prospect of any thing that is to come.'—ADDISON.

To help or assist is commonly an act of goodnature; to aid, frequently an act of policy; to succaur or relieve, an act of generosity or humanity. Help is necessary for one who has not sufficient strength to perform his task; assistance is necessary when a person's time or talent is too much occupied to perform the whole of his office; aid is useful when it serves to give strength and efficacy to our operations; succour is timely when it serves to ward off some danger; relief is salutary when it serves to lessen pain or want. When a person meets with an accident, he requires tne help of the by-standers, the assistance of his friends, and the aid of a medical man; it is noble to succour an enemy; it is charitable to relieve the

TO SECOND, SUPPORT.

To second is to give the assistance of a second person; to support is to bear up on one's own shoulders. To second does not express so much as to support; we second only by our presence, or our word; but we support by our influence, and all the means that are in our power: we second a motion by a simple declaration of our assent to it; we support a motion by the force of persuasion; so likewise we are said always to second a person's views when we give him openly our countenance by declaring our approbation of his mea-

The blasting vollied thunder made all speed, And seconded thy else not dreaded spear .- MILTON,

And we are said to support him when we give the assistance of our purse, our influence, or any other thing essential for the attainment of an end;

Impeachments NO can best resist. And AYE support the civil list .- GAY.

ABETTOR, ACCESSARY, ACCOMPLICE.

Abettor, or one that abets, gives aid and encouragement by counsel, promises, or rewards. An accessary, or one added and annexed, takes an active though subordinate part; an accomplice, from the word accomplish, implies the principal in any plot, who takes a leading part and brings it to perfection; abettors propose, accessaries assist, accomplices execute. The abettor and accessary, or the abettor and accessary, or the abettor and accomplice, may be one and the same person; but not so the accessary and accomplice.

In every grand scheme there must be abettors to set it on foot, accessaries to co-operate, and accom-plices to put it into execution. In the gunpowder plot there were many secret abettors, some noblemen who were accessaries, and Guy Fawkes the principal accomplice; 'I speak this with an eye to those cruel treatments which men of all sides are apt to give the characters of those who do not agree with them. many men of honour are exposed to publick obloquy and reproach? Those therefore who are either the instruments or abettors in such infernal dealings ought to be looked upon as persons who make use of religion to support their cause, not their cause to pro-note religion.—Addison. 'Why are the French obliged to lend us a part of their tongue before we can know they are conquered? They must be made accessaries to their own disgrace, as the Britons were formerly so artificially wrought in the curtain of the Roman theatre, that they seemed to draw it up in order to give the spectators an opportunity of seeing their own defeat celebrated on the stage.'-Addison.

Either he picks a purse, or robs a house, Or is accomplice with some knavish gang. CUMBERLAND.

REDRESS, RELIEF.

Redress, like address (v. Accost) in all probability comes from the Latin dirigo, signifying to direct or bring back to the former point; relief, v. To help. Redress is said only with regard to matters of right

and justice; relief to those of kindness and humanity; by power we obtain redress; by active interference we obtain a relief: an injured person looks for redress to the government; an unfortunate person looks for relief to the compassionate and kind: what we suffer through the oppression or wickedness of others can only be redressed by those who have the power of dispensing justice; whenever we suffer, in the order of Providence, we may meet with some relief from those who are more favoured. Redress applies to publick as well as private grievances; 'Instead of redressing grievances, and improving the fabrick of their state, the French were made to take a very different course.'—Burke. Relief applies only to private distresses:

This one Relief the vanquish'd have, to hope for none. DENHAM Under a pretence of seeking redress of grievances, mobs are frequently assembled to the disturbance of the better disposed; under a pretence of soliciting charitable relief, thieves gain admittance into families

TO CURE, HEAL, REMEDY.

Cure, in Latin curo, signifies to take care of, that is, by distinction, to take care of that which requires par ticular care, in order to remove an evil; heal, in G man heilen, comes from heil whole, signifying to make whole that which is unsound; remedy, in Latin re whole that which is disolond; remealy, in Latin remedium, is compounded of re and medeor to cure or heal, which comes from the Greek μηδόμαι and Mηδία Media, the country which contained the greatest number of healing plants. The particle re is here but an intensive.

To cure is employed for what is out of order: to heal for that which is broken: diseases are cured, wounds are healed; the former is a complex, the latter would are neares; the former is a complex, the latter is a simple process. Whatever requires to be cured is wrong in the system; it requires many and various applications internally and externally;

If the frail body feels disorder'd pangs Then drugs medicinal can give us ease; The soul no Æsculapian medicine can cure

Whatever requires to be healed is occasioned externally by violence, and requires external applications. In a state of refinement men have the greatest number of disorders to be cured; in a savage state there is more occasion for the healing art.

Cure is used as properly in the moral as the natural

ense; heal in the moral sense is altogether figurative. The disorders of the mind are cured with greater difficulty than those of the body. The breaches which have been made in the affections of relatives towards each other can be healed by nothing but a Christian spirit of forbearance and forgiveness;

Scarcely an ill to human life belongs But what our follies cause, or mutual wrongs; Or if some stripes from Providence we feel, He strikes with pity, and but wounds to heal.

To remedy, in the sense of applying remedies, has a moral application, in which it accords most with cure. Evils are either cured or remedied, but the former are of a much more serious nature than the latter. The evils in society require to be cured; an omission.

When bad habits become inveterate they are put out of the reach of cure. It is an exercise for the in-genuity of man to attempt to remedy the various troubles and inconveniences which are daily occurring; 'Every man has frequent grievances which only the solicitude of friendship will discover and remedy'— JOHNSON.

CURE, REMEDY.

Cure (v. To cure) denotes either the act of curing, or the thing that cures. Remedy is mostly employed for the thing that remedies. In the former sense the remedy is to the cure as the means to the end; a cure is performed by the application of a remedy. That is incurable for which no remedy can be found; but a cure is sometimes performed without the application of any specifick remedy. The cure is complete when the evil is entirely removed; the remedy is sure which by proper application never fails of effecting the cure. The cure of disorders depends upon the skill of the physician and the state of the patient; the efficacy of remedies depends upon their suitable choice and appli-cation; but a cure may be defeated or a remedy made of no avail by a variety of circumstances independent of either.

Cure is sometimes employed for the thing that cures, but only in the sense of what infallibly cures. Quacks always hold forth their nostrums as infallible cures, not for one but for every sort of disorder;

Why should he choose these miseries to endure If death could grant an everlasting cure?
"T is plain there 's something whispers in his ear
(Tho' fain he'd hide it) he has much to fear.

JENYNS

Experience has fatally proved that the remedy in most cases where quack medicines are applied is worse than the disease; 'The difference between poisons and remedies is easily known by their effects; and common reason soon distinguishes between virtue and vice.'-

HEALTHY, WHOLESOME, SALUBRIOUS, SALUTARY.

Healthy signifies not only having health, but also causing health, or keeping in health; wholesome, like the German heilsam, signifies making whole, keeping whole or sound; salubrious and salutary, from the Latin salus safety or health, signify likewise contri-

butive to health or good in general.

These epithets are all applicable to such objects as have a kindly influence on the bodily constitution: healthy is the most general and indefinite; it is applied to exercise, to air, situation, climate, and most other things, but food, for which wholesome is commonly substituted: the life of a farmer is reckoned the most healthy; 'You are relaxing yourself with the healthy and manly exercise of the field.'—Sir Wm. Jones. The simplest diet is reckoned the most wholesome;

Here laid his scrip with wholesome viands fill'd; There, listening every noise, his watchful dog. THOMSON.

Healthy and wholesome are rather negative in their sense; salubrious and salutary are positive: that is healthy and wholesome which serves to keep one in health; that is salubrious which serves to improve the health; and that is salutary which serves to remove a disorder: climates are healthy or unhealthy, according to the constitution of the person; 'Gardening or husbandry, and working in wood, are fit and healthy recreations for a man of study or business.'-LOCKE. Water is a wholesome beverage for those who are not dropsical; bread is a wholesome diet for man; 'False decorations, fucuses, and pigments deserve the imper-fections that constantly attend them, being neither commodious in application, nor wholesome in their use.'—Bacon. The air and climate of southern France has been long famed for its salubrity, and has induced many invalids to repair thither for the benefit of their health; 'If that fountain (the heart) be once poisoned, you can never expect that salubrious streams will flow from it.—BLAIR. The effects have not been equally salutary in all cases: it is the concern, of government that the places destined for the publick education of youth should be in healthy situa-ions: that their diet should be wholesome rather than delicate; and that in all their disorders care should be taken to administer the most salutary remedies.

taken to administer the most salutary remedies. Wholesome and salutary have likewise an extended and moral application; healthy and salubrious are employed only in the proper sense: wholesome in this case seems to convey the idea of making whole again what has been unsound; 'So the doctrine contained be but wholesome and edifying, a want of exactness in speaking may be overlooked.'—ATTERBURY. But salutary retains the idea of improving the condition of those who stand in need of improvement; 'A sense of the Division presence exerts this salutary influence. of the Divine presence exerts this salutary influence of promoting temperance and restraining the disorders incident to a prosperous state.—Blair. Correction is wholesome which serves the purpose of amendment without doing any injury to the body; instruction or admonition is salutary when it serves the purpose of strengthening good principles and awakening a sense of guilt or impropriety: laws and punishments are wholesome to the body politick, as diet is to the physical body; restrictions are salutary in checking irregularities.

SAFE, SECURE.

Safe, in Latin salvus, comes from the Hebrew שלה to be tranquil; secure, v. Certain.

Safety implies exemption from harm, or the danger of harm; secure, the exemption from danger; a person may be safe or saved in the midst of a fire, if he be untouched by the fire; but he is, in such a case, the reverse of secure. In the sense of exemption from danger, safety expresses much less than security: we may be safe without using any particular measures; but none can reckon on any degree of security without

great precaution: a person may be very safe on the top of a coach in the daytime; but if he wish to secure himself, at night, from falling off, he must be fastened; 'It cannot be safe for any man to walk upon a precipice, and to be always on the very border of destruction.'—SOUTH. 'No man can rationally account himself secure unless he could command all the chances of the world.'—SOUTH.

CERTAIN, SURE, SECURE.

Certain, in French certain, Latin certus, comes from cerno to perceive, because what we see or perceive is supposed to be put beyond doubt; sure and secure are variations of the same word, in French sur, German sicher, Low German seker, &c., Latin securus, this is compounded of se (sine) apart, and cura, signifying without care, requiring no care.

Certain, a person's step is ourse, a house is secure. Certain, a person's step is sure, a house is secure. to dangerous. A person is certain who has no doubt remaining in his mind; 'It is very certain that a man of sound reason cannot forbear closing with religion upon an impartial examination of it.'—Addison. A person is sure whose conviction is steady and un-changeable; 'When these everlasting doors are thrown open, we may be sure that the pleasures and beauties of this place will infinitely transcend our present hopes and expectations, and that the glorious appearance of the throne of God will rise infinitely beyond whatever we are able to conceive of it.'—Addison. A person feels himself secure when the prospect of danger is removed;

Weigh well the various terms of human fate, Weigh well the various terms of And seek by mercy to secure your state.

DRYDEN.

When applied to things, certain is opposed to what is varying and irregular; sure to what is unerring; secure is used only in its natural sense. It is a defect in the English language, that there are at present no in the English language, that there are at present no certain rules for its orthography or pronunciation; the learner, therefore, is at a loss for a sure guide. Amid opposing statements it is difficult to ascertain the real state of the case. No one can ensure his life for a moment, or secure his property from the contingencies to which all sublunary things are exposed.

SOUND, SANE, HEALTHY.

Sound and sane, in Latin sanus, come probably from sanguis the blood, because in that lies the seat of health or sickness; healthy signifies here the state

of being in health.

Sound is extended in its application to all things that are in the state in which they ought to be, so as to are in the state in which they ought to be, so as to preserve their vitality; thus, animals and vegetables are said to be sound when in the former there is nothing amiss in their limbs or vital parts, and in the latter in their root. By a figurative application, wood and other things may be said to be sound when they are entirely free from any symptom of decay, or mixture of corruption; in this sense the heart is said to be sound; 'He hath a heart as sound as a bell, and his tongue is the clapper, for what his heart thinks, his tongue speaks.—Shakspeake. Sans is applicable to human beings, in the same sense, but with reference to the mind; a sans person is opposed to one that is insane .

How pregnant, sometimes, his replies are! A happiness that often madness hits on, Which sanity and reason could not be So prosperously delivered of .- SHARSPEARE.

The mind is also said to be sound when it is in a state to form right opinions;

But Capys, and the rest of sounder mind, The fatal present to the flames design'd.

Healthy expresses more than either sound or sane; recurry expresses more than either sound of same; we are healthy in every part, but we are sound in that which is essential for life; he who is sound may live, but he who is healthy enjoys life; 'But the course of succession (to the crown) is the healthy habit of the British constitution.'—BURKE.

DISORDER, DISEASE, DISTEMPER, MALADY.

Disorder signifies the state of being out of order; disease, the state of being ill at ease; distemper, the state of being out of temper, or out of a due temperament; malady, from the Latin malus evil, signifies an ill.

All these terms agree in their application to the state of the animal body. Disorder is, as before (v. To disorder), the general term, and the others specifick. In this general sense disorder is altogether indefinite; but in its restricted sense it expresses less than all the rest: it is the mere commencement of a disease: disease is also more general than the other terms, for it comprehends every serious and permanent disorder in the animal economy, and is therefore of universal application. The disorder is slight, partial and transitory: the disease is deep rooted and per manent. The disorder may lie in the extremities: the disease lies in the humours and the vital parts. Occasional headaches, colds, or what is merely cuta-neous, are termed disorders; fevers, dropsies, and the Distemper is used for such par like, are discuses. ticularly as throw the animal frame most completely out of its temper or course, and is consequently applied properly to virulent disorders, such as the small-pox. Malady has less of a technical sense than the other matady has less of a technical sease than the other terms; it refers more to the suffering than to the state of the body. There may be many maladies where there is no discase; but discases are themselves in general maladies. Our maladies are frequently born but our diseases may come upon us at any with us: time of life. Blindness is in itself a malady, and may be produced by a disease in the eye. Our disorders frequently cured by abstaining from those things which caused them; the whole science of medicine consists in finding out suitable remedies for our diseases; our maladies may be lessened with patience, although they cannot always be alleviated or removed by art.

All these terms may be applied with a similar distinction to the mind as well as the body. The disorders are either of a temporary or a permanent nature; but unless specified to the contrary, are understood to be temporary; 'Strange disorders are hed in the mind of those men whose passions are not regulated by virtue.'—Addison. Discases consist in vicious habits; 'The jealous man's disease is of so malignant a nature that it converts all it takes into its own nourishment.'—Addison. Our distempers arise from the violent operations of passion; 'A person that is crazed, though with pride or malice, is a sight very mortifying to human nature; but when the distemper arises from any indiscret fervours of devotion, it deserves our compassion in a more particular manner.'—Addison. Our maladies lie in the injuries which the affections occasion; 'Phillips has been always praised without contradiction as a man modest, blameless, and pious, who bore narrowness of fortune without discontent, and tedious and painful maladies without impatience.'—Johnson. Any perturbation in the nind is a disorder: avarice is a disease: melancholy is a distemper as far as it throws the mind out of its bias; it is a malady as far as it occasions suffering.

SICK, SICKLY, DISEASED, MORBID.

Sick denotes a partial state; sickly a permanent state of the body, a proneness to be sick: he who is sick may be made well; but he who is sickly is seldom really well; all persons are liable to be sick, though few have the misfortune to be sickly: a person may he sick from the effect of cold, violent exercise, and the like; 'For aught I see, they are as sick that surfeit with too much, as they that starve with nothing."—
SHAKSPEARE. A person is sickly only from constitution; 'Both Homer and Virgil were of a very delicate and sickly constitution."—WALSH.

Sickly expresses a permanent state of indisposition; but diseased expresses a violent state of derangement without specifying its duration; it may be for a time only, or for a permanency: the person, or his constitution, is sickly; the person, or his frame, or particular parts, as his lungs, his inside, his brain, and the like, may be diseased.

We are all diseased,
And with our surfeiting and wanton hours
Have brought ourselves into a burning fever.
SHAKSPEARE

Sick, sickly, and diseased may all be used in a moral application; morbid is rarely used in any other except in a technical sense. Sick denotes a partial state, as before, namely, a state of disgust, and is always associated with the object of the sickness; we are sick of, turbulent enjoyments, and seek for tranquillity: sickly and morbid are applied to the habitual state of the feelings or character; a sickly sentimentality, a morbid sensibility; 'While the distempers of a relaxed fibre prognosticate all the morbid force of convulsion in the body of the state, the steadiness of the physician is overpowered by the very aspect of the disease.'—BURKE. Diseased is applied in general to individuals or communities, to persons or to things; a person's mind is in a diseased state when it is under the influence of corrupt passions or principles; society is in a diseased state when it is overgrown with wealth and luxury; 'For a mind diseased with vain longings after unattainable advantages, no medicine can be pre scribed.'—Jonnson.

SICKNESS, ILLNESS, INDISPOSITION.

Sickness denotes the state of being sick (v. Sick); illness that of being ill (v. Evil); indisposition that of being not well disposed. Sickness denotes the state generally or particularly: illness denotes it particularly: we speak of sickness as opposed to good health; in sickness or in health; but of the illness of a particular person: when sickness is said of the individual, it designates a protracted state; a person may be said to have much sickness in his family; 'Sickness is a sort of early old age; it teaches us a diffidence in our earthly state.'—Pope. Illness denotes only a particular or partial sickness: a person is said to have had an illness at this or that time, in this or that place, for this or that period; 'This is the first letter that I have ventured upon, which will be written, I fear vacillantibus literis; as Tully says Tyro's Letters were after his recovery from an illness.'—ATERBERTY Indisposition is a slight illness, such a one as is capable of deranging a person either in his enjoyments or in his business; colds are the ordinary causes of indisposition: 'It is not, as you conceive, an indisposition of body, but the mind's disease.'—Form

INVALID, PATIENT.

Invalid, in Latin invalidus, signifies literally one not strong or in good heatth; patient, from the Latin patiens suffering sugnifies one suffering under discusse, Invalid is a general, and patient a particular term: a person may be an invalid without being a patient; he may be a patient without being an invalid is so denominated from his wanting his ordinary share of health and strength; but the patient is one who is labouring under some bodily suffering. Old sodilers are called invalids who are no longer able to bear the fatigues of warfare; but they are not necessarily patients. He who is under the surgeon's hands for a broken limb is a patient, but not necessarily an unvalid.

DEBILITY, INFIRMITY, IMBECILITY.

Debility, in Latin debilitas, from debilis, or de pri vative and habilis, signifies a deficiency, or not having; infirmity, in Latin infirmitas, from infirmus, or in privative and firmus strong, signifies the absence of strength; imbecility, in Latin imbecilitas from imbecilis, or in privative, and becilis, bacillum, or baculus a staff, signifies not having a staff or support.

All these terms denote a species of weakness, but the two former, particularly the first, respects that which is physical, and the latter that which is either physical or mental. Debility is constitutional, or otherwise; imbecility is always constitutional; infirmity is accidental, and results from sickness, or a decay of the frame. Debility may be either general or local; infirmity is always local; inhecitity always general. Debility prevents the active performance of the ordinary functions of nature; it is a deficiency in the muscular power of the body: infirmity is a partial

want of power, which interferes with, but does not necessarily destroy, the activity: imberility lies in the whole frame, and renders it almost entirely powerless.

Young people are frequently troubled with debilities in their ankles or legs, of which they are never cured 'As increasing years debitate the body, so they weaken the force and diminish the warmth of the affections.'—Blata. Old age is most exposed to infirmatives; but there is no age at which human beings are exempt from infirmity of some kind or another; 'This is weakness, not wisdom, I own, and on that account fitter to be trusted to the bosom of a friend, where I may safely lodge all my infirmities.'—ATTER-BURY. The imbecility natural to youth, both in body and mind, would make them willing to rest on the strength of their elders, if they were not too often misted by a mischievous confidence in their own strength; 'It is seldom that we are otherwise than by affliction awakened to a sense of our imbecility." JOHNSON.

DECAY, DECLINE, CONSUMPTION.

Decay, French dechoir, from the Latin decado, sig-nifies literally to fall off or away; decline, from the Latin declino, or de and clino, signifies to turn away or lean aside; the direction expressed by both these actions is very similar; it is a sideward movement actions is very similar; it is it such an investment, but decay expresses more than decline. What is decayed is fallen or gone; what declines leans towards a fall, or is going; when applied, therefore, to the same objects, a decline is properly the commencement of a decay. The health may experience a decline at any period of life from a variety of causes, but it naturally experiences a decay in old age; consumption (v. To

consume) implies a rapid decay.

*By decay things lose their perfection, their greatness, and their consistency; by decline they lose their strength, their vigour, and their lustre; by consumption they lose their existence. Decay brings to ruin; tion they lose their existence. Decay brings to run; decline leads to an end or expiration. There are some things to which decay is peculiar, and some things to which decline is peculiar, and other things to which both decay and decline belong. The corruption to which material substances are particularly exposed is termed decay: the close of life, when health and termed decay: the close of the when heath and strength begin to fall away, is termed the decline; the decay of states in the moral world takes place by the same process as the decay of fabricks in the natural world; the decline of empires, from their state of elevation and splendour, is a natural figure drawn from the decline of the setting sun. Consumption is seldom applied to any thing but animal bodies;

The seas shall waste, the skies in smoke decay, Rocks fall to dust, and mountains melt away But fix'd his word, his saving power remains, Thy realm for ever lasts, thy own Messiah reigns.

After the death of Julius and Augustus Cæsar the Roman empire declined every day.'—South. 'By degrees the empire shrivelled and pined away; and from such a surfeit of immoderate prosperity passed at length into a final consumption.'-South.

WEAK, FEEBLE, INFIRM.

Weak, in Saxon wace, Dutch wack, German schwach is in all probability an intensive of weich soft, which comes from weichen to yield, and this from bewegen to move; feeble is probably contracted from failable; in-

arm, v. Debility.

The Saxon term weak is here, as it usually is, the familiar and universal term; feeble is suited to a more polished style; infirm is only a species of the weak; we may be weak in body or mind; but we are commonly feeble and infirm only in the body: we may be weak from disease, or weak by nature, it equally conveys the gross idea of a defect; but the terms feeble and infirm are qualified expressions for weakness : child is feeble from its infancy; an old man is feeble from age; the latter may likewise be infirm in consequence of sickness. We pity the weak, but their weakness often gives us pain;

* Vide Trusler: "Decay, decline, disease."

You, gallant Vernon! saw The miserable scene; you pitying saw
To infant weakness sunk the warriour's arm. THOMSON.

We assist the feeble when they attempt to walk;

Command th' assistance of a friend, But feeble are the succours I can send .- DRYDEN.

We support the infirm when they are unable to stand; 'At my age, and under my infirmities, I can have no relief but those with which religion furnishes me.'—
ATTERBURY. The same distinction exists between ATTERBURY. The same distinction exists between weak and feeble in the moral use of the words; a weak attempt to excuse a person conveys a reproachful meaning; but the efforts which we make to defend an other may be praiseworthy, although feeble.

TO WEAKEN, ENFEEBLE, DEBILITATE, ENERVATE, INVALIDATE.

To weaken is to make weak (v. Weak), and is, as before, the generick term: to enfeeble is to make feeble (v. Weak); to debilitate is to cause debility (v. Debility); to enervate is to unnerve; and to invalidate ottingly, to envelope a control of which are but modes of weakening applicable to different objects. To weaken may be either a temporary or permanent act when applied to persons; enfectle is permanent either as to the body or the mind: we may be weakened suddenly by severe pain; we are enfeebled in a gradual manner, either by the slow effects of disease or age. To weaken is either a particular or a com-plete act; to enfeeble, to debilitate, and enervate are properly partial acts: what enfeebles deprives of vital or essential power;

So much hath hell debas'd, and pain Enfeebled me, to what I was in heav'n.-MILTON.

What debilitates may lessen power in one particular, though not in another; the severe exercise of any power, such as the memory or the attention, will tend to debilitate that faculty ;

Sometimes the body in full strength we find, While various ails debilitate the mind.—Jenyns.

What enervates acts particularly on the nervous system; it relaxes the frame, and unfits the person for action either of body or mind; 'Elevated by success and enervated by luxury, the military, in the time of the emperors, soon became incapable of fatigue.'—Gibbon. To weaken is said of things as well as persons; to irraladate is said of things only: we weaken the force of an argument by an injudicious application; 'No article of faith can be true which weakens the practical part of religion.'—Addison. We invalidate the claim of another by proving its informality in law Do they (the Jacobins) mean to invalidate that great body of our statute law, which passed under those whom they treat as usurpers ?'-BURKE.

TO FLAG, DROOP, LANGUISH, PINE.

To flag is to hang down loose like a flag; droup, v. To fall; to languish is to become or continue languid (v. Faint); to pine, from the German pein pain, is to be or continue in pain.

In the proper continue in the continue in pain.

In the proper application, nothing flags but that which can be distended and made to flutter by the wind, as the leaves of plants when they are in want of water or in a weakly condition; hence figuratively the spirits are said to flag; 'It is variety which keeps alive desire, which would otherwise flag.'—South. Things are said to droop when their heads flag or drop; the snowdrop droops, and flowers will generally droop from excess of drought or heat: the spirits in the same manner are said to droop, which expresses more than to flag; the human body also droops when the strength fails;

Shrunk with dry famine, and with toils declin'd, The draoping body will desert the mind .- POPE.

Languish is a still stronger expression than droop, and is applicable principally to persons; some languish in sickness, some in prison, and some in a state of distress; 'How finely has the poet told us that the sick persons languished under lingering and incurable dis tempers. —Addison. To pine is to be in a state of wearing pain which is mostly of a mental nature.

hild may pine when absent from all its friends, and "pposing itself deserted;

From beds of raging fire to starve in ice Their soft ethereal warmth, there to pine, Immoveably infix'd .- MILTON.

FAINT, LANGUID.

Faint, from the French faner to fade, signifies that which is faded or withered, which has lost its spirit; languid, in Latin languidus, from langueo to languish,

signifies languished.

Faint is less than languid; faintness is in fact in the physical application the commencement of lanquor; we may be faint for a short time, and if con-tinued and extended through the limbs it becomes languor; thus we say to speak with a faint tone, and bave a languid frame; and in the figurative applica-tion to make a faint resistance, to move with a lan-guid air; to form a faint idea, to make a languid effort :

Low the woods Bow their hoar head: and here the languid sun, Faint from the west, emits his evening ray.

Thomson.

PALE, PALLID, WAN.

Pale, in French pale, and pallid, in Latin pallidus, Free, in Freelin pate, and patent, in Latin patients, both come from pateleo to turn pate, which probably somes from the Greek $\pi\alpha\lambda\lambda\delta\nu\omega$ to make white, and that from $\pi\Delta\lambda\eta$ flour; wan is connected with want and wane, signifying in general a deficiency or a besing colour.

Pallid rises upon pale, and wan upon pallid: the absence of colour in any degree, where colour is a requisite or usual quality, constitutes paleness, but palness is an excess of paleness, and war is an unusual tyree of pallidness; paleness in the confidenance

revee of pattianess: paleness in the conflenance may be temporary; but pallidness and wanness are permanent; fear, or any sudden emotion, may produce paleness: but protracted sickness, hunger, and fatigue bring on pallidness; and when these calamities are combined and heightened by every aggravation, they may produce that which is peculiarly termed

Pale is an ordinary term for an ordinary quality, Pale is an ordinary term for an ordinary quanty, applicable to many very different objects, to persons, colours, lights, and luminaries. Paleness may be either a natural or an acquired deficiency: a person is said to be pale, a colour pale, a light pale, the sun pale; the deficiency may be desirable or otherwise; the paleness of the moon is agreeable, that of the complexion the contrary

Now morn, her lamp pale glimmering on the sight, Scatter'd before her sun reluctant night.

Pallid is an ordinary term for an extraordinary quality nothing is said to be pallid but the human face, and that not from the ordinary course of nature, but as the effect of disease; those who paint are most apt to look palled;

Her spirits faint, Her cheeks assume a pallid tint.—Addison.

Wan is an extraordinary term for an ordinary property, it is applicable only to ghostly objects, or such as are rendered monstrous by unusually powerful causes: the effects of death on the human visage are fully expressed by the term wan, when applied to an individual who is reduced, by severe abstinence or sickness, to a state bordering on the grave;

And with them comes a third with regal pomp, But faded splendour wan .- MILTON.

FATIGUE, WEARINESS, LASSITUDE.

Fatigue, from the Latin fatigo, that is, fatim abundantly or powerfully, and ago to act, or agito to agitate, designates an effect from a powerful or stimufating cause; weariness, from weary, a frequentative of wear, marks an effect from a continued or repeated cause; lassitude, from the Latin lassus, changed from lazus relaxed, marks a state without specifying a cause.

Fatigue is an exhaustion of the animal or mentae powers; weariness is a wearing out of the strength, or breaking the spirits; lassitude is a general relaxation of the animal frame. The labourer experiences fatigue from the toils of the day; the man of business, who is harassed by the multiplicity and complexity of his concerns suffice fatigue; and the cluder with a concerns suffice fatigue. cerns, suffers fatigue; and the student, who labours to fit himself for a publick exhibition of his acquirements is in like manner exposed to fatigue; 'One of the amusements of idleness is reading without the fatigue of close attention.'—Johnson. Weariness attends the traveller who takes a long or pathless journey; weari ness is the lot of the petitioner, who attends in the antichamber of a great man; the critic is doomed to suffer weariness, who is obliged to drag through the shallow but voluminous writings of a dull author; and the enlightened hearer will suffer no less weariness in listening to the absurd effusions of an extemporaneous preacher; 'For want of a process of events, neither knowledge nor elegance preserves the reader from wear? ness.'-Johnson

Lassitude is the consequence of a distempered system, sometimes brought on by an excess of fatigue, sometimes by sickness, and frequently by the action of the external air; 'The cattle in the fields show evident symptoms of lassitude and disgust in an un pleasant season.'—COWPER.

TO WEARY, TIRE, JADE, HARASS.

To weary is a frequentative of wear, that is, to wear out the strength; to tire, from the French tirer, and the Latin traho to draw, signifies to draw out the strength; to jade is the same as to goad; to karasa, w Distress

Long exertion wearies; a little exertion will tire a child or weak man; forced exertions jade; painful exertions, or exertions coupled with painful circumexertions, or earthous competed with pannin circumstances, harass: the horse is jaded which is forced on beyond his strength, the soldier is harassed who marches in perpetual fear of an attack from the enemy marches in perpetual rear of an attack from the enemy We are wearied with thinking when it gives us pain to think any longer; 'All pleasures that affect the body must needs weary.'—SOUTH. We are tired of our employment when it ceases to give us pleasure; 'Every warsel, to a satisfied hungar is only a new labout to a ployment when it ceases to give us pleasure; Every morsel to a satisfied hunger is only a new labour to a tired digestion. —South. We are jaded by incessant attention to business; 'I recall the time (and am glad it is over) when about this hour (six in the morning) I used to be going to bed surfeited with pleasure, or jaded with business.'—Bolingbroke. We are harassed by perpetual complaints which we cannot redress;

Bankrupt nobility, a factious, giddy, and Divided Senate, harass'd commonalty, Is all the strength of Venice.—OTWAY.

WEARISOME, TIRESOME, TEDIOUS.

Wearisome (v. To weary) is the general and indefinite term; tiresome, v. To weary; and tedious, causing tedium, a specifick form of wearisomeness: common things may cause weariness; that which acts painfully is either tiresome or tedious; but in different degrees the repetition of the same sounds will grow tiresome; the repetition of the same sounds will grow tiresome; long waiting in anxious suspense is tedious: there is more of that which is physical in the tiresome, and mental in the tedious; 'All weariness presupposes weakness, and consequently every long, importune, wearisome petition, is truly and properly a force upon him that is pursued with it.'—South.

Far happier were the meanest peasant's lot, Than to be plac'd on high, in anxious pride, The purple drudge and slave of tiresome state.

Happy the mortal man who now, at last, Has through this doleful vale of mis ry pass'd, Who to his destin'd stage has carried on The tedious load, and laid his burden down PRIOR

WEIGHT, HEAVINESS, GRAVITY.

Weight, from to weigh, is that which a thing weighs; heaviness, from heavy and heave, signifies the abstract quality of the heavy, or difficult to heave;

gravity, from the Latin gravis, likewise denotes the

same abstract qualities.

Weight is indefinite; whatever may be weighed has a weight, whether large or small: heaviness and gravity are the property of bodies having a great weight. Weight is only opposed to that which has or is supposed to have no weight, that is, what is incorporeal or immaterial: for we may speak of the weight of the lightest conceivable bodies, as the weight of a feather: heaviness is opposed to lightness; the heaviness of lead is opposed to the lightness of a feather.

Weight lies absolutely in the thing; heaviness is relatively considered with respect to the person: we estimate the weight of things according to a certain measure: we estimate the heaviness of things by our

Gravity is that species of weight, which is scientifi-cally considered as inherent in certain bodies; the term is therefore properly scientifick.

WEIGHT, BURDEN, LOAD.

Weight, v. Weight; burden, from bear, signifies the thing borne; load, in German laden, is supposed by Adelung to admit of a derivation from different sources; but he does not suppose that which appears to me the most natural, namely, from lay, which becomes in our preterit laid, particularly since in Low German and Dutch laden, to load, is contracted into laeyen, and the literal meaning of load is to lay on or

in any thing.

The term weight is here considered in common with the other terms, in the sense of a positive weight, as respects the persons or things by which it is allied to the word burden: the weight is said either of persons or things; the burden more commonly respects persons; the load may be said of either: a person may sink under the weight that rests upon him; a platform may break down from the weight upon it; a person sinks under his burden or load; a cart breaks down from the load. The weight is abstractedly taken for what is without reference to the cause of its being there: burden and load have respect to the person or thing by which they are produced; accident produces the weight; a person takes a burden upon himself, or has it imposed upon him; the load is always laid on; it is not proper to carry any weight that exceeds our strength; those who bear the burden expect to reap the fruit of their labour; he who carries loads must be contented to take such as are given him.

In the moral application, these terms mark the pain which is produced by a pressure; but the weight and load rather describe the positive severity of the pressure: the burden respects the temper and inclinations of the sufferer; the load is in this case a very great weight: a minister of state has a weight on his mind at all times, from the heavy responsibility which attaches to his station; 'With what oppressive weight will sickhis station; 'With what oppressive weight will sick-ness, disappointment, or old age fall upon the spirits of that man who is a stranger to God!'—Blair. One who labours under strong apprehensions or dread of an evil has a load on his mind; 'How a man can have a quiet and cheerful mind under a burden and load of guilt, I know not, unless he be very ignorant.'-RAY. Any sort of employment is a burden to one who wishes to be idle; and time unemployed is a burden to him

who wishes to be always in action;

I understood not that a grateful mind By owing owes not, but still pays at once; Indebted and discharg'd: what burden then? MILTON.

HEAVY, BURDENSOME, WEIGHTY, PON-DEROUS.

Heavy, from heave, signifies the causing to heave, or requiring to be lifted up with force; burdensome,

having a burden; weighty and ponderous, from the Latin pondus a weight, both signify having a weight.

Heaviness is the natural property of some bodies: burdensomeness is incidental to others. In the vulgar burdensomeness is incidental to others. In the vulgar sense, things are termed heavy which are found difficult to lift, in distinction from those which are light or easy to be lifted; but those things are burdensome which are too troublesome to be carried or borne: many things therefore are actually heavy that are never burden-

some; and others are occasionally burdensome tha. ase never heavy: that which is heavy is so whether lifted or not, but that which is burdensome must be burdensome to some one; 'Though philosophy teaches, that no element is heavy in its own place, yet experience shows that out of its own place it proves exceeding burdensome.'-South. Hard substances are mostly burdensome.'—SOUTH. Hard substances are mostly heavy; but to a weak person the softest substance may sometimes be burdensome if he is obliged to bear it: things are heavy according to the difficulty with which they are lifted; but they are weighty according as they weigh other things down. The heavy is therefore indefinite; but the weighty is definite, and something positively great: what is heavy to one may be light to another; but that which is weighty exceeds the ordinary weight of other things: nary weight of other things;

The sable troops along the narrow tracks Scarce bear the weighty burden on their backs.

Ponderous expresses even more than weighty, for it includes also the idea of bulk; the ponderous therefore is that which is so weighty and large that it cannot easily be moved; 'The diligence of an idler is rapid and impetuous, as ponderous hodies forced into velocity move with violence proportionate to their weight.'-Johnson

TO CLOG, LOAD, ENCUMBER.

Clog is probably changed from clot or clod, signify-Clog is probably changed from clot or clod, signifying to put a heavy lump in the way; load, from to load, in Saxou laden, Dutch, &c. laden, signifies to burden with a load, or lay any thing on so as to form a load; encumber, compounded of en or in and eumber, in German kwmmer, sorrow, signifies to burden with treable.

Clog is figuratively employed for whatever impedes the motion or action of a thing, drawn from the familiar object which is used to impede the motion of animals: load is used for whatever occasions an excess of weight or materials. A wheel is clogged, or a machine is clogged; a fire may be loaded with coals, or a picture with colouring. The stomach and memory may be either clogged or loaded; in the former case by the introduction of improper food; and in the second case by the introduction of an improper quantity. A memory that is clogged becomes confused, and confounds one thing with another; that which is loaded loses the impression of one object by the introduction of another; Butler sives Hudibras that pe-dantick ostentation of knowledge, which has no rela-tion to chivalry, and loads him with martial encum-brances that can add nothing to his civil dignity. JOHNSON.

Clog and encumber have the common signification of interrupting or troubling by means of something of linerrupting of touching by means of sometiming irrelevant. Whatever is clogged has scarcely the liberty of moving at all; whatever is encumbered moves and acts, but with difficulty. When the roots of plants are clogged with mould, or any improper substance, their growth is almost stopped: weeds and noxious plants are encumbrances in the ground where flowers should grow; the commands or prohibition of parents sometimes very fortunately clog those whose sanguine tempers would lead them into imprudence; Whatsoever was observed by the ancient philoso-phers, either irregular or defective in the workings of the mind, was all charged upon the body as its great cleg."—South. No one can expect to proceed with ease to himself in any transaction, who is excumbered with a variety of concerns at the same time; 'This minority is great and formidable. I do not know whether, if I aimed at the total overthrow of a kingdom, I should wish to be cncumbered with a large body of partizans.'—BURKE.

TO POISE, BALANCE.

Poise, in French peser, probably comes from pes a foot, on which the body is as it were poised; balance in French balancer, comes from the Latin bilanz, or bis and lanz, a pair of scales.

The idea of bringing into an equilibrium is commor to both terms; but poise is a particular, and balanc a more general term: a thing is poised as respect itself; it is balanced as respects other things posses a plain stick in his hand when he wants it to lie even; he balances the stick if it has a particular weight at each end: a person may poise himself, but he balances others: when not on firm ground, it is necessary to poise oneself; when two persons are situated one at each end of a beam, they may balance one another. These terms preserve the same distinction in a figurative acceptation;

Some evil, terrible and unforeseen,

Must sure ensue, to poise the scale against This vast profusion of exceeding pleasure.—Rowe.

This, O! this very moment let me die, While hopes and fears in equal balance lie.

DRYDEN.

TO PERISH, DIE, DECAY.

Perish, in French perir, in Latin pereo, compounded of per and eo, signifies to go thoroughly away; die, v.

To die; and decay, v. To decay.

To perish expresses more than to die, and is applicable to many objects; for the latter is properly applied only to express the extinction of animal life, and figuratively to express the extinction of life or spirit in vegetables or other bodies; but the former is applied to express the dissolution of substances, so that they lose their existence as aggregate bodies. perishes, therefore, does not always die, although whatever dies, by that very act perishes to a certain extent Hence we say that wood perishes, although it does not die; people are said either to perish or die: but as the term perish expresses even more than duing, it is possible for the same thing to die and not perish; thus a plant may be said to die when it loses its vegetative power; but it is said to perish if its substance crumbles into dust.

To perish expresses the end; to decay, the process by which this end is brought about: a thing may be long in decaying, but when it perishes it ceases at once to act or to exist: things may, therefore, perish without decaying; they may likewise decay without perish ing. Things may perish by means of water, fire, light-ning, and the like, which are altogether new, and have experienced no kind of decay: on the other han, wood, iron, and other substances may begin to decay, but may be saved from immediately perishing by the applica-

tion of preventives.

In a moral or extended application of the terms they preserve a similar distinction: to die signifies simply to fall away; thus, thoughts may die in one's breast which never return, or power may die with the pos-sessor; 'Whatever pleasure any man may take in spreading whispers, he will find greater satisfaction in letting the secret die within his own breast '-SPECTA-TOR. With perish is always associated the manner and degree of the extinction, namely, that it is complete, and effected for the most part by violence;

Beauty and youth about to perish finds

Such noble pity in brave English minds .- WALLER. Decay is figuratively employed in the sense of gradually sinking into a state of non-existence;

The soul's dark cottage, batter'd and decay'd Lets in new light through chinks that time has made.

TO DIE, EXPIRE.

Die, in Low German doen, Danish doe, from the Greek θύειν to kill, designates in general the extinction of being, which may be considered either as gradual or otherwise; 'She died every day she lived.'—Rowe. or otherwise; 'She area every day she invent.—Rowe. Expire, from the Latin e or ex and spiro to breathe out, designates the last action of life in certain objects, and is of course a momentary act; 'Pope died in the evening of the thirtieth day of May, 1744, so placibly, that the attendants did not discern the exact time of his expirate at "LUNSON"

*There are beings, such as trees and plants, which are said to live, although they have not breath; these die, but do not expire: there are other beings which absorb and emit air, but do not live; such as the flame of a lamp, which does not die, but it expires. By a natural metaphor, the time of being is put for the life

* Vide Trusler: "Die, expire."

of objects; and hence we speak of the date expering, of objects; and hence we speak of the date expriring, the term expiring, and the like; 'A parliament may expire by length of time!—Blackstone. As life is applied figuratively to moral objects, so may death to objects not having physical life; 'A dissolution is the civil death of parliament.—Blackstone. 'When Alexander the Great died, the Grecian monarchy excited with his?' Section 1. pired with him.'-South.

DEATH, DEPARTURE, DECEASE, DEMISE.

Death signifies the act of dying; departure, the act of departing; decease, from the Latin decedo to fall off, the act of falling away; demise, from demitto to lay down, signifies literally resigning possession.

Death is a general or a particular term; it marks in the abstract sense the extinction of life, and is applicable to men or animals; to one or many. Departure decease, and demise are particular expressions suited only to the condition of human beings. * Departure * Departure is a Christian term, which carries with it an idea of a passage from one life to another; decease is a technical term in law, which is introduced into common language to designate one's falling off from the number of the living; demise is substituted for decease in speaking of princes, who by their death also put on their ca, thly power; 'So tender is the law of supposing even a possibility of the king's death, that his natural dissolution is generally called his demise'— BLACKSTONE.

Death of itself has always something terrifick in it: but the Gospel has divested it of its terrours: the hour of departure, therefore, for a Christian is often the happiest period of his mortal existence; 'How quickly would the honours of illustrious men perish after death if their souls performed nothing to preserve their fame. -Hughes (after Xenophon). Decease presents only the idea of leaving life to the survivors. Of death it has been said, that nothing is more certain than that it will come, and nothing more uncertain than when it Knowing that we have here no resting place of abode, it is the part of wisdom to look forward to our departure; 'The loss of our friends impresses to our departure; 'The loss of our linends impresses upon us hourly the necessity of our own departure.'—
Johnson. Property is in perpetual occupancy; at the decease of one possessor, it passes into the hands of another; 'Though men see every day people go to their long home, they are not so apt to be alarmed at that, as at the decease of those who have lived longer in their sight.'—Stelle.

The death of an individual is sometimes attended with circumstances peculiarly distressing to those who are nearly related. The tears which are shed at the departure of those we love are not always indications of our weakness, but rather testimonies of their

worth.

As an epithet, dead is used collectively; departed is used with a noun only; deceased generally without a noun, to denote one or more according to the connexion.

There is a respect due to the dead, which cannot be violated without offence to the living;

The living and the dead, at his command. Were coupled face to face, and hand to hand.

It is a pleasant reflection to conceive of departed spirits, as taking an interest in the concerns of those whom they have left; 'The sophistick tyrants of Paris are loud in their declamations against the departed aregal tyrants, who in former ages have vexed the world.'—Burke. All the marks on the body of the deceased indicated that he had met with his death by some violence; 'It was enacted in the reign of Edward I., that the ordinary shall be bound to pay the debts of the intestate, in the same manner that exe cutors were bound in case the deceased left a will.'-BLACKSTONE.

DEADLY, MORTAL, FATAL,

Deadly or deadlike signifies like death itself in its effects; mortal, in Latin mortalis, signifies belonging to death; fatal, in Latin fatalis, i. e. according to fate. Deadly is applied to what is productive of death;

* Vide Trusler: "Departure, death, decease."

WALLER.

On him amid the flying numbers found, Eurypilus inflicts a deadly wound .-- Pope.

Mortal to what terminates in or is liable to death; 'For my own part, I never could think that the soul, while in a mortal body, lives.'—Huoques (after Xenophon). Fatal applies not only to death, but every thing which may be of great mischief;

O fatal change! become in one sad day A senseless corse! inanimated clay.—Pops.

A poison is deadly; a wound or a wounded part is mortal; a step in walking, or a step in one's conduct, may be fatal. Things only are deadly, creatures are mortal. Hatred is deadly; whatever has life is mortal. There may be remedies sometimes to counteract that which is deadly; but that which is mortal is past all cure; and that which is fatal cannot be retrieved.

NUMB, BENUMBED, TORPID.

Numb and benumbed come from the Hebrew num to sleep; the former denoting the quality, and the latter the state: there are but few things numb by latter the state: there are but few things numb by mature; but there may be many things which may be benumbed. Torpid, in Latin torpidus, from torpeo to languish, is most commonly employed to express the permanent state of being benumbed, as in the case of some animals, which lie in a torpid state all the winter; or in the moral sense to depict the benumbed state of the thinking faculty; in this manner we speak of the torpor of persons who are benumbed by any strong affection, or by any strong external action; 'The night, with its slience and darkness, shows the winter. in with its silence and darkness, shows the winter, in which all the powers of vegetation are benumbed.'—
Johnson, 'There must be a grand spectacle to rouse the imagination, grown torpid with the lazy enjoyment of sixty years' security.'—Burke.

EXIT, DEPARTURE.

Both these words are metaphorically employed for death, or a passage out of this life: the former is borrowed from the act of going off the stage; the latter from the act of setting off on a journey. The exit seems to convey the idea of volition; for we speak of making our exit: the departure designates simply the event; the hour of a man's departure is not made known to him. When we speak of the exit, we think known to him. When we speak of the exit, we think only of the place left; when we speak of departure, we think not only of the object left, but of the place gone to. The unbeliever may talk of his exit; the Christian most commonly speaks of his departure; There are no ideas strike more forcibly upon our imaginations than those which are raised from reflections upon the exits of great and excellent men.' Happy was their good prince in his timely departure, which barred him from the knowledge of his son's miseries.'-SIDNEY.

TO STRENGTHEN, FORTIFY, INVIGORATE.

Strengthen, from strength, and fortify, from fortis and facto, signify to make strong; invigorate signifies

to put in vigour (v Energy).
Whatever adds to the strength, be it in ever so small Whatever audit is the strength, we in ever so shall a degree, strengthens; exercise strengthens either body or mind; 'There is a certain bias towards knowledge, in every mind, which may be strengthened and improved.'—Budgell. Whatever gives strength for a particular emergence fortifies; religion fortifies the mind against adversity; 'This relation will not be wholly without its use, if those who languish under any part of its sufferings shall be enabled to fortify any part of its suffering small be enabled to justify their patience by reflecting that they feel only those afflictions from which the abilities of Savage could not exempt him.'—Johnson. Whatever adds to the strength, so as to give a positive degree of strength, invigorates; morning exercise in fine weather invigorates. gorates;

For much the pack (Rous'd from their dark alcoves) delight to stretch And bask in his invigorating ray .- SomeRVILLE.

STRONG, FIRM, ROBUST, STURDY.

Strong is in all probability a variation of strict, which is in German streng, because strength is alto-

gether derived from the close contexture of bodies; robust, in Latin robustus, from robus, signifies lite-rally having the strength of oak; sturdy, like the word stout, steady (v. Firm), comes in all probability from stehen to stand, signifying capable of standing.

stehen to stand, signifying capable of standing.

Strong is here the generick term; the others are spe
cifick, or specify strength under different circum
stances; robust is a positive and high degree of
strength, arising from a peculiar bodily make; sturdy
indicates not only strength of body but also of mind: a man may be strong from the strength of his constitution, from the power which is inherent in his frame;

If thou hast strength, 't was Heaven that strength bestow'd .- POPE.

A robust man has strength both from the size and tex ture of his body, he has a bone and nerve which is endowed with great power. A little man may be strong, although not robust; a tall, stout man, in full health, may be termed robust.

A man may be strined rooms.

A man may be strong in one part of his body and not in another; he may be stronger at one time, from particular circumstances, than he is at another: but a robust man is strong in his whole body; and as he is robust by nature, he will cease to be so only from discusses. disease;

The huntsman ever gay, robust, and bold, Defies the noxious vapour.—Somerville.

Sturdiness lies both in the make of the body and the temper of the mind: a sturdy man is capable of making resistance, and ready to make it; he must be naturally strong, and not of slender make, but he need not be robust: a sturdy peasant presents us with the picture of a man who, both by nature and habit, is formed for withstanding the inroads of an enemy;

This must be done, and I would fain see Mortal so sturdy as to gainsay .- HUDIBRAS. Sometimes this epithet is applied to those objects which cause a violent resistance;

Beneath their sturdy strokes the billows roar.

DRYDEN

Every object is termed strong which is the reverse of weak; persons only are termed robust who have every bodily requisite to make them more than ordinaily strong; persons only are sturdy whose habits of life qualify them both for action and for endurance.

SUBSTANTIAL, SOLID.

Substantial signifies having a substance: solid sig Substantial signifies having a substantial suffice having a firm substance. The substantial is opposed to that which is thin and has no consistency; the solid is opposed to the liquid, or that which is of loose consistency. All objects which admit of being handled are in their nature substantial; those which consolers have a texture as to require to the culture. are of so hard a texture as to require to be cut are solid. Substantial food is that which has a consistency in itself, and is capable of giving fulness to the empty stomach: solid food is meat in distinction from drink.

In the moral application, an argument is said to be substantial which has weight in itself;

Trusting in its own native and substantial worth, Scorns all meretricious ornaments.-MILTON.

A reason is solid which has a high degree of substan tiality;

As the swoln columns of ascending smoke, So solid swells thy grandeur, pigmy man.

ENERGY, FORCE, VIGOUR.

Energy, in French energie, Latin energia, Greek ἐνεργία from ἐνεργέω to operate inwardly, signifies the power of producing positive effects; force, v. To com pel; vigowr, from the Latin vigeo to flourish, signifies unimpaired power, or that which belongs to a subject in a sound or flourishing state.

In a sound of Hourishing state.

With energy is connected the idea of activity; with force that of capability; with vigour that of health.

Energy lies only in the mind; force and vigour are the property of either body or mind. Knowledge and freedom combine to produce energy of character; 'Our powers owe much of their energy to our hopes, possunt guia posse videntur. When success seems

attainable, diligence is enforced."—Jounson. Force is a gift of nature that may be increased by exercise;

On the passive main

Descends th' ethereal force, and with strong gust Turns from its bottom the discolour'd deep.

THOMSON.

Vigour, both bodily and mental, is an ordinary accompanimen f youth, but is not always denied to old age; 'No man at the age and rigour of thirty is fond of sugar-plums and rattles.'-South.

HARD, FIRM, SOLID.

The close adherence of the component parts of a The close adherence of the component parts of a body constitutes hardness. The close adherence of different bodies to each other constitutes firmness (v Fixed). That is hard which will not yield to a closer compression; 'I see you labouring through all your inconveniences of the rough roads, the hard saddle, the trotting horse, and what not.'—Pope. That is firm which will not yield so as to produce a separation;

The loosen'd ice Rustles no more; but to the sedgy bank Fast grows, or gathers round the pointed stone, A crystal pavement, by the breath of heaven Cemented firm.—Thomson.

Ice is hard, as far as it respects itself, when it resists every pressure; it is firm, with regard to the water which it covers, when it is so closely bound as to resist

every weight without breaking.

Hard and solid respect the internal constitution of bodies, and the adherence of the component parts both sard denotes a much closer degree of adherence than solid: the hard is opposed to the soft; the solid to the fluid; every hard body is by nature solid; although every solid body is not hard. Wood is always a solid body, but is sometimes hard and some-times soft: water, when congealed, is a solid body, and admits of different degrees of hardness; 'A copious manner of expression gives strength and weight to our ideas, which frequently makes impression upon the mind, as iron does upon solid bodies, rather by repeated strokes than a single blow.'—Melmoth (Letters

of Pliny).

In the improper application, hardness is allied to insensibility; firmness to fixedness; solidity to substantiality; a hard man is not to be acted upon by any tender motives; a firm man is not to be turned from his purpose; a solid man holds no purposes that are not well founded. A man is hardened in that which is bad, by being made insensible to that which is good: a man is confirmed in any thing good or bad, by being rendered less disposed to lay it aside: his mind is consolidated by acquiring fresh motives for action.

HARD, CALLOUS, HARDENED, OBDURATE.

Hard is here, as in the former case (v. Hard), the gen real term, and the rest particular: hard, in its extensive and physical sense, denotes the property of resisting the action of external force, so as not to undergo any change in its form, or motion in its parts: callous is that species of the hard, in application to the skin, which arises from its dryness, and the absence of all nervous susceptibility. Hard and callous are likewise applied in the moral sense: but hard denotes the absence of tender feeling, or the property of resisting any impression which tender objects are apt to produce;

Such woes Not e'en the hardest of our foes could hear, Nor stern Ulysses tell without a tear.—Dryden.

Callous denotes the property of not vielding to the Cattors denotes the property of not yielding to the force of objects acting on the senses of the mind; 'Licentiousness has so long passed for sharpness of wit, and greatness of mind, that the conscience is grown-allows.'—L'ESTRANGE. A hard heart cannot be moved by the sight of misery, let it be presented in ever so effecting a form a sallows mind is not to be ever so affecting a form: a callous mind is not to be touched by any persuasions however powerful.

Hard does not designate any circumstance of its existence or origin: we may be hard from a variety of causes; but callousness arises from the indulgence of

When we speak of a person as hard, it simply deter-

when we speak of a person as hard, it simply determines what he is: if we speak of him as callous, it refers also to what he was, and from what he is become so; 'By degrees the sense gnows callous, and loses that exquisite relish of trifles.'—BERKLEY.
Callous, hardened, and obdurate are all employed to designate a morally deprayed character: but callous ness belongs properly to the heart and affections; hardened to both the heart and the understanding; obdurate more particularly to the will. Callousness obdurate more particularly to the will. Callousness is the first stage of hardness in moral deprayity; it may exist in the infant mind, on its first tasting the poisonous pleasures of vice, without being acquainted with its remote consequences; 'If they let go their hope of everlasting life with willingness, and entertain final perdition with exultation, ought they not to be esteemed destitute of common sense, and abandoned to a callousness and numbness of soul?'-Bentley. A hardened state is the work of time; it arises from a continued course of vice, which becomes as it were habitual, and wholly unfits a person for admitting of any other impressions;

His harden'd heart, nor prayers, nor threatenings move

Fate and the gods had stopp'd his ears to love.

Obduracy is the last stage of moral hardness, which supposes the whole mind to be obstinately bent on

Round he throws his baleful eyes, That witness'd huge affliction and dismay, Mix'd with obdurate pride and steadfast hate

A child discovers himself to be callous, when the tears and entreaties of a parent cannot awaken in him a single sentiment of contrition; a youth discovers him self to be hardened when he begins to take a pride and a pleasure in a vicious career; a man shows himself to be obdurate when he betrays a settled and confirmed purpose to pursue his abandoned course, without regard to consequences.

HARDHEARTED, CRUEL, UNMERCIFUL, MERCILESS.

Hardhearted is here, as the word hard (v. Hard) the strongest of these terms: in regard to cruel, it be speaks a settled character; whereas that may be fre quently a temporary disposition, or even extend no father than the action. A hardhearted man must always be cruel; but it is possible to be cruel, and yet not hardhearted. A hardhearted parent is a monster who spurns from him the being that owes his existence to him, and depends upon him for support. A child is often cruel to animals from the mistaken conception that they are not liable to the same sufferings as himself

The unmerciful and merciless are both modes or characteristicks of the hardhearted. An unmerciful man is hardhearted, inasmuch as he is unwilling to ex man is naraneariea, mannion as he is unwining to extend his compassion or mercy to one who is in his power; a merciless man, which is more than an unmerciful man, is hardhearted, inasmuch as he is restrained by no compunctions feelings from inflicting pain on those who are in his power. Avarice makes a man hardhearted even to those who are bound to him by the closest ties. Avaries will make a man un-merciful to those who are in his debt. There are many merciless tyrants in domestick life, who show their disposition by their merciless treatment of their poor brutes; 'Single men, though they be many times more charitable, on the other side, are more cruel and hardhearted, because their tenderness is not so oft called upon.'-BACON.

Relentless love the cruel mother led

The blood of her unhappy babes to shed .- DRYDEN. 'I saw how unmerciful you were to your eyes in your last letter to me.'—Tillotson.

To crush a merciless and cruel victor.-DRYDEN

CRUEL, INHUMAN, BARBAROUS, BRUTAL, SAVAGE.

Cruel, from the Latin crudelis and crudus raw vices, passions, and the pursuit of vicious practices. rough, or untutored; inhuman, compounded of the privative in and human, signifies not human; barbarous, from the Greek $\beta \delta \rho \beta a \rho \sigma_0$ rude or unsettled, all mark a degree of bad feeling which is uncontrolled by culture or refinement; brutal, signifying like a brute; and savage, from the Latin sævus fierce, and the Hebrew 387 a wolf, marks a still stronger degree

of this bad passion.

JOHNSON.

Cruel is the most familiar and the least powerful epithet of all these terms; it designates the ordinary propensity which is innate in man, and which if not propensity which is annate in man, and which it had overpowered by a better principle, will invariably show itself by the desire of inflicting positive pain on others, or abridging their comfort: inhuman and barbarous are higher degrees of cruelty; brutal and savage rise on much in degree above the rest, as almost to partake of another nature. A child gives early symptoms of his natural cruelty by his ill-treatment of animals; but we do not speak of his inhumanity, because this is a term confined to men, and more properly to their treatment of their own species, although extended in its sense to their treatment of the brutes: barbarity is but too common among children and persons of riper years. A person is cruel who neglects the creature he should protect and take care of;

Now be thy rage, thy fatal rage resign'd, A cruel heart ill suits a manly mind .- POPE.

A person is inhuman if he withhold from him the common marks of tenderness or kindness which are to be expected from one human being to another;

Love lent the sword, the mother struck the blow, Inhuman she, but more inhuman thou.—DRYDEN.

A person is barbarous if he find amusement in inflicting pain;

I have found out a gift for my fair, I have found where the wood-pigeons breed, But let me that plunder forbear, She will say, 't was a barbarous deed.

SHENSTONE.

A person is brutal or savage according to the circumstances of aggravation which accompany the act of torturing; 'The play was acted at the other theatre, and the brutal petulance of Cibber was confused, though perhaps not shamed, by general applause.'

Brothers by brothers' impious hands are slain! Mistaken zeal, how savage is thy reign

JENYNS. Cruel is applied either to the disposition or the con-

duct; inhuman and barbarous mostly to the outward conduct: brutal and savage mostly to the disposition. Cruelties and even barbarities, too horrid to relate, are daily practised by men upon dogs and horses, the usefullest and most unoffending of brutes; either for the indulgence of a naturally brutal temper, or from the impulse of a savage fury: we need not wonder to find the same men inhuman towards their children or their Domitian was notorious for the cruelty of his disposition: the Romans indulged themselves in the inhuman practice of making their slaves and convicts fight with wild beasts; but the barbarities which have been practised on slaves in the colonies of European states, exceed every thing in atrocity that is reated of ancient times; proving that, in spite of all the refinement which the religion of our blessed Saviour has introduced into the world, the possession of uncontrolled power will inevitably brutalize the mind, and give a savage ferocity to the character.

FEROCIOUS, FIERCE, SAVAGE.

Ferocious and fierce are both derived from the Latin Feroctous and serve are both derived from the Latin ferox, which comes from fera a wild beast: savage, v. Cruel; ferocity marks the untained character of a cruel disposition; ferocures has a greater mixture of pride and anger in it, the word fierte in French being taken for haughtiness: savageness marks a more permanent, but not so violent, a sentiment of either cruelty or anger as the two former. Ferocity and fierceness are in common applied to the brutes, to designate their natural tempers: savage is mostly employed to designate the natural tempers of man, when uncontrolled by the force of reason and a sense of religion. Ferocity is the natural characteristick of wild beasts; it is

a delight in blood that needs no outward stimulus to call it into action; but it displays itself most strikingly in the moment when the animal is going to grasp, or when in the act of devouring, its prey: fierceness may be provoked in many creatures, but it does not discover itself unless roused by some circumstances of cover usen unless roused by some circumstances of aggravation; many animals become fierce by being shut up in cages, and exposed to the view of spectators: savageness is as natural a temper in the uncivilized man, as ferocity or fierceness in the brute; it does not wait for an enemy to attack, but is restless in search of some one whom it may make an enemy, and have an opportunity of destroying. It is an easy transition for the savage to become the ferocious cannibal, glutting himself in the blood of his enemies, or the fierce antagonist to one who sets himself up in opposition to him.

In an extended application of these terms, they bear the same relation to each other: the countenance may be either ferocious, fierce, or savage, according to circumstances. A robber who spends his life in the act of unlawfully shedding blood acquires a ferocity of countenance; 'The ferocious character of Moloch appears both in the battle and the council with exact consistency.'-Johnson. A soldier who follows a predatory and desultory mode of warfare betrays the licentiousness of his calling, and his undisciplined temper, in the fierceness of his countenance;

The tempest falls,
The weary winds sink, breathless. But who knows
What fiercer tempest yet may shake this night? THOMSON.

The wretch whose enjoyment consists in inflicting misery on his dependants or subjects, evinces the savageness of his temper by the savage joy with which he witnesses their groans and tortures;

Nay, the dire monsters that infest the flood, By nature dreadful, and athirst for blood. His will can calm, their savage tempers bind, And turn to mild protectors of mankind .- Young.

HARD, HARDY, INSENSIBLE, UNFEELING.

Hard (v. Hard) may either be applied to that which makes resistance to external impressions, or that which presses with a force upon other objects: hardy, which hesses with a torte upon other or gets. Rarag, which is only a variation of hard, is applicable only in the first case: thus, a person's skin may be hard, which is not easily acted upon; but the person is said to be hardy who can withstand the elements;

Ocnus was next, who led his native train Of hardy warriours through the watery plain.

DRYDEN.

On the other hand, hard, when employed as an active principle, is only applied to the moral character: hence, the difference between a hardy man who endures every thing, and a hard man who makes others endure. sensible and unfeeling are but modes of the hard; that is, they designate the negative quality of hardness, or its incapacity to receive impression: hard, therefore, is always the strongest term of the three; and of the two, unfeeling is stronger than insensible. Hard and insensible are applied physically and morally; unfecting is employed only as a moral characteristick. A horse's mouth is hard, inasmuch as it is insensible to the action of the bit; a man's heart is hard which is insensible to the miseries of others; a man is unfeeling who does not regard the feelings of others. The heart may be hard by nature, or rendered so by the influence of some passion; but the person is commonly unfeeling from circumstances. Shylock is depicted by Shakspeare as hard, from his strong antipathy to the Christians: people who enjoy an uninterrupted state of good health, are often unfeeling in cases of sickness.

As that which is hard mostly hurts or pains when it

comes in contact with the soft, the term hard is pecu-liarly applicable to superiours, or-such as have power to inflict pain a creditor may be hard towards a debtor; 'To be inaccessible, contemptuous, and hard of heart, is to revolt against our own nature.'—BLAIR. As insensible signifies a want of sense, it may be sometimes necessary: a surgeon, when performing an operation, must be insensible to the present pain which he inflicts; but as a habit of the mind it is always bad;

"It is both reproachfa and criminal to have an insensible heart.'-Blair. As unfeeling signifies a want of feeling, it is always taken for a want of good feeling where the removal of pain is required: the surgeon shows himself to be unfeeling who does not do every thing in his power to lessen the pain of the sufferer;

> The father too a sordid man, Who love nor pity knew, Was all unfeeling as the rock From whence his riches grew .- MALLET.

INDIFFERENCE, INSENSIBILITY, APATHY.

Indifference signifies no difference; that is, having majerence signifies no appearer, that is, naving no difference of feeling for one thing more than another; insensibility, from sense and able, signifies incapable of feeling; apathy, from the Greek privative **a** and mdbo; feeling, implies without feeling.

Indifference is a partial state of the mind; apathy, and insensibility are general states of the mind; he who has indifference is not to be awakened to feeling by some objects, though he may by others; but he who by some objects, though the some sensibility is incapable of feeling; and he who has another is without any feeling. Indifference is has not sensitivity is incapation of reeling; and ne who has apathy is without any feeling. Indifference is mostly a temporary state; insensibility is either a temporary or a permanent state; apathy is always a permanent state: indifference is either acquired or accidental; insensibility is either produced or natural; apathy is natural. A person may be in a state of in-difference about a thing the value of which he is not aware of, or acquire an indifference for that which he knows to be of comparatively little value; he may be in a state of insensibility from some lethargick torpor which has seized his mind; or he may have an habitual insensibility arising either from the contractedness of his powers, or the physical bluntness of his understanding, and deadness of his passions; his apathy is born with him, and forms a prominent feature in the constitution of his mind.

Indifference is often the consequence of insensi-bility; for he who is not sensible or alive to any feel-ing must naturally be without choice or preference: but indifference is not always insensibility, since we but indifference is not always insensibility, since we may be indifferent to one thing because we have an equal liking to another; 'I could never prevail with myself to exchange joy and sorrow for a state of constant tasteless indifference.—Hoadly. In like manner insensibility may spring from apathy, for he who has no feeling is naturally not to be awakened to feding, that is, he is unfeeling or insensible by constitu-tion; but since his insensibility may spring from other causes besides those that are natural, he may be insensible without having apathy; 'I look upon Iseus not only as the most eloquent but the most happy of men; as I shall esteem you the most insensible if you appear to slight his acquaintance.'--Melmoth (Letters of Pliny). Moreover, it is observable that between insensibility and apathy there is this farther distinction, that the former refers only to our capacity for being moved by the outward objects that surround us; whereas apathy denotes an entire internal deadness of all the feelings: but we may be insensible to the present external objects from the total absorption of all the powers and feelings in one distant object; 'To remain insensible of such provocations, is not constancy, but apathy.'—South.

INDIFFERENT, UNCONCERNED, REGARDLESS.

Indifferent (v. Indifference) marks the want of inclination: unconcerned, that is, having no concern (r. Care and regardless, that is, without regard (v. Care); mark

the want of serious consideration.

Indifferent respects only the will, unconcerned either the will or the understanding, regardless the understanding only; we are indifferent about matters of minor consideration: we are unconcerned or regardless about serious matters that have remote conse quences; an author will seldom be indifferent about the success of his work; he ought not to be unconcerned about the influence which his writings may have on the publick, or regardless of the estimation in which his own character as a man may be held. To be indifferent is sometimes an act of wisdom or virtue:

to be unconcerned or regardless is mostly an act of folly or a breach of duty.

When the object is purely of a personal nature, it is

but treating it as it deserves if we are indifferent about it; hence a wise man is indifferent about the applause of the multitude; 'As an author I am perfectly indif ferent to the judgement of all except the few who are really judicious."—Cowper. As religion should be the object of our concern, if we are unconcerned about any thing connected with it, the fault is in ourselves; a good parent will never be unconcerned about the religious education of his children;

Not the most cruel of our conquering foes, So unconcern'dly can relate our woes .- DENHAM.

Whatever tends to increase our knowledge or to add to the comfort of others, ought to excite our regard; if therefore we are regardless of these things, we be-tray a culpable want of feeling; a good child will never be regardless of the admonition of a parent;

Regardless of my words, he no reply Returns .-- DRYDEN.

SENSIBLE, SENSITIVE, SENTIENT.

All these epithets, which are derived from the same source (v. To feel), have obviously a great sameness of meaning, though not of application. Sensible and sensitive both denote the capacity of being moved to feeling: sentient implies the very act of feeling. Sensible expresses either a habit of the body and mind, or only a particular state referring to some particular object; a person may be sensible of things in general, or sensible of cold, or sensible of injuries, or sensible of the kindnesses which he has received from an individual:

And with affection wondrous sensible, He wrung Bassanio's hand, and so they parted SHAKSPEARE.

Sensitive signifies always an habitual or permanent quality; it is the characteristick of objects; a sensi-tive creature implies one whose sense is by distinction quickly to be acted upon: a sensitive plant is a pecuthat species of plants, marked for the property of having sense or being sensible of the touch; 'Those creatures live more alone whose food, and therefore prey, is upon other sensitive creatures.'—TEMPLE.

Sensible and sensitive have always a reference to but sentient expresses simply the external objects; possession of feeling, or the power of feeling, and excludes the idea of the cause. Hence, the terms sen-sible and sensitive are applied only to persons or corporeal objects; but sentient is likewise applicable to spirits; sentient beings may include angels as well as men; 'This acting of the sentient phantasy is performed by the presence of sense, as the horse is under the sense of hunger, and that without any formal syl-logism presseth him to eat.'—HALE.

SENSUALIST, VOLUPTUARY, EPICURE.

The sensualist lives for the indulgence of his senses. the voluptuary, from voluptas pleasure, is devoted to his pleasures, and as far as these pleasures are the pleasures of sense, the voluptuary is a sensealist: the epicure, from the philosopher Epicurus, who is charged with having been the votary of pleasure, is one who makes the pleasures of sense his god, and in this sense he is a sensualist and a voluptuary. In the applica-tion of these terms, however, the sensualist is one who is a slave to the grossest appetites; 'Let the sensualist satisfy himself as he is able; he will find that there is a certain living spark within which all the drink he can pour in will never be able to quench.'-South. The voluptuary is one who studies his pleasures so as to make them the most valuable to himself; 'To fill up the drawing of this personage, he conceived a voluptuary, who in his person should be bloated and blown up to the size of a Silenus; lazy, luxurious, in BERLAND. The epicure is a species of voluptuary who practises more than ordinary refinement in the choice of his pleasures; 'What epicure can be always plying his palate?'—SOUTH.

SENTENTIOUS, SENTIMENTAL

Sententious signifies having or abounding in sentences or judgements: sentimental, having sentiment (v. Opinion). Books and authors are termed sententious; but travellers, society, intercourse, correspondtious; but travellers, society, intercourse, corres; ourence, and the like, are characterized as sentimental.

Moralists like Dr. Johnson are termed sententious,
whose works and conversation abound in moral sentences; 'His (Mr. Ferguson's) love of Montesquieu
and Tacitus has led him into a manner of writing too short-winded and sententious.'-GRAY. Novelists and romance writers, like Mrs. Radcliffe, are properly sentimental; In books, whether moral or amusing, there are no passages more captivating than those delicate strokes of sentimental morality which refer our actions to the determination of feeling.—Mackenzie. Sententious books always serve for improvement; sentimental works, unless they are of a superiour order, are in general hurtful.

SENTIMENT, SENSATION, PERCEPTION.

Sentiment and sensation are obviously derived from the same source, namely, from the Greek συνετίζω to make intelligent, and ovvinu to understand; perception, from perceive (v. To see), expresses the act of perceiving, or the impressions produced by perceiving.

The impressions which objects make upon the person are designated by all these terms; but the sentiment has its seat in the heart, the sensation is confined to the senses, and the perception rests in the understanding. Sentiments are lively, sensations are grateful, perceptions are clear.

Gratitude is a sentiment the most pleasing to the

human mind:

tellectual observers :

Alike to council, or the assembly came, With equal souls and sentiments the same .- POPE.

The sensation produced by the action of electricity on The sensation produced by the action of electricity on the frame is generally unpleasant; 'Diversity of constitution, or other circumstances, vary the sensations, and to them Java pepper is cold.'—GLANVILLE. A mice perception of objects is one of the first requisites for perfection in any art; 'Matter hath no life nor perception, and is not conscious of its own existence.'—BENTLEY "The sentiment extends to the manners and morals, and renders us alive to the haminess or and morals, and renders us alive to the happiness or misery of others as well as our own; 'I am framing every possible pretence to live hereafter according to my own taste and sentiments.'—Melmoth (Letters) of Cicero). The sensation is purely physical; it makes us alive only to the effects of external objects on our physical organs; 'When we describe our sensations of another's sorrows in condolence, the customs of the world scarcely admit of rigid veracity,'—Johnson, Perceptions carry us into the district of science; they

give us an interest in all the surrounding objects as in-When first the trembling eye receives the day, External forms on young perception play. LANGHORNE.

A man of spirit or courage receives marks of honour, or affronts, with very different sentiments from the poltroon: he who bounds his happiness by the present fleeting existence must be careful to remove every painful sensation: we judge of objects as complex or simple, according to the number of perceptions which they produce in us.

TO FEEL, BE SENSIBLE, CONSCIOUS.

From the simple idea of a sense, the word feel has acquired the most extensive signification and applica-tion in our language, and may be employed indiffer-ently for all the other terms, but not in all cases: to feel is said of the whole frame, inwardly and out-wardly; it is the accompaniment of existence: to be sensible, from the Latin sentio, is said only of the senses. It is the property of all living creatures to feel pleasure and pain in a greater or a less degree: those creatures which have not the sense of hearing will not be sensible of sounds.

In the moral application, to feel is peculiarly the property or act of the heart; to be sensible is that of the

* Abbe Girard: "Sentiment, sensation, perception."

understanding: an ingenuous mind fcels pain when it is sensible of having committed an errour: one may, however, feel as well as be sensible by means of the understanding: a person feels the value of another's services, he is sensible of his kindness.

One feels or is sensible of what passes outwardly; one is conscious only of what passes inwardly, from con or cum and scio to know to oneself: we feel the force of another's remark; 'The devout man does not torce of another's remark; "The devoit man does not only believe, but feels there is a Deity,"—Appison We are sensible of the evil which must spring from the practice of vice; 'There is, doubtless, a faculty in spirits by which they apprehend one another, as our senses do material objects; and there is no question but our souls, when they are disembodied, will, by this faculty, be always sensible of the Divine presence."— We are conscious of having fallen short of our duty;

A creature of a more exalted kind Was wanting yet, and then was man design'd;

Conscious of thought, of more capacious breast,
For empire form'd, and fit to rule the rest.—DRYDEN.

FEELING, SENSATION, SENSE,

Feeling and sensation express either the particular receing and sensation express either the particular act, or the general property of feeling; sense expresses the general property, or the particular mode of feeling. Feeling is, as before (v. To feel), the general, sensation and sense are the special terms: the feeling is either physical or moral; the sensation is mostly physical; the sense physical in the general, and moral in the particular application.

We speak either of the feeling or sensation of cold, the feeling or sense of virtue: it is not easy to describe the feelings which are excited by the cutting of cork, or the sharpening of a saw; 'I am sure the natural feeling, as I have just said, is a far more predominant ingredient in this war, than in that of any other that was ever waged by this kingdom.'—BURKE. The sensation which pervades the frame after bathing is exceedingly grateful to one who is accustomed to the water; 'Those ideas to which any agreeable sensation is annexed are easily excited, as leaving behind them the most strong and permanent impressions.'-Somer-VILLE. The pleasures of sense are not comparable with those of intellect;

In distances of things, their shapes, and size, Our reason judges better than our eyes; Declares not this the soul's pre-eminence, Superiour to, and quite distinct from sense? JENYNS.

The term feeling is most adapted to ordinary discourse; sensation is a term better suited to the grave or scientifick style: a child may talk of an unpleasant feeling; a professional man talks of the sensation of giddiness, a gnawing sensation, or of sensations from the rocking of a vessel, the motion of a carriage, and the like: it is our duty to command and curb our feel-

ings; it is folly to watch every passing sensation. The feeling, in a moral sense, has its seat in the heart; it is transitory and variable; 'Their king, out neart; it is transtory and variable; 'Their King, out of a princely feeling, was sparing and compassionate towards his subjects.'—Bacon. Sense has its seat in the understanding; it is permanent and regular. We may have feelings of anger, ill-will, envy, and the like, which cannot be too quickly overpowered, and succeeded by thos of love, charity, and benevolene; although there is no feeling, however good, which does not require to be kept under control by a proper sense of religion; 'This Basilius having the quick sense of a lover took as though his mistress had given him a secret reprehension.'—SIDNEY.

FEELING, SENSIBILITY, SUSCEPTIBILITY.

Feeling, in the present case, is taken for a positive Feeling, in the present case, is taken for a positive characteristick, namely, the property of feeling (v. To feel) in a strong degree; in this sense feeling expresses either a particular act, or an habitual property of the mind; sensibility is always taken in the sense of a habit. Traits of feeling in young people are happy omens in the estimation of the preceptor; Gentleness is native feeling improved by principle."—Blair. An exquisite sensibility is not a desirable gift; it creates an infinite disproportion of pains; 'Modesty is a kind

of quick and delicate feeling in the soul; it is such an exquisite sensibility, as wants a woman to shut the first appearance of any thing hirtful."—Appison. This term, like that of feeling, may sometimes be taken in a general sense, but still it expresses the idea more strongly; 'By long habit in carrying a burden we lose in great part our sensibility of its weight.—
Johnson. Feeling and sensibility are here taken as moral properties, which are awakened as much by the operations of the mind within itself as by external objects: susceptibility, from the Latin suscipio to take or receive, designates that property of the body or the mind which consists in being ready to take an affection from external objects; hence we speak of a person's susceptibility to take cold, or his susceptibility to be affected with grief, joy, or any other passion: if an excess of sensibility be an evil, an excess of sus-ceptibility is a still greater evil; it makes us a slave to every circumstance, however trivial, which comes under our notice; 'It pleases me to think that it was from a principle of gratitude in me, that my mind was susceptible of such generous transport (in my dreams) when I thought myself repaying the kindness of my friend.'-BYRON.

HUMAN, HUMANE.

Though both derived from homo a man, they are thus far distinguished, that human is said of the genus, and humane of the species. The human race or human beings are opposed to the irrational part of the creation; a humane race or a humane individual is opposed to one that is cruel and fond of inflicting pain. opposed to one that is cruer and foun or finitumly pain. He who is not human is divested of the first and distinguishing characteristicks of his kind; 'Christianity has rescued human nature from that ignominious yoke, under which in former times the one-half of mankind groaned.'—BLAIR. He who is not humane, is divested of the most important and elevated characteristics. teristick that belongs to his nature;

Life, fill'd with grief's distressful train, For ever asks the tear humane.- LANGHORNE.

TO NOURISH, NURTURE, CHERISH.

To nourish and nurture are but variations from the same Latin verb nutrio; cherish, from the French cher, and the Latin carus dear, to treat as something dear to one.

The thing nourishes, the person nurtures and cherishes: to nourish is to afford bodily strength, to supply the physical necessities of the body; to nurture is to extend one's care to the supply of all its physical necessities, to preserve life, occasion growth, and increase vigour: the breast of the mother nourishes:

Air, and ye elements, the eldest birth Of nature's womb, that in quaternion run Perpetual circle, multiform; and mix And nourish all things .- MILTON.

The fostering care and attention of the mother nur-The tostering care and attention of the monter nurtures; "They suppose mother earth to be a great animal, and to have nurtured up her young offspring with conscious tenderness."—Bentley. To nurture is a physical act; to cherish is a mental as well as a physical act: a mother nurtures her infant while it is en tirely dependent upon her; she *cherishes* her child in her bosom, and protects it from every misfortune, or affords consolation in the midst of all its troubles, when it is no longer an infant;

Of thy superfluous broad, she 'll cherish kind The alien offspring .- Somerville.

TO FOSTER, CHERISH, HARBOUR, INDULGE.

To foster is probably connected with father, in the To foster is probably connected with tather, in the natural sense, to bring up with a parent's care; to cherish, from the Latin carus dear, is to feed with affection; to harbour, from a harbour or haven, is to provide with a shelter and protection; to indulge, from the Latin dulcis sweet, is to render sweet and agreeable. These terms are all employed here in the moral acceptation, to express the idea of giving nourishment to an chieve. to an object.

To foster in the mind is to keep with care and positive endeavours; as when one fosters prejudices by

encouraging every thing which favours them; 'The greater part of those who live but to infuse malignity and multiply enemies, have no hopes to foster, no designs to promote, nor any expectations of attaining power by insolence.'—Johnson. To cherish in the mind is to hold dear or set a value upon; as when one cherishes good sentiments, by dwelling upon them with inward satisfaction; 'As social inclinations are abso-lutely necessary to the well being of the world, it is the duty and interest of every individual to cherish and improve them to the benefit of mankind.'—Berkeley To harbour is to allow room in the mind, and is generally taken in the worst sense, for giving admission to that which ought to be excluded; as when one har bours resentment by permitting it to have a resting place in the heart;

This is scorn, Which the fair soul of gentle Athenais Would ne'er have harbour'd .- LEE.

To indulge in the mind, is to give the whole mind to any thing, to make it the chief source of pleasure; as when one *indulges* an affection, by making the will and the outward conduct bend to its gratifications; The king (Charles I.) would indulge no refinements of casuistry, however plausible, in such delicate sub-jects, and was resolved, that what depredations soever fortune should commit upon him, she never should be-reave him of his honour.'—Hume. He who fosters pride in his breast lays up for him-

self a store of mortification in his intercourse with the world; it is the duty of a man to cherish sentiments of tenderness and kindness towards the woman whom he has made the object of his choice; nothing evinces the innate depravity of the human heart more forcibly than the spirit of malice, which some men harbour for years together; any affection of the mind, if indulged beyond the bounds of discretion, will become a hurtful passion, that may endanger the peace of society as much as that of the individual.

TO CARESS, FONDLE.

Both these terms mark a species of endearment; caress, like cherish, comes from the French cherir, and cher, Latin carus dear, signifying the expression of a tender sentiment; fondle, from fond, is a frequentative verb, signifying to become fond of, or ex press one's fondness for.

We caress by words or actions; we fondle by acforms by words of actions, we joined by ac-tions only; caresses are not always unsuitable; but fondling, which is the extreme of caressing, is not less unfit for the one who receives than for the one who gives: animals caress each other, as the natural mode of indicating their affection; fondling, which is for the most part the expression of perverted feeling, is peculiar to human beings, who alone abuse the facuities with which they are endowed.

TO CLASP, HUG, EMBRACE.

To clasp, from the noun clasp, signifies to lay hold of like a clasp; hug, in Saxon hogan, comes from the German hägen, which signifies to enclose with a hedge, and figuratively to cherish or take special care of; 'embrace, in French embrasser, is compounded of en or im and bras the arm, signifying to take or lock in the

All these terms are employed to express the act of enclosing another in one's arms: clasp marks this action when it is performed with the warmth of true affection; hug is a ludicrous sort of clasping, which is the consequence of ignorance and extravagant feeling; embrace is simply a mode of ordinary salutation: a parent will clasp his long-lost child in his arms on their remeeting;

Thy suppliant, I beg, and clasp thy knees.—Milton.

A peasant in the excess of his raptures would throw his body, as well as his arms, over the object of his joy, and stifle with hugging him whom he meant to

Thyself a boy, assume a boy's dissembled face, That when amid the fervour of the feast.
The Tyrian hugs and fonds thee on her breast,
Thou mayest infuse thy venom in her veins.

DRYDEN

In the continental parts of Europe embracing between males, as well as females, is universal on meeting after a long absence, or on taking leave for a length of time; embraces are sometimes given in England beween near relatives, but in no other case; at length having kindly reproached Helim for de-priving him so long of such a biother, embraced Balsora with the greatest tenderness.'-Addison.

Clasp may also be employed in the same sense for

other objects besides persons;

Some more aspiring catch the neighbouring shrub, With clasping tendrils, and invest her branch. COWPER.

Embrace may be employed figuratively in the sense of including (v. Comprehend).

INDULGENT, FOND.

Indulgent signifies disposed to indulge; fond, from to find, signifies trying to find, longing for.

Indulgence lies more in forbearing from the exercise Indulgence ties more in foregaing from the exercise of authority; fondness in the outward behaviour and endearments: they may both arise from an excess of kindness or love; but the former is of a less objectionable character than the latter. Indulgence may be sometimes wrong; but fondness is seldom right: an indulgence traver, in seddom a number of acut, but a sometimes wrong; but forwaress is section right; an indulgent parent is seldom a prudent parent; but a fond parent does not rise above a fool; all who have the care of young people should occasionally relax from the strictness of the disciplinarian, and show an indulgence where a suitable opportunity offers; a fond mother takes away from the value of indulgences by an invariable compliance with the humours of her children: however, when applied generally or ab-stractedly, they are both taken in a good sense;

God then thro' all creation gives, we find, Sufficient marks of an indulgent mind —Jenyns.

While, for a while his fond paternal care, Feasts us with every joy our state can bear .- Jenyns.

AMOROUS, LOVING, FOND.

Amorous, from amor love, signifies full of love; loving, the act of loving, that is, of continually loving; fond has the same signification as given under the head of Indulgent, fond.

These epithets are all used to mark the excess or

distortion of a tender sentiment. Amorous is taken in a criminal sense, loving and fond in a contemptuous sense: an indiscriminate and dishonourable attachment to the fair sex characterizes the amorous man; 'I shall range all old amorous dotards under the denomination of grinners.'—STEELE. An overweening and childish attachment to any object marks the loving and fond person.

Loving is less dishonourable than fond: men may

be loving;

So loving to my mother That he would not let ev'n the winds of heaven

Visit her face too roughly.—SHAKSPEARE.

Children, females, and brutes may be fond; 'I'm a foolish fond wife.'—Addison. Those who have not a well regulated affection for each other will be loving by fits and starts; children and animals who have no control over their appetites will be apt to be fond of those who indulge them. An amorous temper should be suppressed; a loving temper should be regulated; a fond temper should be checked. When loving and fond are applied generally, they may sometimes be taken in a good or indifferent sense;

This place may seem for shepherds' leisure made, So lovingly these elms unite their shade .- PHILLIPS.

4 My impatience for your return, my anxiety for your welfare, and my fondness for my dear Ulysses, were the only distempers that preyed upon my life.'—Ap-DISON

AMIABLE, LOVELY, BELOVED.

Amiable, in Latin amabilis, from amo and habilis, signifies fit to be loved; lovely, compounded of love and ly or like, signifies like that which we love: beloved, having or receiving love.

The first two express the fitness of an object to awaken the sentiment of love; the latter expresses

the state of being in actual possession of that love. The amiable designates that sentiment in its most spiritual form, as it is awakened by purely spiritual ob jects; the lovely applies to this sentiment as it is awakened by sensible objects.

One is amiable according to the qualities of the heart: one is lavely according to the external figure and manners; one is beloved according to the circumstances that bring him or her into connexion with Hence it is that things as well as persons may be lovely or beloved; but persons only, or that which is personal, is amiable;

Sweet Auburn, loveliest village of the plain. GOLDSMITH.

Sorrow would be a rarity most belov'd, If all could so become it .- SHAKSPEARE.

An amiable disposition, without a lovely person, will render a person beloved; 'Tully has a very beautiful gradation of thoughts to show how amiable virtue is. "We love a virtuous man," says he, "who lives in the remotest parts of the earth, although we are altogether out of the reach of his virtue, and can receive from it no manner of benefit." "Approx. It is distressing to see any one who is lovely in person unamiable in character

AMICABLE, FRIENDLY.

Amicable, from amicus a friend, signifies able or fit for a friend; friendly, like a friend. The word amicus comes from amo to love, and friend in the northern languages from fregan to love. Amicable and friendly therefore both denote the tender sentiment of goodwill which all men ought to bear one to another; but amicable rather implies a negative sentiment, a free dom from discordance; and friendly a positive feeling of regard, the absence of indifference.

We make an amicable accommodation, and a friendly visit. It is a happy thing when people who have been at variance can amicably adjust all their disputes. Nothing adds more to the charms of society

than a friendly correspondence.

Anicable is always said of persons who have been in connexion with each other; friendly may be applied to those who are perfect strangers. Neighbours must always endeavour to live anicably with each other; What first presents itself to be recommended is a disposition averse to offence, and desirous of cultivating harmony, and amicable intercourse in society.'—
BLAIR. Travellers should always endeavour to keep up a friendly intercourse with the inhabitants, where ever they come:

Who slake his thirst; who spread the friendly board To give the famish'd Belisarius food?—PHILLIPS.

The abstract terms of the preceding qualities admit of no variation but in the signification of friendship, which marks an individual feeling only; to live ami-cably, or in amity with all men, is a point of Christian duty, but we cannot live in friendship with all men; since friendship must be confined to a few;

Beasts of each kind their fellows spare; Bear lives in amity with bear .- Johnson.

Every man might, in the multitudes that swarm about him, find some kindred mind with which he could unite in confidence and friendship.'-Johnson.

AFFECTION, LOVE.

Affection denotes the state of being kindly affected towards a person; love, in Low German leeve, High German liebe, from the English lief, Low German leef, High German lieb dear or pleasing, the Latin libe! it is pleasing, and by metathesis from the Greek φίλος dear, signifies the state of holding a person dear.

These words express two sentiments of the heart which do honour to human nature; they are the bonds by which mankind are knit to each other. Both imply good-will: but affection is a tender sentiment that dwells with pleasure on the object; love is a tender sentiment accompanied with longing for the object; we cannot have love without affection, but we may have affection without love.

Love is the natural sentiment between near relations: affection subsists between those who are less intimately connected, being the consequence either of relationship, friendsnip, or long intercourse; it is the sweetener of human society, which carries with it a thousand charms, in all the varied modes of kindness which it gives birth to; it is not so active as love, but it diffuses itself wider, and embraces a larger number of objects.

Lone is powerful in its effects, awakening vivid sentiments of pleasure or pain; it is a passion exclusive, restless, and capricious. Affection is a chastened feeling under the control of the understanding; it promises no more pleasure than it gives, and has but few alloys. Marriage may begin with love; but it ought to terminate in affection;

But thou, whose years are more to mine allied, No fate my vow'd affection shall divide From thee, heroic youth!—DRYDEN.

'The poets, the moralists, the painters, in all their descriptions, allegories, and pictures, have represented love as a soft torment, a bitter sweet, a pleasing pain, or an agreeable distress.'-Addison.

AFFECTIONATE, KIND, FOND.

Affectionate denotes the quality of having affection (v. Affection); kind, from the word kind kindfeed or family, denotes the quality or feeling engendered by the family tie; fond, from to find, denotes a vehement attachment to a thing.

Affection at and fond characterize feelings, or the expression of those feelings; kind is an epithet applied to outward actions, as well as inward feelings; a disposition is affectionate or fond; a behaviour is kind.

Affection is a settled state of the mind; kindness, a

temporary state of feeling, mostly discoverable by some outward sign: both are commendable and honourable, as to the nature of the feelings themselves, the objects of the feelings, and the manner in which they display themselves; the understanding always approves the kindness which affection dictates, or that which springs from a tender heart. Fondness is a less respectable feeling; it is sometimes the excess of affection, or an extravagant mode of expressing it, or an attachment to an inferiour object.

A person is affectionate, who has the object of his regard strongly in his mind, who participates in his pleasures and pains, and is pleased with his society. A person is kind, who expresses a tender sentiment, or does any service in a pleasant manner; 'Our salutations were very hearty on both sides, consisting of many kind shakes of the hand, and affectionate looks which we cast upon one another.'—Addison. A person is fond, who caresses an object, or makes it a source of pleasure to himself; 'Riches expose a man to pride and luxury, a foolish elation of heart, and too great

fondness for the present world."—ADDISON.
Relatives should be affectionate to each other: we should be kind to all who stand in need of our kindness; children are fond of whatever affords them pleasure, or of whoever gives them indulgences.

ATTACHMENT, AFFECTION, INCLINATION.

Attachment respects persons and things; affection (v. Affection) regards persons only; inclination has respect to things mostly, but it may be applied to objects generally.

Attachment, as it regards persons, is not so powerful or solid as affection. Children are attached to those who will minister to their gratifications: they have an affection for their nearest and dearest relatives

Attachment is sometimes a tender sentiment between the persons of different sexes; affection is an affair of the heart without distinction of sex. The passing attachments of young people are seldom entitled to serious notice; although sometimes they may ripen by long intercourse into a laudable and steady offiction; 'Though devoted to the study of philosophy, and a great master in the early science of the times, Solon mixed with cheerfulness in society, and did not hold back from those tender ties and attachments which connect a man to the world.'—CUMBERLAND. Nothing is so delightful as to see affection among brothers and sisters; 'When I was sent to school, the gayety of my

more powerful than inclination; the latter is a rising sentiment, the forerunner of attachment, which is positive and fixed; 'I am glad that he whom I must have loved from duty, whatever he had been, is such a one as I can love from inclination.'—STEELE.

As respects things generally, attachment and inclina-

tion are similarly distinguis red. We strive to obtain that to which we are attached; but an inclination seldom leads to any effort for possession. Little minds are always betraying their attechment to thiles. It is the character of indifference not to show an inclina-tion to any thing. Attachments are formed; inclina-tions arise of themselves.

Interest, similarity of character, or habit give rise to attachment; 'The Jews are remarkable for an attachment to their own country.'-Addison. A natural warmth of temper gives birth to various inclinations; 'A mere inclination to a thing is not properly a willing of that thing; and yet, in matters of duty, men frequently reckon it for such.'—South.

Suppress the first inclination to gaming, lest it grows into an attachment.

BENEVOLENCE, BENIGNITY, HUMANITY, KINDNESS, TENDERNESS.

Benevolence, from bene and volo to will, signifies wishing well; benignity, in Latin benignitas, from bene and gigno, signifies the quality or disposition for producing good; humanity, in French humanité, Latin humanitas from humanità and homo, signifies the quality of belonging to a man, or having what is common to man; kindness is the abstract quality of kina (v. Affectionate); tenderness, the abstract quality of tender, from the Latin tener, Greek τερήν.

Benevolence and benignity lie in the will; humanity

lies in the heart; kindness and tenderness in the affections: benevolence indicates a general good will to all mankind; benignity a particular good will, flowing out of certain relations; humanity is a general tone of feeling; kindness and tenderness are particular modes of feeling.

Benevolence consists in the wish or intention to do good; it is confined to no station or object: the benevolent man may be rich or poor, and his benevolence will be exerted wherever there is an opportunity of doing good: benignity is always associated with power, and accompanied with condescension.

Benevolence in its fullest sense is the sum of moral excellence, and comprehends every other virtue; when taken in this acceptation, benignity, humanity, kindness, and tenderness are but modes of benevolence.

Benevolence and benignity tend to the communicating of happiness; humanity is concerned in the removal of evil. Benevolence is common to the Creator and his creatures; it differs only in degree; Creator and ms creatures; it differs only in degree; the former has the knowledge and power as well as the will to do good; man often has the will to do good without having the power to carry it into effect; 'I have heard say, that Pope Clement XI. never passes through the people, who always kneel in crowds and ask his benediction, but the tears are seen to flow from his eyes. This must proceed from an imagination that he is the father of all these people, and that he is touched with so extensive a benevolence, that it breaks out into a passion of tears.'—Steele. Benignity is ascribed to the stars, to heaven, or to princes; ignorant and superstitious people are apt to ascribe their good fortune to the benign influence of the stars rather than to the gracious dispensations of Providence; 'A constant benignity in commerce with the rest of the world, which ought to run through all a man's actions, has which ought to run through all a man's actions, has effects more useful to those whom you oblige, and is less ostentations in yourself."—STEELE. Humanity belongs to man only; it is his peculiar characteristick, and ought at all times to be his boast; when he throws off this his distinguishing badge, he loses every thing valuable in him; it is a virtue that is indispensable in his present suffering condition: humanity is as unions present suffering condition: humanity is as universal in its application as benevolence; wherever there is distress, humanity flies to its relief; 'The greatest wits I have conversed with are men eminent for their humanity.'—Additions. Kindness and tenderness are partial modes of affection, confined to those who know or are related to each other; we are kind who know or are related to each other: we are kind me admission to hearts not yet fortified against affection by artifice or interest.—Johnson. Attachment is who are near and dear: kindness is a mode of affection by artifice or interest. to friends and acquaintances, tender towards those

tion most fitted for social beings; it is what every one can show, and every one is pleased to receive; 'Heneficence, would the followers of Epicurus say, is all founded in weakness; and whatever be pretended, the kindness that passeth between men and men is by every man directed to himself. This it must be confessed is of a piece with that hopeful philosophy which, having patched man up out of the four elements, attributes his being to chance.'—GROVE. Tenderness is a state of feeling that is occasionally acceptable: the young and the weak demand tenderness from those who stand in the closest connexion with them, but this feeling may be carried to an excess so as to injure the object on which it is fixed; 'Dependence is a perpetual call upon humanity, and a greater incitement to tenderness and pity than any other motive whatsoever.'—ADDISON.

There are no circumstances or situation in life which preclude the exercise of benevolence: next to the pleasure of making others happy, the benevolent man rejoices in seeing them so; the benign influence of a benevolent monarch extends to the remotest corner of his dominions; benignity is a becoming attribute for a prince, when it does not lead him to sanction vice by its impunity; it is highly to be applauded in him as far as it renders him forgiving of minor offences, gracious to all who are deserving of his favours, and ready to afford a gratification to all whom it is in his power to serve: the multiplied misfortunes to which all men are exposed afford ample scope for the exercise of humanity, which, in consequence of the unequal distribution of wealth, power, and talent, is peculiar to no situation of life; even the profession of arms does not exclude humanity from the breasts of its followers: and when we observe men's habits of thinking in various situations, we may remark that the soldier, with arms by his side, is commonly more humane than the partisan with arms in his hands. Kindness is always an amiable feeling, and in a grateful mind always begets kindness; but it is sometimes ill bestowed upon selfish people who requite it by making fresh exactions; tenderness is frequently little better than an amiable weakness, when directed to a wrong end, and fixed on an improper object; the false tenderness of parents has often been the ruin of children.

LOVE, FRIENDSHIP.

Love (v. Affection) is a term of very extensive import; it may be either taken in the most general sense for every strong and passionate attachment, or only for such as subsist between the sexes; in either of which cases it has features by which it has been easily distin-

guished from friendship.

Love subsists between members of the same family; it springs out of their natural relationship, and is kept alive by their close intercourse and constant interchange of kindnesses; friendship excludes the idea of any iender and natural relationship; nor is it, like love, to be found in children, but is confined to maturer years; it is formed by time, by circumstances, by congruity of character, and sympathy of sentiment. Love always operates with ardour; friendship is remarkable for firmness and constancy. Love is peculiar to no station it is to be found equally among the high and the low, the learned and the unlearned; friendship is of nobler growth; it finds admittance only into minds of a loftier make; it cannot be felt by men of an ordi

Both love and friendship are gratified by seeking the good of the object; but love is more selfish in its nature than friendship; in indulging another it seeks its own, and when this is not to be obtained, it will change into the contrary passion of hatred; friendship, on the other hand, is altogether disinterested, it makes sacrifices of every description, and knows no limits to its sacrifice. As love is a passion, it has all the errours attendant upon passion; but friendship, which is an affection tempered by reason, is exempt from every such exceptionable quality. Love is blind to the faults of the object of its devotion; it adores, it idolizes, it is fond, it is foolish: friendship sees faults, and strives to correct them; it aims to render the object more worthy of esteem and regard. Love is capicious, humoursome, and changeable; it will not bear contradiction, disappointment, nor any cross or untoward circumstance: friendship is stable; it withstands the rudest

blasts, and is unchanged by the severest shocks of adversity; neither the smiles nor frowns of fortune can change its form, its sevene and placid countenance is unruffled by the rude blasts of adversity; it rejoices and sympathizes in prosperity; it cheers, consoles, and assists in adversity. Love is exclusive in its nature; it insists upon a devotion to a single object; it is jealous of any intrusion from others: friendship is liberal and communicative; it is bounded by nothing but rules of prudence; it is not confined as to the nature of the objects.

When love is not produced by any social relation, it has its groundwork in sexuality, and subsists only between persons of different sexes; in this case it has all the former faults with which it is chargeable to a still greater degree, and others peculiar to itself; it is even more selfish, more capricious, more changeable, and more exclusive, than when subsisting between persons of the same kindred. Love is in this case as unreasonable in its choice of an object, as it is extravagant in its regards of the object; it is formed without examination; it is the effect of a sudden glance, the work of a moment, in which the heart is taken by surprise, and the understanding is discarded: friendship, on the other hand, is the entire work of the understanding; it does not admit of the senses or the heart to have any undue influence in the choice. A fine eye, a fair hand, a graceful step, are the authors of love; talent, virtue, fine sentiment, a good heart, and a sound head, are the promoters of friendship: love wants no excitement from personal merit; friendship cannot be produced without merit. Time, which is the consolidator of friendship, is the destroyer of love; an object improvidently chosen is as carelessly thrown aside; and that which was not chosen for its merits, is seldom rejected for its demerits, the fault lying rather in the humour of love, which can abate of its ardour as the novelty of the thing ceases, and transfer itself to other objects: friendship, on the other hand, is slow and cautious in choosing, and still more gradual in the confirmation, as it rests on virtue and excellence; it grows only with the growth of one's acquaintance, and ripens with the maturity of esteem. Love, while it lasts, subsists even by those very means which may seem rather calculated to extinguish it; namely, caprice, disdain, cruelty, absence, jealousy, and the like;

So every passion, but fond love, Unto its own redress does move.—WALLER.

Friendship is supported by nothing artificial; it depends upon reciprocity of esteem, which nothing but solid qualities can ensure or render durable;

For natural affection soon doth cease, And quenched is with Cupid's greater flame, But faithful friendship doth them both suppress, And them with mastering discipline doth tame.

SPENSER

In the last place, love when misdirected is dangerous and mischievous; in ordinary cases it awakens flattering hopes and delusive dreams, which end in disappointment and mortification; and in some cases it is the origin of the most frightful evils; there is nothing more atrocious than what has owed its origin to slighted love; but friendship, even if mistaken, will awaken no other feeling than that of pity; when a friend proves faithless or wicked, he is lamented as one who has failen from the high estate to which we thought him entitled.

LOVER, SUITOR, WOOER.

Lover signifies literally one who loves, and is applicable to any object; there are lovers of money, and lovers of wine, lovers of things individually, and things collectively, that is, lovers of particular women in the good sense, or lovers of women in the bad sense, but lover, taken absolutely, signifies one who feels or professes his love for a female: 'It is very natural for a young friend, and a young lover, to think the persons they love have nothing to do but to please them.'—Poper. The suitor is one who sues and stives after a thing; the term is equally undefined as to the object, but may be employed for such as sue for favours from their superiours, or sue for the affections and person of a female; 'What pleasure can it be to be througed with petitioners, and those perhaps suitors for the

same thing? —South. The wooer is only a species of lover, who woos or solicits the kied regards of a female; 'I am glad this parcelo 'wooers are so reasonable, for there is not one of them but I dote on his very absence. —Shakspeaks. When applied to the same object, namely, the female sex, the lover is employed or persons of all ranks, who are equally alive to the tender passion of love: suitor is a title adapted to that class of life where all the genuine affections of human nature are adulterated by a false refinement, or entirely lost in other passions of a guilty nature. Wooer is a tender and passionate title, which is adapted to that class of beings that live only in poetry and romance. There is most sincerity in the lover, he simply proffers his love; there is most cremony in the suitor, he prefers his suit; there is most ardour in the zoover, he makes his vows.

GALLANT, BEAU, SPARK.

These words convey nothing respectful of the person to whom they are applied; but the first, as is evident from its derivation, has something in it to recommend it to attention above the others: as true valour is ever associated with a regard for the fair sex, a gallant man will always be a gallant when he can render the female any service; sometimes, however, his gallantries may be such as to do them harm rather than good.

The god of wit, and light, and arts, With all acquir'd and natural parts, Was an unfortunate gallant.—Swift.

Insignificance and effeminacy characterize the beau or fine gentleman; he is the woman's man—the humble servant to supply the place of a lacquey;

His pride began to interpose, Preferr'd before a crowd of beaux.—Swift.

The spark has but a spark of that fire which shows itself in impertinent puerilities; it is applicable to youth who are just broke loose from school or college, and eager to display their manhood;

Oft it has been my lot to mark
A proud, conceited, talking spark.—MERRICK.

MALEVOLENT, MALICIOUS, MALIGNANT.

These words have all their derivation from malus bad; that is, malevolent, wishing ill; malicious (v. Malice), having an evil disposition; and malignant, having an evil to dever

evil tendency.

Malevolence has a deep root in the heart, and is a settled part of the character; we denominate the person malevolent, to designate the ruling temper of his mind: maliciousness may be applied as an epithet to particular parts of a man's character or conduct; one may have a malicious joy or pleasure in seeing the distresses of another: malignity is not employed to characterize the person, but the thing; the malignity of a design is estimated by the degree of mischief which was intended to be done. Whenever malevolence has taken possession of the heart, all the sources of goodwill are dried up: a stream of evil runs through the whole frame, and contaminates every moral feeling; the being who is under such an unhappy influence neither thinks nor does any thing but what is evil; 'I have often known very lasting malevolence excited by unlucky censures.'—Johnson. A malicious disposition is that branch of malevolence which is the next to it in the blackness of its character; it differs, however, in this, that malice will, in general, lie dormant, until it is provoked;

Greatness, the earnest of malicious Fate
For future wo, was never meant a good.
SOUTHERN.

But malevolence is as active and unceasing in its operations for mischief, as its opposite, benevolence, is in wishing and doing good.

Malicious and malignant are both applied to things; but the former is applied to those which are of a personal nature, the latter to objects purely inanimate: a story or tale is termed malicious, which emanates from a malicious disposition; a star is termed malignant, which is supposed to have a bad or malignant influence;

Still horrour reigns, a dreary twilight round, Of struggling night and day matignant mix'd Thomson

MALICE, RANCOUR, SPITE, GRUDGE, PIQUE.

Malice, in Latin malitia, from malus bad, signifies the very essence of badness lying in the heart; rancour (v. Hatred) is only continued hatred; the former requires no external cause to provoke it, it is inherent in the mind; the latter must be caused by some personal offence. Malice is properly the love of evil for evil's sake, and is, therefore, confined to no number or quality of objects, and limited by no circumstance; rancour, as it depends upon external objects for its existence, so it is confined to such objects only as are liable to cause displeasure or anger: malice will imped a man to do mischief to those who have not injured him, and are perhaps strangers to him;

If any chance has hither brought the name Of Palamedes, not unknown to fame, Who suffer'd from the malice of the times.

Rancour can subsist only between those who have had sufficient connexion to be at variance; 'Party spirit fills a nation with spleen and rancour.'—Addison.

Spite, from the Italian dispetto and the French despit, denotes a petty kind of malice, or disposition to offend another in trifling matters; it may be in the temper of the person, or it may have its source in some external provocation; children often show their spite to each other;

Can heav'nly minds such high resentment show, Or exercise their spite in human wo?—DRYDEN.

Grudge, connected with grumble and growl, and pique, from pike, denoting the prick of a pointed instrument, are employed for that particular state of rancorous or spiteful feeling which is occasioned by personal offences: the grudge is that which has long existed:

The god of wit, to show his grudge, Clapp'd asses' ears upon the judge.—Swift.

The pique is that which is of recent date; 'You may be sure the ladies are not wanting, on their side, in cherishing and improving these important piques, which divide the town almost into as many parties as there are families.'—LADY M.W. MONTAGUE. A person is said to owe another a grudge for having cone him a disservice; or he is said to have a pique towards another, who has shown him an affront.

IMPLACABLE, UNRELENTING, RELENTLESS, INEXORABLE.

Implacable, unappeaseable, signifies not to be allayed nor softened; unrelenting or relentless, from the Latin lenio to soften, or to make pliant, signifies not rendered soft; inexorable, from ore to pray, signifies not to be turned by prayers.

Inflexibility is the idea expressed in common by these terms, but they differ in the causes and circumstance with which it is attended. Animosities are implacable when no misery which we occasion can diminish their force, and no concessions on the part of the offender can lessen the spirit of revenge; 'Implacable as the enmity of the Mexicans was, they were so unacquainted with the science of war that they knew not how to take the proper measures for the destruction of the Spaniards.'—ROBERTSON. The mind or character of a man is unrelenting, when it is not to be turned from its purpose by a view of the pain which it inflicts;

These are the realms of unrelenting fate. - DRYDEN.

A man is *inexorable* who turns a deaf ear to every solicitation or entreaty that is made to induce him to lessen the rigour of his sentence;

You are more inhuman, more inexorable, Oh, ten times more, than tigers of Hyrcania! SHAKSPEARE.

A man's angry passions render him implacable; it is not the magnitude of the offence, but the temper of the offended that is here in question; by implacability he is rendered insensible to the misery he occasions,

and to every satisfaction which the offender may offer him: Exeduces of purpose renders a man unrelenting or relentless; an unrelenting temper is not less callous to the misery produced, than an implacable temper; but it is not grounded always on resemment for personal injuries, but sometimes on a certain principle of right and a sense of necessity; the inexurable man adheries to his rule, as the unrelenting man does to his purpose; the former is insensible to any workings of his heart which might shake his purpose, the latter turns a deaf car to all the solicitations of others which would go to alter his decrees; savages are mostly implacable in their animosities; Tius Manlius Torquatus displayed an instance of unrelenting severity towards his son; Minos, Eacus, and Rhadamanthus were the inexurable judges of hell.

Implacable and unrelenting are said only of animate beings in whom is wanting an ordinary portion of the tender affections: inexorable may be improperly applied to inanimate objects; justice and death are both

represented as inexorable;

Acca, 't is past, he swims before my sight, Inexorable death, and claims his right.—DRYDEN.

HARSH, ROUGH, SEVERE, RIGOROUS.

These terms mark different modes of treating those that are in one's power, all of which are the reverse of the kind.

Harsh and rough borrow their moral signification from the physical properties of the bodies to which they belong. The harsh and the rough both act painfully upon the taste, but the former with much more violence than the latter. An excess of the sour minigled with other unpleasant properties constitutes harshness; an excess of astringency constitutes roughness. Cheese is said to be harsh when it is dry and biting: roughness is the peculiar quality of the damascene.

From this physical distinction between these terms we discover the ground of their moral application. Hurshness in a person's conduct acts upon the feelings, and does violence to the affections: roughness acts only externally on the senses: we may be rough in the tone of the voice, in the mode of address, or in the manner of handling or touching an object: but we are harsh in the sentiment we convey, and according to the persons to whom it is conveyed: a stranger may be rough when he has it in his power to be so: a friend, or one in the tenderest relation, only can be hursh. An officer of justice deals roughly with the prisoner in his charge, to whom he denies every indulgence in a rough and forbidding tone;

Know, gentle youth, in Lybian lands there are A people rude in peace, and rough in war.

DRYDEN.

A parent deals harshly with a child who refuses every endearment, and only speaks to command or forbid; 'I would rather he was a man of a rough temper, who would treat me harshly, than of an effeninate nature.'—Appison. Harsh and rough are unamiable and always censurable qualities: they spring from the harshness and roughness of the humour; 'No complaint is more feelingly made than that of the harsh and rugged manners of persons with whom we have an intercourse.'—BLAIR. Severe and rigorous are not always to be condemned; they spring from principle, and are often resorted to by necessity. Harshness is always mingled with anner and personal feeling: severity or rigour characterizes the thing more than the temper of the person.

A harsh master renders every burden which he imposes doubly severe, by the grating manner in which he communicates his will: a severe master simply imposes the burden in a manner to enforce obedience. The one seems to indulge himself in inflicting pain: the other seems to act from a motive that is independent of the pain inflicted. A harsh man is therefore always severe, but with injustice: a severe man, however, is not always harsh. Rigour is a high degree of severity. One is severe in the punishment of offences: one is rigorous in exacting compliance and obedience. Severity is always more or less necessary in the army, or in a school, for the preservation of good order: rigour is essential in dealing with the stubborn will and unruly passions of men. A general must be severe while lying the quarters, to prevent drunkenness and theft; but he

must be rigorous when invading a foreign country, to prevent the ill-treatment of the inhabitants; It is pride which fills the world with so much harshness and severity. We are rigorous to offences as if we had never offended. "—Blair.

A measure is severe that threatens heavy consequences to those who do not comply: a line of conduct is rigorous that binds men down with great exactitude to a particular mode of proceeding. A judge is severe who is ready to punish and unwilling to pardon.

AUSTERE, RIGID, SEVERE, RIGOROUS, STERN.

Austere, in Latin austerus sour or rough, from the Greek αίω to dry, signifies rough or harsh, from drought; rigid and rigorous, from the Latin rigeo and the Greek ριγέω, signifies stiffness or unbendingness; severe, in Latin severus, comes from sænus cruel; stern, in Saxon sterne, German streng strong, has the sense of strictness.

Austere applies to ourselves as well as to others; rigid applies to ourselves only; severe, rigorous, stern, apply to others only. We are austere in our manner of living; rigid in our mode of thinking; austere, severe, rigorous, and stern in our mode of dealing with others. Elleminacy is opposed to austerity, plia-

bility to rigidity.

The austere man mortifies himself; the rigid man binds himself to a rule: the austerities formerly practised among the Roman Catholicks were in many in stances the consequence of rigid piety: the manners of a man are austere when he refuses to take part in any social enjoyments; his probity is rigid, that is, inaccessible to the allurements of gain, or the urgency of ne cessity: an austere life consists not only in the privation of every pleasure, but in the infliction of every pain: 'Austerity is the proper antidote to indulgence, the diseases of the mind as well as body are cured by contraries.'—Johnson. Rigid justice is unbiassed, no less by the fear of loss than by the desire of gain the present age affords no examples of austerity, but too many of its opposite extreme, effeminacy; and the rigidity of former times, in modes of thinking, has been succeeded by a culpable laxity; 'In things which are not immediately subject to religious or moral consideration, it is dangerous to be too long or too rigidly in the right.'—Johnson.

Austere, when taken with relation to others, is said of the behaviour; severe of the conduct: a parent is austere in his looks, his manners, and his words to his child; he is severe in the restraints he imposes, and the punishments he inflicts: an austere master speaks but to command, and commands so as to be obeyed; a severe master punishes every fault, and punishes in an undue measure: an austere temper is never softened; the countenance of such a one never relaxes into a smile, nor is he pleased to witness smiles: a severe temper is ready to catch at the imperfections of others, and to wound the offender: a judge should be a rigid administrator of justice between man and man, and severe in the punishment of offences as occasion requires; but nevere austere towards those who appear before him; austerity of manner would ill become him who sits as a protector of either the innocent or the injured.

Rigour is a species of great severity, namely, in the infliction of punishment; towards enormous oftenders, or on particular occasions where an example is requisite, rigour may be adopted, but otherwise it marks a cruel temper. A man is austere in his manners, severe in his remarks, and rigorous in his discipline; 'If you are hard or contracted in your judgements, severe in your censures, and oppressive in your dealings; then conclude with certainty that what you had termed piety was but an empty name.'—BLAIR. 'It is not by rigorous discipline and unrelaxing austerity that the aged can maintain an ascendant over youthful minds.'—BLAIR.

Austerity, rigidity, and severity may be habitual; rigour and sternness are occasional. Sternness is a species of severity more in manner than in direct action; a commander may issue his commands sternly. or a deepot may issue his stern decrees;

A man severe he was, and stern to view, I knew him well, and every truant knew Yet he was kind, or if severe in aught, The love he bore to learning was in fault. GOLDSMITH.

'It is stern criticism to say, that Mr. Pope's is not a translation of Homer.'—Cumeerland.

ACRIMONY, TARTNESS, ASPERITY, HARSHNESS.

These epithets are figuratively employed to denote sharpness of feeling corresponding to the quality in natural bodies.

Acrimony, in Latin acrimonia, from acer sharp, is the characteristick of garlick, mustard, and pepper, that is, a biting sharpness; tartness, from tart, is not improbably derived from tartar, the quality of which it in some degree resembles, expressing a high degree of acid peculiar to vinegar; asperity, in Latin asperitas, from asper, comes from the Greek arrogo fallow, without culture and without fruit as applied to land that is too hard and rough to be tilled; harshness, from harsh, in German and Teutonick herbe, herbisch, Swedish kerb, Latin acerbus, den tes the sharp, rough taste of unripe fruit.

A quick sense produces acrimeny: it is too frequent among disputants, who imbitter each other's feelings. An acute sensibility, coupled with quickness of intelect, produces tartness: it is too frequent among females. Acrimony is a transient feeling that discovers itself by the words; 'The genius even when he endeavours only to entertain or instruct, yet suffers persecution from innumerable criticks, whose acrimony is excited merely by the pain of seeing others pleased.'—JOINSON. Tartness is an habitual irritability that mingles itself with the tone and looks; 'When his humours grew tart, as being now in the less of favour, they brake forth into certain sudden excesses.'—Worton. An acrimonious reply frequently gives rise to much ill-will; a tart reply is often treated with indifference, as indicative of the natural temper, rather than of any unfriendly feeling.

Asperity and harshness respect one's conduct to inferiours; the latter expresses a strong degree of the former. Asperity is opposed to mildness and forbernance; harshness to kindness. A reproof is conveyed with asperity, when the words and looks convey strong displeasure; 'The charity of the one, like kindly exhalations, will descend in showers of blessings; but the rigour and asperity of the other, in a severe doom upon ourselves.'—Government of the Tongue. A treatment is harsh when it wounds the feelings, and does violence to the affections:

Thy tender hefted nature shall not give Thee o'er to harshness: her eyes are fierce, but thine

Do comfort and not burn .- SHARSPEARE.

Mistresses sometimes chide their servants with asperity; parents sometimes deal harshly with their children.

Harshness and asperity are also applied to other objects: the former to sounds or words, the latter figuratively to the atmosphere; 'Cowley seems to have possessed the power of writing easily beyond any other of our poets, yet his pursuit of remote thoughts led him often into harshness of expression.'—Johnson. 'The nakedness and asperity of the wintery world always fills the beholder with pensive and profound astonishment.'—Johnson.

TO SATISFY, PLEASE, GRATIFY.

To satisfy (v. Contentment) is rather to produce pleasure ndirectly; to please (v. Agreeable) is to produce it directly: the former is negative, the latter positive, pleasure: as every desire is accompanied with more or less pain, satisfaction which is the removal of desire is itself to a certain extent pleasure; but what satisfies is not always calculated to please; nor is that which pleases, that which will always satisfy: plain food satisfies a hungry person, but does not please him when he is not hungry; social enjoyments please, but they are very far from satisfying those who do not restrict their indulgencies; 'He who has run over the whole circle of earthly pleasures will be forced to somplain that either they were not pleasures or that

pleasure was not satisfaction. —South. To gratify is to please in a high degree, to produce a vivid pleasure; we may be pleased with trifles, but we are commonly gratified with such things as act strongly either on the senses or the affections; an epicure is gratified with those delicacies which suit his taste; an amateur in musick will be gratified with hearing a piece of Handel's composition finely performed; 'Did we consider that the mind of a man is the man himself, we should think it the most unnatural sort of self-murder to sacrifice the sentiment of the soul to gratify the appetites of the body. —Stelle.

TO SATISFY, SATIATE, GLUT, CLUY.

To satisfy is to take enough; satistic is a frequenta tive formed from satis enough, signifying to have more than enough; glut, in Latin glutio, from gula the throat, signifies to take down the throat; cloy is a variation of cloy.

Satisfaction brings pleasure; it is what nature demands; and nature therefore makes a suitable return: satiety is attended with disgust; it is what appetite demands; but appetite is the corruption of nature and produces nothing but evil: glutting is an act of intemperance; it is what the inordinate appetite demands; it greatly exceeds the former in degree both of the cause and the consequence; cloying is the consequence of glutting. Every healthy person satisfies himself with a regular portion of food; children if unrestrained seek to satiate their appetites, and cloy themselves by their excesses; brutes, or men debased into brutes, glut themselves with that which is agreeable to their appetities.

The first three terms are employed in a moral application; the last may also be used figuratively; we satisfy desires in general, or any particular desire; "The only thing that can give the mind any solid satisfaction is a certain complacency and repose in the good providence of God."—HERRING. We satiate the appetite for pleasure or power:

'T was not enough, By subtle fraud to snatch a single life; Puny impiety! whole kingdoms fell, To sate the lust of power.—Portus.

To sate the eyes or the ears by any thing that is horrid or extravagant; 'If the understanding be detained by occupations less pleasing, it returns again to study with greater alacrity than when it is glutted with ideal pleasures.'—Johnson. We may be cloyed by an uninterrupted round of pleasures; 'Religious pleasure is such a pleasure as can never cloy or over work the mind.'—South.

ENJOYMENT, FRUITION, GRATIFICATION.

Enjoyment, from enjoy to have the joy or pleasure, signifies either the act of enjoying, or the pleasure itself derived from that act; fruition, from frome to enjoy, is employed only for the act of enjoying.

We speak either of the enjoyment of any pleasure,

We speak either of the enjoyment of any pleasure, or of the enjoyment as a pleasure: we speak of those pleasures which are received from the fruition, in distinction from those which are only in expectation. The enjoyment is either corporeal or spiritual, as the enjoyment of musick, or the enjoyment of study; 'The enjoyment of fame brings but very little pleasure, though the loss or want of it be very sensible and afflicting.'—Addition. Fruition mostly relates to sensible, or at least to external objects; hope intervenes between the desire and the fruition; 'Frame is a good so wholly foreign to our natures that we have no faculty in the soul adapted to it, nor any organ in the body to relish it; an object of desire placed out of the possibility of fruition.'—Addison.

Gratification, from the verb to gratify make grateful or pleasant, signifies either the act of giving pleasure, or the pleasure received. Enjoyment springs from every object which is capable of yielding pleasure; by distinction however from moral and rational objects; 'His hopes and expectations are bigger than his enjoyments.'—Theorson. But the gratification, which is a species of enjoyment, is obtained through the medium of the senses; 'The man of pleasure little knows the perfect joy he loses for the disappointing gratifications which he pursues.'—Addison. The

enjoyment is not so vivid as the gratification: the gratification is not so permanent as the enjoyment. Domestick life has its peculiar enjoyments; building spectacles allord gratification. Our capacity for enjoyments depends upon our intellectual endowments; our gratification depends upon the tone of our feelings, and the nature of our desires.

CONTENTMENT, SATISFACTION.

Contentment, in French contentment, from content, in Latin contentus, participle of contineo to contain or hold, signifies the keeping one's self to a thing; satisfaction, in Latin satisfacio, compounded of satis and facto, signifies the making or having enough.

Contentment lies in ourselves: satisfaction is derived from external objects; one is contented when

one wishes for no more: one is satisfied when one has obtained what one wishes; the contented man has always enough; the satisfied man receives enough. The contented man will not be dissatisfied; but he who looks for satisfaction will never be contented. Contentment is the absence of pain; satisfaction is positive pleasure. Contentment is accompanied with positive pleasure. Contentment is accompanied with the enjoyment of what one has; satisfaction is often quickly followed with the alloy of wanting more. contented man can never be miserable; a satisfied man can scarcely be long happy. Contentment is a permanent and hubitual state of mind; it is the restriction of all our thoughts, views, and desires within the compass of present measurements. compass of present possession and enjoyment;

True happiness is to no place confin'd,

But still is found in a contented mind .- ANONYMOUS. Satisfaction is a partial and turbulent state of the feelings, which awakens rather than deadens desire; Women who have been married some time, not having it in their heads to draw after them a numerous train of followers, find their satisfaction in the possession of one man's heart. - Spectator. Contentment is suited to our present condition; it accommodates itself to the vicissitudes of human life; satisfaction belongs to no created being; one satisfied desire engenders another that demands satisfaction. Contentment is within the reach of the poor man, to whom it is a continual feast; but satisfaction has never been procured by wealth, however enormous, or ambition, however boundless and successful. We should therefore look for the contented man, where there are the fewest means of being satisfied. duty bids us be contented; our desires ask to be satisfied; but our duty is associated with our happiness; our desires are the sources of our misery.

PLAY, GAME, SPORT.

Play, from the French plaire to please, signifies in Fig., from the French plane to please, signifies in general what one does to please one's self; game, in Saxon gaming, very probably comes from the Greek $\gamma a\mu \ell \omega$ to marry, which is the season for games; the word $\gamma a\mu \ell \omega$, itself, comes from $\gamma a\ell \omega$ to be buoyant or boasting, whence comes our word gay: sport, in German spass or posse, comes from the Greek $\pi a\ell \zeta \omega$

Play and game both include exercise, corporeal or mental, or boih; but play is an unsystematick, game a systematick, exercise; children play when they inerely run after each other, but this is no game; on the other hand, when they exercise with the ball according to any rule, this is a game; every game therefore is a play, but every play is not a game; trundling a hoop play, our every play is not a game: trunding a noop is a play, but not a game: cricket is both a play and a game. One person may have his play by himself, but there must be more than one to have a game. Play is adapted to infants; games to those who are more advanced. Play is the necessary unbending of the mind to give a free exercise to the body; game is the direction of the mind to the lighter objects of intellectual pursuit. An intermerate love of play tellectual pursuit. An intemperate love of play, though prejudicial to the improvement of young people, is not always the worst indication which they can give; it is often coupled with qualities of a better Hawkesworth. When games are pursued with too much ardour, particularly for the purposes of gain, they are altogether prejudicial to the understanding, and ruinous to the morals:

What arms to use, or nets to frame, Wild beasts to combat or to tame, With all the mysteries of that game.—WALLER.

Sport is a bodily exercise connected with the prose Sport is a county exercise connected with the prose cution of some object; it is so far, therefore, distinct from either play or game: for play may be purely corporeal; game, principally intellectual; but sport is a mixture of both. The game comprehends the exercise of an art, and the perfection which is attained in the test is the part of the principal or the properties of the principal or the in that art is the end or source of pleasure; the sport is merely the prosecution of an object which may be, and mostly is, attainable by one's physical powers without any exercise of art; the game, therefore, is intellectual both in the end and the means; the sport only in the end. Draughts, backgammon, cards, and the like, are games: but hunting, shooting, racing, bowling, quoits, &c. are termed more properly sports at there are, however, many things which may be deno minated either game or sport according as it has more or less of art in it. Wrestling, boxing, chariot-racing, and the like, were carried to such perfection by the ancients that they are always distinguished by the name of games; of which we have historical accounts under the different titles of the Olympick, the Pythian, the Nemean, and the Isthmian games. Similar exerthe Nemean, and the Isthmian games. Similar exercises, when practised by the rusticks in England, have been commonly denominated rural sports. Upon this ground game is used abstractedly for the part of the game in which the whole art lies: 'There is no man of sense and honesty but must see and own, whether of sense and nonesty but must see and own, whether he understands the game or not, that it is an evident folly for any people, instead of prosecuting the old honest methods of industry and frugality, to sit down to a publick gaming table, and play off their money to one another."—Berkeley. Sport is used for the end of the sport or the pleasure produced by the attainment of the road, thus we saw that the resident and the sport of the players. ment of that end: thus we say that the game is won or lost; to be clever or inexpert at a game; to have much sport, to enjoy the sport, or to spoil the sport;

Now for our mountain sport up to yon hill:

Your legs are young .- SHAKSPEARE.

Game is sometimes used figuratively for any scheme or course of conduct pursued;

War! that mad game the world so loves to play.

Sport is sometimes used for the subject of sport to another;

Commit not thy prophetick mind To flitting leaves, the sport of every wind, Lest they disperse in air .- DRYDEN.

Why on that brow dwell sorrow and dismay, Where loves were wont to sport, and smiles to play? SWIFT

The epithets playful, gamesome, and sportive bear a very similar distinction. Playful is taken in a general sense for a disposition to play, and applies peculiarly to children; 'He is scandalized at youth for being lively, and at childhood for being playful.'—Addison. Gamesome denotes a disposition to indulge in jest, but is seldom employed in a good sense;

Belial in like gamesome mood .- MILTON.

Sportive, which denotes a disposition to sporting or carrying on a sport, is a term of stronger import than playful;

I am not in a sportive humour now : Tell me, and dally not, where is the money? SHAKSPEARE.

FREAK, WHIM.

Freak most probably comes from the German frech, bold and petulant. Whim, from the Teutonick wimmen to whine or whimper: but they have at present somewhat deviated from their original meaning; for a freak has more of childishness and humour than boldness in it, a whim more of eccentricity than of childishness. Fancy and fortune are both said to have their freaks, as they both deviate most widely in their movements from all rule; but whims are at most but singular deviations of the mind from its ordinary and even course. Females are most liable to be seized with freaks, which are in their nature sudden and not to be calculated upon: men are apt to indulge themselves in whims

which are in their nature strange and often laughable. We should call it a *freak* for a female to put on the habit of a male, and so accounted to sally forth into the streets:

But the long pomp, the midnight masquerade With all the freaks of wanton wealth array'd, In these, ere trifles half their wish obtain, The toiling pleasure sickens into pain. - GOLDSMITH.

We term it a whim in a man who takes a resolution never to shave himself any more;

T is all bequeath'd to publick uses, To publick uses! There's a whim! What had the publick done for him?—Swift.

FANCIFUL, FANTASTICAL, WHIMSICAL, CAPRICIOUS

Fanciful signifies full of fancy (v. Conceit); fantastical signifies belonging to the phantasy, which is the immediate derivative from the Greek; whimsical signifies either like a whim, or having a whim; capricious

Signifies having caprice.

Fineiful and fantastical are both employed for persons and things; whimsical and capricious are mostly employed for persons, or what is personal.

Fanciful, in regard to persons, is said of that which is irregular in he taste or judgement; fantastical is said of that which violates all propriety, as well as regularity; the former may consist of a simple deviation from rule; the latter is something extravagant. A person may, therefore, sometimes be advantageously fanciful, although he can never be fantastical but to his discredit. Lively minds will be fanciful in the choice of their deep furnities or entirely. their dress, furniture, or equipage; "There is something very sublime, though very fanciful, in Plato's description of the Supreme Being, that "truth is his body, and light his shadow.""—ADDISON. The affectation of singularity frequently renders people fantas tical in their manners as well as their dress;

Methinks heroick poesy, till now, Like some fantastick fairy land did show. COWLEY.

Fanciful is said mostly in regard to errours of opinion or taste; it springs from an aberration of the mind: whimsical is a species of the fanciful in regard nind: whimsical is a species of the function in regard to one's likes or dislikes: capricious respects errours of temper, or irregularities of feeling. The functful does not necessarily imply instability; but the capricious excludes the idea of fixedness. One is functful by attaching a reality to that which only passes in one's own mind; one is whimsical in the inventions of the formulation is experienced by action and indiging of the fancy; one is capricious by acting and judging without rule or reason in that which admits of both. A person discovers himself to be fanciful who makes difficulties and objections which have no foundation in difficulties and objections which have no foundation in the external object, but in his own mind; "The English are naturally fanciful."—ADDISON. A person discovers himself to be capricions when he likes and dislikes the same thing in quick succession; 'Many of the pretended friendships of youth are founded on capricious liking."—BLAIR. A person discovers himself to be rehinsical who falls upon unaccountable modes, and imagines unaccountable things

'T is this exalted power, whose business lies In nonsense and impossibilities: This made a whimsical philosopher

Before the spacious world a tub prefer.
ROCHESTER.

Sick persons are apt to be fanciful in their food; females, whose minds are not well disciplined, are apt remaies, whose minus are not well distributed, are apt to be capricious; the English have the character of being a whimsical nation. In application to things, the terms fanciful and fantastical preserve a similar distinction; what is fanciful may be the real and just combination of a well regulated fancy, or the unreal combination of a distempered fancy; the fantastical is not only the unreal, but the distorted combination of a disordered fancy. In sculpture or painting drapery may be fancifully disposed: the airiness and showiness which would not be becoming even in the dress of a young female, would be fantastical in that of an old woman

FASTIDIOUS, SQUEAMISH.

Fastidious, in Latin fastidiosus, from fastus pridesignifies proudly, nice, not easily pleased: squeamish, changed from qualmish or weak-stomached, signifies,

in the moral sense, foolishly sick, easily disgusted.

A female is fastidious when she criticises the dress
or manners of her rival; 'The perception as well as
the senses may be improved to our own disquiet; and we may by diligent cultivation of the powers of dislike raise in time an artificial fastidiousness.—Johnson She is squeamish in the choice of her own dress, com pany, words, &c. Whoever examines his own imper fections will cease to be fastidious;

Were the fates more kind, Our narrow luxuries would soon grow stale; Were these exhaustless, nature would grow sick, And, cloy'd with pleasure, squeamishly complain That all is vanity, and life a dream.—Armstrone.

Whoever restrains humour and caprice will cease to be someamish.

PARTICULAR, SINGULAR, ODD, ECCEN TRICK, STRANGE.

Particular, in French particulier, Latin particular laris, from particula a particle, signifies belonging to a particle or a very small part; singular, in French singulier, Latin singularis, from singulus every one, which very probably comes from the Hebrew peculium, or private property; odd is probably changed from add, signifying something arbitrarily added; eccen trick, from ex and centre, signifies out of the centre or direct line; strange, in French étrange, Latin extra, and Greek & out of, signifies out of some other part, or not belonging to this part.

All these terms are employed either as characteristicks of persons or things. What is particular belongs to some small particle or point to which it is confined. what is singular is single, or the only one of its kind: what is odd is without an equal or any thing with which it is fit to pair; what is eccentrick is not to be brought within any rule or estimate, it deviates to the right and the left; what is strange is different from that which one is accustomed to see, it does not admit of comparison or assimilation. A person is particular as it respects himself; he is singular as it respects others; he is particular in his habits or modes of action; he is singular in that which is about him; we may be particular or singular in our dress; in the former case we study the minute points of our dress to please ourselves; in the latter case we adopt a mode of dress that distinguishes us from all others.

One is odd, eccentrick, and strange more as it respects established modes, forms, and rules, than individual circumstances: a person is odd when his actions or his words bear no resemblance to that of others; he is eccentrick if he irregularly departs from the customary modes of proceeding; he is strange when that which he does makes him new or unknown to those who are about him. Particularity and singularity are not always taken in a bad sense; oddness, eccentricity, and strangeness are never taken in a good one. A person ought to be particular in the choice of his society, his amusements, his books, and the like: he ought to be singular in virtue, when vice is unfor tunately prevalent: but particularity becomes ridicu lous when it respects trifles; and singularity becomes culpable when it is not warranted by the most imperious necessity. As oddness, eccentricity, and strangeness consist in the violation of good order, of the decencies of human life, or the more important points of moral duty, they can never be justifiable, and often An odd man, whom no one can assounpardonable. in partonane. An oza main, which a with no one, is cate with, and who likes to associate with no one, is an outcast by nature, and a burden to the society which is troubled with his presence. An eccentrick character, who distinguishes himself by nothing but the breach of every established rule, is a being who deserves nothing but ridicule, or the more serious treat ment of censure or rebuke. A strange person, who makes himself a stranger among those to whom he is bound by the closest ties, is a being as unfortunate as he is worthless. Particularity, in the bad sense, arises either from a naturally frivolous character, or the want of more serious objects to engage the mind; 'There is such a particularity for ever affected by

great beauties, that they are encumbered with their charms in all they say or do."—HUGHES. Singularity, which is much oftener taken in the bad than in the good seuse, arises from a preposterous pride which thirsts after distinction even in folly; 'Singularity is only vicious, as if makes men act contrary to reason."—Addison. Oddness is mostly the effect of a distorted humour, attributable to an unhappy frame of mind;

So proud, I am no slave, So impudent, I own myself no knave,

So odd, my country's ruin makes me grave.—Pore.

Eccentricity, which is the excess of singularity, arises commonly from the undisciplined state of strong powers; 'That acute, though cecentrick observer, Rousseau, had perceived that to strike and interest the publick, the marvellous must be produced.'—BURKE. Strangeness, which is a degree of oddness, has its source in the perverted state of the heart; 'A strange, proud return you may think I make you, madain, when I tell you, it is not from every body I would be thus obliged.'—Suckins. 'Artists, who propose only the imitation of such a particular person, without election of ideas, have been often reproached for that ounission.'—DRYDEN.

So singular a madness
Must have a cause as strange as the effect.

When applied to characterize inanimate objects they are mostly used in an indifferent sense, but some-times in a bad sense; the particular serves to define or specify, it is opposed to the general or indefinite; a particular day or hour, a particular case, a particular person, are expressions which confine one tion to one precise object in distinction from the rest singular, like the word particular, marks but one object, and that which is clearly pointed out in distinction from the rest; but this term differs from the former, inasmuch as the particular is said only of that which one has arbitrarily made particular, but the singular is so from its own properties: thus a place is particular when we fix upon it, and mark it out in any manner so that it may be known from others; a place is singular if it have any thing in itself which distinguishes it from others. Odd, in an indifferent sense, is opposed to even, and applied to objects in general; an odd number, an odd person, an odd book, and the like: but it is also employed in a bad sense, to mark objects which are totally dissimilar to others, as an odd idea, an odd conceit, an odd whim, an odd way, an odd place; 'History is the great looking-glass, through which we may behold with ancestral eyes, not only the various actions of past ages, and the odd accidents that attend time, but also discern the different humours of men.'—Howell. Eccentrick is applied in its proper sense to mathematical lines or cir. cles, which have not the same centre, and is never employed in regard to things in an improper sense: strange, in its proper sense, marks that which is un-known or unusual, as a strange face, a strange figure, a strange place; but in the moral application it is like the word odd, and conveys the unfavourable idea of that which is uncommon and not worth knowing; a strange noise designates not only that which has not been heard before, but that which it is not desirable to hear; a strange place may signify not only that which we have been unaccustomed to see, but that which has also much in it that is objectionable; 'Is it not strange that a rational man should worship an ox?'-South.

STRANGER, FOREIGNER, ALIEN.

Stranger, in French étranger, Latin extraneus or extra, in Greek & signifies out of, that is, out of another country; foreigner, from foris abroad, and alien, from alienus another's, have obviously the same original meaning. They have, however, deviated in their acceptations. Stranger is a general term, and applies to one not known or not an inhabitant, whether of the same or another country; foreigner is applied only to strangers of another country; and alien is a technical term applied to foreigners as subjects or residents, in distinction from natural-born subjects. Ulysses after his return from the Trojan war, was a

stranger in his own house. The French are foreigners in England, and the English in France. Neither can enjoy, as aliens, the same privileges in a foreign country as they do in their own. The laws of hospitality require us to treat strangers with more exementy than we do members of the same family, or very intimate friends. The lower orders of the English are apt to treat foreigners with an undeserved contempt. Every alien is obliged in time of war to have a license for residing in England.

The term stranger is sometimes employed to denote one not acquainted with an object, or not having experienced its effects, as to be a stranger to sorrow, or to be a stranger to any work or subject; I was no stranger to the original; I had also studied Virgit's design, and his disposition of it. Foreigner is used only in the above-mentioned sense; but the epithet foreign sometimes signifies not belonging to an object;

All the distinctions of this little life

Are quite cutaneous, quite foreign to the man. YOUNG.

 $\mathcal{A}lien$ is sometimes employed by the poets in the sense of foreigner;

Like you an alien in a land unknown, I learn to pity woes so like my own.—DRYDEN.

From stranger and alien come the verbs to estrange and alienate, which are extended in their meaning and application; the former signifying to make the understanding or mind of a person strange to an object, and the latter to make the heart or affections of one person strange to another. Thus we may say that the mind becomes alienated to one object, when it has fixed its affections on another; 'The manner of nen's writing must not alienate our hearts from the truth.'—HOKER. Or a person estranges himself from his family; 'Worldy and carrupt men estrange themselves from all that is divine.'—BLAIR.

FINICAL, SPRUCE, FOPPISH.

These epithets are applied to such as attempt at finery by improper means. The finical is insignificantly fine; the spruce is laboriously and artfully fine; the foppish is fantastically and affectedly fine. The finical is said mostly of manners and speech; the spruce is said of the dress; the foppish of dress and manners

A finical gentleman clips his words and screws his body into as small a compass as possible to give himself the air of a delicate person; a spruce gentleman strives not to have a fold wrong in his frill or cravat, nor a hair of his head to lie anists; a foppish gentleman seeks, by extravagance in the cut of his clothes, and by the tawdriness in their ornaments, to render himself distinguished for finery. A little mind, full of conceit of itself, will lead a man to be finical; 'I cannot hear a finical fop romancing how the king took him aside at such a time; what the queen said to him at another.'—L'ESTRANGE. A vacant mind that is anxious to be pleasing will not object to the employment of rendering the person spruce;

Methinks I see thee spruce and fine, With coat embroider'd richly shine.—Swift.

A giddy, vain mind, eager after applause, impels a man to every kind of foppery;

The learned, full of inward pride, The fops of outward show deride.—GAY.

Finical may also be applied in the same sense as an epithet for things; 'At the top of the building (Blenheim house) are several cupolas and little turrets that have but an ill effect, and make the building look at once finical and heavy.'—Pope.

HUMOUR, CAPRICE.

Humour (v. Humour) is general; caprice (v. Fam tastical) is particular: humour may be good or bad, caprice is always taken in a bad sense. Humour is always independent of fixed principle; it is the feeling or impulse of the moment: caprice is always opposed to fixed principle, or rational motives of acting; it is the feeling of the individual setting at neught all rule, and defying all reason. The feeling only is perverted when the humour predominates;

You II ask me, why I rather choose to have A weight of carrion flesh than to receive Three thousand ducats; I'll not answer that, But say, it is my humour .- SHAKSPEARE.

The judgement and will are perverted by caprice: a child shows its humour in fretfulness and impatience : a man bettays his caprice in his intercourse with others, in the management of his concerns, in the choice of his anusements; 'Men will submit to any rule by which they may be exempted from the tyranny of caprice and chance.'—Johnson.

Indulgence renders children and subordinate persons humorsome: 'I am glad that though you are incredu-lous you are not humorsome too.'—Goodman. Plosperity or unlimited power is apt to render a man capri cious; 'A subject ought to suppose that there are reasons, although he be not apprized of them, otherwise he must tax his prince of capriciousness, inconstancy, or ill design. — Swift. A humorsome person commonly objects to be pleased, or is easily displeased; a capricious person likes and dislikes, approves and disapproves the same thing in quick succession. Humour, when applied to things, has the sense of wit; whence the distinction between humorsome and humorous; the former implying the existence of humour or perverted feeling in the person; the latter implying the existence of humour or wit in the person or thing;

Thy humorous vein, thy pleasing folly Lies all neglected, all forgot,
And pensive, wayward, melancholy,
Thou dread'st and hop'st thou know'st not what.

Caprice is improperly applied to things to designate their total irregularity and planlessness of proceeding; as, in speaking of fashion, we notice its caprice, when that which has been laid aside is again taken into use: diseases are termed capricious which act in direct opposition to all established rule; 'Does it imply that our language is in its nature irregular and capricious?' LOWTH.

HUMOUR, TEMPER, MOOD.

Humour literally signifies moisture or fluid, in which sense it is used for the fluids of the human body; and as far as these humours or their particular state is connected with, or has its influence on, the animal spirits and the moral feelings, so far is humour applicable to moral agents; temper (v. Disposition) is less specifick in its signification; it may with equal propriety, under the changed form of temperament, be applicable to the general state of the body or the mind; mood, which is but a change from mode or manner, has an original signification not less indefinite than the former; it is

applied only to the mind.

As the hamours of the body are the most variable parts of the animal frame, humour in regard to the mind denotes but a partial and transitory state when compared with the temper, which is a general and habitual state. The humour is so fluctuating that it varies in the same mind perpetually; but the temper is so far confined that it always shows itself to be the same whenever it shows itself at all: the humour makes a man different from himself; the temper makes him different from others. Hence we speak of the humour of the moment; of the temper of the youth or of old age: so likewise we say, to accommodate one's self to the humour of a person; to manage his temper; to put one into a certain humour; to correct or sour the temper. Humour is not less partial in its nature than in its duration; it fixes itself often on only one object, or respects only one particular direction of the feelings: temper extends to all the actions and opinions as well as feetings of a man; it gives a colouring to all he says, does, thinks, and feels: 'There are three or four single men who suit my temper to a hair.'—Cow-We may be in a humour for writing, or reading for what is gay or what is scrious; for what is noisy or what is quiet: but our temper is discoverable in our daily conduct; we may be in a good or ill humour in company, but in domestic life and in our closet relations we show whether we are good or ill tempered. A man shows his humour in different or trifling actions: he shows his temper in the most important actions: it l

may be a man's humour to sit while others stand, or to go unshaven while others shave; but he shows his temper as a Christian or otherwise in forgiving injuries or harbouring resentments; in living peaceably, or indulging himself in contentions;

It is the curse of kings to be attended By slaves, that take their humours for a warrant To break into the bloodhouse of life

'This, I shall call it evange ical, temper is far from being natural to any corrupt son of Adam.'—Ham-MOND.

The same distinction is kept up between the terms when applied to bodies of men. A nation may have its humour and its temper as much as an individual; the former discovers itself in the manners and fashion; the latter in its publick spirit towards its government or other nations. It has been the most un-lucky humour of the present day to banish ceremony, and consequently decency, from all companies; 'True modesty is aslauned to do any thing that is opposite to the hamour of the company.'—Apoison. The temper of the times is somewhat more sober now than it was during the heat of the revolutionary mania; gular tempers in trade and business are but like irregular tempers in eating and drinking.'-Law.

Humour and mood agree in denoting a particular and temporary state of feeling; but they differ in the cause. the former being attributable rather to the physical state of the body; and the latter to the moral frame of the mind: the former therefore is independent of all external circumstances, or at all events, of any that are reducible to system; the latter is guided entirely by events. Humour is therefore generally taken in a bad sense, unless actually qualified by some epithet to the contrary;

Their humours are not to be won

But when they are imposed upon .- HUDIBRAS

Mood is always taken in an indifferent sense; 'Strange as it may seem, the most ludicrous lines I ever wrote have been written in the saddest mood.'—Cowper. There is no calculating on the hamour of a man; it depends upon his mood whether he performs ill or well: it is necessary to suppress humour in a child; we discover by the melancholy mood of a man that something distressing has happened to him.

DISPOSITION, TEMPER.

Disposition, from dispose (v. To dispose), signifies here the state of being disposed; temper, like tempera ment, from the Latin temperamentum and tempero to temper or manage, signifies the thing modelled or formed.

These terms are both applied to the mind and its bias; but disposition respects the whole frame and texture of the mind: temper respects only the bias or

tone of the feelings.

Disposition is permanent and settled; 'My friend has his eye more upon the virtue and disposition of his children than their advancement or wealth.'—STELLE. Temper is transitory and fluctuating; 'The man who lives under an habitual sense of the Divine presence keeps up a perpetual cheerfulness of temper. —Appl-The disposition comprehends the springs and motives of action; the temper influences the actions for the time being; it is possible and not unfrequent to have a good disposition with a bad temper, and vice versa.

A good disposition makes a man a useful member of society, but not always a good companion; 'Akenside was a young man warm with every notion that by nature or accident had been connected with the sound of liberty, and by an eccentricity which such dispositions do not easily avoid, a lover of contradiction, and no friend to any thing established.'—Johnson. A good no friend to any thing established. —Johnson temper renders a man acceptable to all and peaceable with all but essentially useful to none; 'In coffeewith all, but essentially useful to none; 'In coffee-houses a man of my temper is in his element, for if he cannot talk he can be still more agreeable to his company as well as pleased in himself in being a hearer. —Sterle. A good disposition will go far towards correcting the errours of temper; but where there is a bad disposition there are no hopes of amendment.

DISPOSITION, INCLINATION.

Disposition in the preceding section is taken for the general frame of the mind; in the present case for its particular frame; inclination, v. Attachment.

Disposition is more positive than inclination. We may always expect a man to do that which he is disposed to do: but we cannot always calculate upon his executing that to which he is morely inclined.

We indulge a disposition; we yield to an inclination. The disposition comprehends the whole state of the mind at the time; 'It is the duty of every man who would be true to himself, to obtain if possible a disposition to be pleased.'—STELLE. An inclination is particular, referring always to a particular object; 'There never was a time, believe me, when I wanted an inclination to cultivate your esteem, and promote your interest.'—Melmoth's (Letters of Cicero). After the performance of a serious duty, no one is expected to be in a disposition for laughter or merriment; it is becoming to suppress our inclination to laughter in the presence of those who wish to be serious; we should be careful not to enter into controversy with one who shows a disposition to be unfriendly. When a young person discovers any inclination to study, there are hopes of his improvement.

TEMPERAMENT, TEMPERATURE.

Temperament and temperature are both used to express that state which arises from the tempering of opposite or varying qualities; the temperament is said of animal bodies, and the temperature of the atmosphere. Men of a sanguine temperament ought to be cautious in their diet; Without a proper temperament for the particular art which he studies, his utmost pains will be to no purpose."—BUDGELL. All bodies are strongly affected by the temperature of the air; 'O happy England, where there is such a rare temperature of heat and cold."—Howell.

FRAME, TEMPER, TEMPERAMENT, CON-STITUTION.

Frame in its natural sense is that which forms the exteriour edging of any thing, and consequently determines its form; it is applied to man physically or mentally, as denoting that constituent portion of him which seems to hold the rest together; which by an extension of the metaphor is likewise put for the whole contents, the whole body, or the whole mind; temper and temperament, in Latin temperamentum, from tempero to govern or dispose, signify the particular modes of being disposed or organized; constitution, from constitute or appoint, signifies the particular mode of being constitutated or formed.

Frame, when applied to the body, is taken in its most universal sense; as when we speak of the frame being violently agitated, or the human frame being wonderfully constructed: when applied to the mind it will admit either of a general or restricted signification:

The soul
Contemplates what she is, and whence she came,
And almost comprehends her own amazing frame.
JENYNS.

Temper, which is applicable only to the mind, is taken for the general or particular state of the individual;

'T is he
Sets superstition high on virtue's throne,
Then thinks his Maker's temper like his own.
JENYS:

The frame comprehends either the whole body of mental powers, or the particular disposition of those powers in individuals; the temper comprehends the general or particular state of feeling as well as thinking in the individual. The mental frame which receives any violent concussion is liable to derangement:

Your steady soul preserves her frame, In good and evil times the same.—Swift.

It is necessary for those who govern to be well acquainted with the temper of those whom they govern; The brain may devise laws for the blood, but a hot temper leaps o'er a cold decree.—Shakspeare. By reflection on the various attributes of the Divine Being, a man may easily bring his mind into a frame of devotion; 'There is a great tendency to cheerfulness

in religion; and such a frame of mind is not only the most lovely, but the most commendable in a virtuous person."—Addison. By the indulgence of a fretful, repining temper, a man destroys his own peace of mind, and offends his Maker; 'The sole strength of the sound from the shouting of multitudes so amazes and confounds the imagination, that the best established tempers can scarcely forbear being borne down."—Burkke.

Temperament and constitution mark the general state of the individual; the former comprehends a mixture of the physical and mental; the latter has a purely physical application. A man with a warm temperament owes his warmth of character to the rapid impetus of the blood; a man with a delicate constitution is exposed to great fluctuations in his health; 'I have always more need of a laugh than a cry, being somewhat disposed to melancholy by my temperament.'—COMPER. 'How little our constitution is able to bear a remove into parts of this air, not much higher than that we commonly breathe in!'—LOCKE.

The whole frame of a new-born infant is peculiarly tender. Men of fierce tempers are to be found in all nations; men of sangine tempers are more frequent in warm climates; the constitutions of females are more tender than those of the male, and their frames are altogether more susceptible.

TO QUALIFY, TEMPER, HUMOUR.

Qualify, compounded of the Latin qualis and facio, signifies to make a thing what it ought to be; to temper, from tempero, is to regulate the temperament; to humour is to suit to the humour.

humour is to suit to the humour.

Things are qualified according to circumstances: what is too harsh must be qualified by something that is soft and lenilive; things are tempered by hature so that things perfectly discordant should not be combined; things are humoured by contrivance: what is subject to many changes requires to be humoured; a polite person will qualify his refusal of a request by some expression of kindness; 'It is the excellency of friendship to rectifie or at least to qualife the malignity of these surmises.'—South. Providence has tempered the seasons so as to mix something that is pleasant in them all: 'God in his mercy has so framed and tempered his word, that we have for the most part are serve of mercy wrapped up in a curse.'—South. Nature itself is sometimes to be humoured when art is employed: but the tempers of men require still more to be humouring nature, love to deviate from it as much as possible '—Apdison.

GOOD-NATURE, GOOD-HUMOUR.

Good-nature and good-humour both imply the disposition to please and be pleased: but the former is habitual and permanent, the latter is temporary and partial: the former lies in the nature and frame of the mind; the latter in the state of the humours or spirits. A good-natured man recommends himself at all times by his good-nature; a good-humoured man recommends himself particularly as a companion: good-nature displays itself by a readiness in doing kind offices; 'Afability, mildness, tenderness, and a word which I would fain bring back to its original signification of vittue, I mean good-nature, are of daily use.'—Addisons. Good-humour is confined mostly to the case and cheerfulness of one's outward deportment in social converse; 'There was but one who kept up his good-humour to the Laud's End.'—Addisons. Good-nature is apt to be guilty of weak compliances: good-humour is apt to be guilty of weak compliances: good-humour is apt to be succeeded by fits of peevishness and depression. Good-nature is applicable only to the character of the individual; good-humour may be said of a whole company: it is a mark of good-nature in a man not to disturb the good-humour of the company he is in, by resenting the affront that is offered him by another.

Good-nature qualifies every thing we say or do, so as to render even reproof bearable; 'I concluded, however unaccountable the assertion night appear at first sight, that good-nature was an essential quality in a satirist.'—Appison. Good-humour takes off from the personality of every remark; 'When Virgil said "He that did not hate Bavius might love Mavius," he was in perfect good-humour.'—Addison.

JEALOUSY, ENVY, SUSPICION.

Jealousy, in French jalousie, Latin zelotypia, Greek ζηλοτυπία, compounded of ζηλος and τύπτω to strike or fill, signifies properly filled with a burning desire; cuvy, in French envic, Latin invidia, from invideo, com-pounded of in privative and video to see, signifies not looking at, or looking at in a contrary direction.

We are judous of what is our own, we are envious of what is another's. Jealousy fears to lose what it has; evvy is pained at seeing another have. Princes are jealous of their authority; subjects are jealous of their rights: courtiers are envious of those in favour;

women are envious of superior beauty.

The jealous man has an object of desire, something to get and something to retain: he does not look beyond the object that interferes with his enjoyment; a jealous husband may therefore be appeased by the declaration of his wife's animosity against the object of his jealousy. The envious man sickens at the signed energy ment; he is easy only in the misery of others: all en-deavours, therefore, to satisfy an envious man are fruitless. Jealousy is a noble or an ignoble passion, according to the object; in the former case it is emulation sharpened by fear, in the latter case it is greediness stimulated by fear; 'Every man is more jealous of his natural than his moral qualities.'—HAWKESWORTH.

'T is doing wrong creates such doubts as these, Renders us jealous, and destroys our peace WALLER.

Envy is always a base passion, having the worst passions in its train; 'The envious man is in pain upon all occasions which should give him pleasure. ADDISON.

Jealous is applicable to bodies of men as well as individuals; envious to individuals only. Nations are jealous of any interference on the part of any other power in their commerce, government, or territory; While the people are so jealous of the clergy's ambition, I do not see any other method left them to reform the world, than by using all honest arts to make themselves acceptable to the laity.—Swiff. Individuals are envious of the rank, wealth, and honours of each other; 'A woman does not envy a man for fighting courage, nor a man a woman for her beauty.—

COLLIER.

Jealousy and suspicion both imply a fear of an other's will, intentions, or power, to dispossess one of some object of desire: but in jealousy there is none of the distrust which belongs to suspicion. The jealous man does not dispute the integrity or sincerity of his opponent; the suspicious man thinks ill of both. Jealousy exists properly between equals, or those who may without direct injustice make pretensions to the same thing; rival lovers are jealous of each other: suspicion fixes on the person who by fraud or circumvention is supposed to aim at getting what he has no right to; men suspect those who have once cheated them. Jealousy is most alive when the person's intentions are known; suspicion can only exist while the views of the party are concealed. According to this distinction Lord Clarendon has erroneously substituted the word jealousy for that of suspicion when he says, 'The obstinacy in Essex, in refusing to treat with the king, proceeded only from his jealousy, that when the king had got him into his hands, he would take revenge upon him.'—There can be no jealousy between a sub-ject and a king, or between parties entering into a treaty; but there may be suspicion of the good faith of either side towards the other;

Though wisdom wake, suspicion sleeps At wisdom's gate; and to simplicity Resigns her charge; while goodness thinks no ill Where no ill seems.

INVIDIOUS, ENVIOUS.

Invidious, in Latin invidiosus, from invidia and invideo not to look at, signifies looking at with an evil eye; envious is literally only a variation of invidious. Invidious in its common acceptation signifies causing ill will; envious signifies having ill will.

A task is invidious that puts one in the way of giving offence: a look is envious that is full of emy, finitious qualifies the thing; envious qualifies the temper of the mind. It is invidious for one author to

be judge against another who has written on the same subject;

For I must speak what wisdom would conceal, And truths invidious to the great reveal .- POPE.

A man is envious when the prospect of another's happiness gives him pain; 'They that desire to excel in too many matters out of levity and vainglory, are ever envious.'—Bacon.

LIVELY, SPRIGHTLY, VIVACIOUS, SPORTIVE, MERRY, JOCUND.

Lively signifies having life, or the animal spirits which accompany the vital spark; sprightly, contracted from sprightfully or sprintfully, signifies full of spirits; vivacious, in Latin vivax, from vivo to live, has the same original meaning as lively; sportive, fond of or ready for sport; merry, v. Cheerful; jocund, in Latin jocundus, from jucundus and juvo to delight or pleased.

The activity of the peart when it heats bird with a

The activity of the heart when it beats high with à sentiment of gayety is strongly depicted by all these terms: the lively is the most general and literal in its signification; life, as a moving or active principle, is supposed to be inherent in spiritual as well as material bodies; the feeling, as well as the body which has within a power of moving arbitrarily of itself, is said to have life, and in whatever object this is wanting, this object is said to be dead: in like manner, according to the degree or circumstances under which this moving principle displays itself, the object is denomimoving principle displays used, the object is denominated linely, sprightly, vivacious, and the like. Lines is the property of childhood, youth, or even maturer age: sprightliness is the peculiar property of youth; nivacity is a quality compatible with the sobriety of years: an infant shows itself to be linely or otherwise in a few months after its birth; a female, particularly in her early years, affords often a pleasing picture of sprightliness; a vivacious companion re-commends himself wherever he goes. Sportiveness is an accompaniment of leveliness or sprightliness; as spritteness is as prightly child will show its sprightliness by its sportive humour; mirth and jocundity are the forms of liveliness which display themselves in social life; the former is a familiar quality, more frequently to be discovered in vulgar than in polished society: jocundity is a form of liveliness which poets have ascribed to nymphs and goddesses, and other aerial creatures of the imagination.

The terms preserve the same sense when applied to the characteristicks or actions of persons as when applied to the persons themselves: imagination, wit, conpied to the persons themserves: imagination, wit, conception, representation, and the like, are lively; 'One study is inconsistent with a lively imagination, another with a solid judgement.'—JOHNSON. A person's air, manner, look, tune, dance, are sprightly;

His sportive lambs, This way and that convolv'd, in friskful glee Their frolicks play. And now the sprightly race Invites them forth.—Thomson.

A conversation, a turn of mind, a society, is vivacious; By every victory over appetite or passion, the mind gains new strength to refuse those solicitations by which the young and gingsions are hously assoulted? which the young and vivacious are hourly assaulted. -Johnson. The muse, the pen, the imagination, is sportive; the meeting, the laugh, the song, the con ceit, is merry;

Warn'd by the streaming light and merry lark, Forth rush the jolly clans.—Somerville.

The train, the dance, is jocund;

Thus jocund fleets with them the winter night. THOMSON.

CHEERFUL, MERRY, SPRIGHTLY, GAY.

Cheerful signifies full of cheer, or of that which cheers (v. To animate); merry, in Saxon merig, is probably connected with the word mare, and the Latin probably connected with the word mare, and the Latin meretriz a strumpet; sprightly is contracted from spiritedly; gay is connected with joy and jocund, in Latin jocundus, from juvo to delight; cheerful marks an unruffled flow of spirits; with mirth there is more of tunult and noise; with sprightliness there is more buoyancy; gayety comprehends mirth and indulgence. A cheerful person smiles; the merry person lauchs;

pleasure. The cheerful countenance remains cheerful; it marks the contentment of the heart, and its freedom from pain: the merry lace will often look sad; a trifle will turn mirth into sorrow: the sprightliness of youth is often succeeded by the listlessness of bodily infirmity, or the gloom of despondency: gayety is as transitory as the pleasures upon which it subsists; it is often followed by sultenness and discontent.

Cheerfulness is an habitual state of the mind; mirth is an occasional elevation of the spirits; spreghtliness lies in the temperature and flow of the blood; gagety depends altogether on external circumstances. Religion is the best promoter of cheerfulness: it makes its possessor pleased with himself and all around him;
'I have always preferred cheerfulness to mirth: the
latter I consider as an act, the former as a habit of the mind. Merth is short and transient; cheerfulness fixed and permanent.'-Apprison. Company and wine are but too often the only promoters of mirth; 'Manwhich may be divided into the merry and the serious, who both of them make a very good figure in the species so long as they keep their respective humours from degenerating into the neighbouring extreme.—

Applison. Youth and health will naturally be attended with sprightliness;

But Venus, anxious for her son's affairs, New counsels tries, and new designs prepares: That Cupid should assume the shape and face Of sweet Ascanius, and the sprightly grace.

A succession of pleasures, an exemption from care, and the banishment of thought, will keep gayety alive. Sprightly and merry are seldom employed but in the proper sense as respects persons: but cheerful and gay are extended to different objects; as a cheerful prospect, a cheerful room, gay attire, a gay scene, gay colours, &c.;

To kinder skies, where gentler manners reign, I turn: and France displays her bright domain.

Gay, sprightly land of mirth and social ease,

Pleas'd with thyself, whom all the world can please. GOLDSMITH.

LIGHTNESS, LEVITY, FLIGHTINESS, VOLATILITY, GIDDINESS.

Lightness, from light, signifies the abstract quality; levity, in Latin levitas, from levis light, signifies the same; volatility, in Latin volatilitas, from volo to fly, signifies flitting, or ready to fly swiftly on; flightiness, from flighty and fly, signifies the readiness to fly; gid-diness, from giddy, in Saxon gidig, is probably con-nected with the verb gehen to go, signifying a state of

going unsteadily.

Lightness is taken either in the natural or metaphorical sense; the rest only in the moral sense; lightness is said of the outward carriage, or the inward temper; levity is said only of the outward carriage; a light minded man treats every thing lightly, e it ever so serious; the lightness of his mind is evi dent by the lightness of his motions. Lightness is common to both sexes; levity is peculiarly striking in females; and in respect to them, they are both ex-ceptionable qualities in the highest degree: when a woman has lightness of mind, she verges very near towards direct vice; when there is levity in her conduct she exposes herself to the imputation of criminality; 'Innocence gives a lightness to the spirits, ill imitated and ill supplied by that forced levity of the vicious. BLAIR. Volatility, flightiness, and giddiness are degrees of lightness, which rise in signification on one another; volatility being more than lightness, and the others more than volatility: lightness. and volatility are defects as they relate to age; those only who ought to be serious or grave are said to be light or volatile. When we treat that as light which is weighty, when we suffer nothing to sink into the mind, or make any impression, this is a defective lightness of character; when the spirits are of a buoyant nature, and the thoughts fly from one object to another, without resting on any for a moment, this lightness becomes volatility; 'If we see people dancing, even in wooden shoes, and a fiddle always at

the sprightly person dances; the gay person takes his pleasure.

The cheerful countenance remains cheerful; it marks the contentment of the heart, and its freedom person catches pleasure from pain: the merry lace will often look sad; a tritle from pain: the merry lace will often look sad; a tritle will turn mirth into sorrow: the sprightlmess of youth; will turn mirth into sorrow: the sprightlmess of youth; feelings and animal spirits which is inseparable from a state of childhood: a fighty child, however, only fails from a want of attention; but a giddy child, like one whose head is in the natural sense giddy, is unable to collect itself so as to have any consciousness of what passes: a flighty person commits improprieties; Remembering many flightinesses in her writing, I know not how to behave myself to her.'—RICHARDson. A giddy person commits extravagances;

The giddy vulgar, as their fancies guide, With noise, say nothing, and in parts divide.

FROLICK, GAMBOL, PRANK.

Frolick, in German, &cc. fröhlich cheerful, comes from froh merry, and freude joy; gambol signifies literally leaping into the air, from the Italian gamba, in French jumb the leg; prank is changed from prance, which literally signifies to throw up the hind feet after the manner of a horse, and is most probably connected with the German prangen to make a parade or fuse, and the Hebrew y to set free, because the freedom indicated by the word prank is more or less discoverable in the sense of all these terms. The frolick is a merry, joyous entertainment; the gambol is a dancing, light entertainment; the prank is a freakish, wild entertainment. Laughing, singing, noise, and feasting constitute the frolick of the careless mind; it belongs to a company: conceit, levity, and trick, in movement, gesture, and contrivance, constitute the gambol; it belongs to the individual: adventure, eccentricity, and belongs to the individual; adventure, eccentricity, and humour constitute the prank; it belongs to one or many. One has a frolick; one plays a gambol, or a prank. Frolick is the mirth rather of vulgar minds; servants have their frolicks in the kitchen while their masters have pleasures abroad; 'I have heard of some very merry fellows, among whom the frolick was started and passed by a great majority, that every man should immediately draw a tooth."—STRELE, Gambols are the diversions of youth; the Christmas season has given rise to a variety of gambols for the season has given rise to a variety of gambols for the entertainment of both sexes. The term gambol may also be applied to the tricks of animals;

The monsters of the flood Gambol around him in the wat'ry way, And heavy whales in awkward measures play.

And in the same sense the term may be applied figura tively;

What are those crested locks That make such wanton gambols with the wind? SHAKSPEARE.

Pranks are the diversions of the undisciplined; the rude schoolboy broke loose from school spends his time in molesting a neighbourhood with his mis-chievous pranks; 'Some time afterward (1756), some young men of the college, whose chambers were near young men of the college, whose chambers were hear his (Gray's), diverted themselves by frequent and troublesome noises, and, as is said, by pranks yet more offensive and contemptuous."—Johnson. Frolick is the diversion of human beings only; gambol and prank are likewise applicable to brutes; a kitten gambols; a horse, a monkey, and a squirrel will play pranks.

TO AMUSE, DIVERT, ENTERTAIN.

To amuse is to occupy the mind lightly, from the Latin musa a sone, signifying to allure the attention by any thing as light and airy as a sone; divert, in French divertir, Latin diverto, is compounded of dia and verto to turn aside, signifying to turn the mind aside from an object; entertain, in French entretenir, compounded of extre, inter, and tenir, or the Latin teneo to keep, signifies to keep the mind fixed on a

We amuse or entertain by engaging the attention on some present occupation; we divert by drawing the attention from a present object; all this proceeds by the means of that pleasure which the object produces, which in the first case is less vivid than in the second, and in the second case is less durable than in the third. Whatever amuses serves to kill time, to bull the faculties, and banish reflection; it may be solitary, sedentary, and lifeless, but also sociable or intellectual, according to the temper of the person; 'I yesterday passed a whole afternoon in the churchyard, the closters, and the church, amuseing myself with the tombstones and inscriptions that I met with in those several regions of the dead."—Addition. Whatever diverts causes mirth, and provokes laughter; it will be active, lively, and sometimes tunultuous; 'His diversion on this occasion was to see the cross-bows, mistaken signs, and wrong connivances that passed and awakens the understanding; it must be rational, and is mostly social; 'Will Honeycomb was very entertaining, the other night at the play, to a gentleman who sat on his right-hand, while I was at his left. The gentleman believed Will was talking to himself."—Addition. The bare act of walking and changing place may amuse; the tricks of animals divert; conversation entertains. We sit down to a card-table to be amused; we go to a comedy or panomime to be diverted; we go to a tragedy to be entertained. Children are amused with looking at pictures: ignorant people are diverted with shows; intelligent people are entertained with reading.

The dullest and most vacant, as well as the most intelligent, minds may be amused; the most volatile are diverted; the most reflective are entertained: the emperour Domitian amused himself with killing files: the emperour Nero diverted himself with appearing before his subjects in the characters of gladiator and charioteer; Socrates entertained himself by discoursing on the day of his execution with his friends on the

immortality of the soul.

TO AMUSE, BEGUILE.

Amuse signifies the same as in the preceding article beguile is compounded of be and guile signifying to overreach with guile. As amuse denotes the occupation of the mind, so beguile expresses an effect or con-

When amuse and beguile express any species of deception, the former indicates what is effected by persons; and the latter that which is effected by things. To amuse is to practise a fraud upon the understanding; to beguile is to practise a fraud upon the memory and consciousness. We are amused by a false story; our misfortunes are beguiled by the charms of fine music or fine scenery. To suffer one's self to be amused is an act of weakness; to be beguiled is a relief and a privilege. Credulous people are easily amused

amusea is an act of Weakness; to be begatized is a relevand a privilege. Credulous people are easily amused by any idle tale, and thus prevented from penetrating the designs of the artful; 'In latter ages pious frauds were made use of to amuse mankind.'—Addison. Weary travellers begatile the tedium of the journey by

lively conversation;

With seeming innocence the crowd beguil'd, But made the desperate passes when he smil'd. Dryder

AMUSEMENT, ENTERTAINMENT, DIVERSION, SPORT, RECREATION, PASTIME.

Amusement signifies here that which serves to amuse (v. To amuse, divert); entertainment, that which serves to entertain (v. To amuse); diversion, that which serves to divert (v. To amuse, divert); sport, that which serves to give sport; recreation, that which serves to recreate, from recreatus, participle of recreo or re and creo to create or make alive again; pastime, that which serves to ass time.

that which serves to pass time.

The first four of these terms are either applied to objects which specifically serve the purposes of pleasure, or to such as may accidentally serve this purpose; the last two terms are employed only in the latter sense.

The distinction between the first three terms are

The distinction between the first three terms are very similar in this as in the preceding case. Amusement is a general term, which comprehends little more than the common idea of pleasure, whether small or great;

As Atlas groun'd The world beneath, we groun beneath an hour: We cry for mercy to the next amusement. The next amusement mortgages our fields.

Young.

Entertainment is a species of amusement which is always more or less of an intellectual nature; 'The stage might be made a perpetual source of the most noble and useful entertainments, were it under proper regulations.'—Addison. Diversions and sports are a species of amusements more adapted to the young and the active, particularly the latter: the theatre or the concept is an entertainment: fairs and publick exhibitions are diversions; 'When I was some years younger than I am at present, I used to employ myself in a more laborious diversion, which I learned from a Latin treatise of exercises that is written with great erudition; it is there called the σχισμαχια, or the fighting with a man's own shadow.'—Addison. Games of racing or cricket, hunting, shooting, and the like, are sports; 'With great respect to country sports, I may say this gendeman could pass his time agreeably, if there were not a fox or a hare in his country.'—

Recreation and pastime are terms of relative import; the former is of use for those who labour; the latter for those who are idle. A recreation must partake more or less of the nature of an amusement, but it is an occupation which owes its pleasure to the relaxation of the mind from severe exertion: in this manner gardening may be a recreation to one who studies; 'Pleasure and recreation of one kind or other are absolutely necessary to relieve our minds and bodies from too constant attention and labour: where therefore publick diversions are tolerated, it behooves persons of distinction, with their power and example, to preside over them.'—Strell. Company is a recreation to a man of business: the pastime is the amusement of the leisure hour; it may be alternately a diversion, a sport, or a simple amusement, as circumstances require; 'Your microscope brings to sight shoals of living creatures in a spoonful of vinegar; but we, who can distinguish them in their different magnitudes, see among them several huge Leviathans that terrify the little fry of animals about them, and take their pastime as in an ocean.'—Addison.

MIRTH, MERRIMENT, JOVIALITY, JOLLITY, HILARITY.

These terms all express that species of gayety or joy which belongs to company, or to men in their social intercourse.

Mirth refers to the feeling displayed in the outward conduct: merriment, and the other terms, refer rather to the external expressions of the feeling, or the causes of the feeling, than to the feeling itself: mirth shows itself in laughter, in dancing, singing, and noise; merminent consists of such things as are apt to excite mirth: the more we are disposed to laugh, the greater is our mirth; the more there is to create laughter, the greater is the mercenent; the tricks of Punch and his wife, or the jokes of a clown, cause much mirth among the gaping crowd of rustics; the amusements with the swing, or the roundabout, afford nuch merriment to the visitants of a fair. Mirth is confined to no age or station; but merriment belongs more particularly to young people, or those of the lower station; mirth may be provoked wherever any number of persons is assembled; 'The highest gratification we receive here from company is mirth, which at the best is but a fluttering, unquiet motion.'—POPE. Merriment cannot go forward any where so properly as at fairs, or common and publick places; 'He who best knows our natures by such afflictions recalls our wandering thoughts from idle merriment.'—GRAY. Joviality or julity, and hilarity, are species of merriment which belong to the convivial board, or to less refined indulgences: joviality or julity is the unrefined, unificensed indulgences: joviality or julity is the unrefined, unificensed indulgences: procedure the pleasures of the table, or any social entertainments;

Now swarms the village o'er the jovial mead.

Thomson.

With branches we the fanes adorn, and waste In jollity the day ordain'd to be the last.

Hilarity is the same thing qualified by the cultivation

and good sense of the company: we may expect to find much joviality and joility at a publick dinner of me-chanicks, watermen, or labourers: we may expect to find hilarity at a publick dinner of noblemen: eating. drinking, and noise constitute the joinality; the conversation, the songs, the toasts, and the publick spirit of the company contribute to hilarity; 'He that contributes to the hilarity of the vacant hour will be welcomed with aidour.'--Johnson.

FESTIVITY, MIRTH.

There is commonly mirth with festivity, but there may be frequently mirth without festivity. The festivity lies in the outward circumstances: mirth in the temper of the mind. Festivity is rather the producer of wirth than the mirth itself. Festivity includes the on merth than the merth used. Pestrotey includes the social enjoyments of eating, drinking, dancing, cards, and other pleasures; 'Pisistratus, fearing that the festivity of his guests would be interrupted by the misconduct of Thrasippus, rose from his seat, and entreated him to stay?—Cumberland. Mirth includes in it the buoyancy of spirits which is engendered by a participation in such pleasures;

Low lies that house where nut-brown draughts inspir'd,

Where graybeard mirth and smiling toil retir'd. GOLDSMITH.

GRAVE, SERIOUS, SOLEMN.

Grave, in Latin gravis heavy, denotes the weight which keeps the mind or person down, and prevents buoyancy; it is opposed to the light; serious, in Latin

buoyancy; it is opposed to the light; serious, in Latin serus late or slow, marks the quality of slowness or considerateness, either in the mind, or that which occupies the mind: it is opposed to the jocose.

Grave expresses more than serious; it does not merely bespeak the absence of mirth, but that heaviness of mind which is displayed in all the movements of the body; seriousness, on the other hand, bespeaks no depression, but simply steadiness of action, and a refrainment from all that is jocular. A man may be grave in his walk, in his tone, in his gesture, in his good, and all his exteriour; he is serious only in his general air, his countenance, and demeanour. Gravity is produced by some external circumstance; seriousness springs from the operation of the mind itself, or ness springs from the operation of the mind itself, or from circumstances. Misfortunes or age will produce gravity: seriousness is the fruit of reflection. Gravity is, in the proper sense, confined to the person, as a characteristick of his temper;

If then some grave and pious man appear, They hush their noise, and lend a listening ear. DRYDEN.

Serious, on the other hand, is a characteristick either of persons or things; 'In our retirements every thing disposes us to be serious.'—Addison. Hence we should speak of a grave assembly, not a serious assembly, of old men; grave senators, not serious senators; of a grave speaker, not a serious speaker: but a serious, not a grave sermon; a serious, not a grave writer; a serious, not a grave sentiment; a serious, not properly a grave objection: grave is, however, sometimes ex-tended to things in the sense of weighty, as when we speak of grave matters of deliberation. Gravity is speak of grave matters of denocration. Gravity is peculiarly ascribed to a judge, from the double cause, that much depends upon his deportment, in which there ought to be gravity, and that the weighty concerns which press on his mind are most apt to produce pravity: on the other hand, both gravity and serious-ness may be applied to the preacher; the former only as it respects the manner of delivery; the latter as it respects especially the matter of his discourse: the person may be grave or serious; the discourse only is serious.

Solemn expresses more than either grave or serious, from the Latin solennis yearly; as applied to the stated religious festivals of the Romans, it has acquired the collateral meaning of religious gravity: like serious, it is employed not so much to characterize the person as the thing: a judge pronounces the solemn sentence of condemnation in a solemn manner; a preacher de-livers many solemn warnings to his hearers. Gravity may be the effect of corporeal habit, and seriousness of mental habit; but solemnity is something occasional

and extraordinary; 'The necessary business of a man & calling, with some, will not afford much time for set and solemn prayer.'—Whole Dury of Man. Some children observe; a regular attention to religious worship will induce a habit of seriousness; the admonitions of a parent on his death-bed will have peculiar solemnity; The stateliness and gravity of the Spaniards shows itself in the solemnity of their language.—Appison.

In most of our long words which are derived from the Latin, we contract the length of the syllables, that gives them a grave and solemn air in their own language.'-ADDISON.

EAGER, EARNEST, SERIOUS.

Eager signifies the same as in the preceding article; earnest most probably comes from the thing earnest, in Saxon thornest a pledge, or token of a person's real intentions, whence the word has been employed to qualify the state of any one's mind, as settled or fixed; serious,

in Latin serius or sine risu, signifies without laughter.

Eager is used to qualify the desires or passions;

earnest to qualify the wishes or sentiments: the former has either a physical or moral application, the latter altogether a moral application: a child is eager to get a plaything; a hungry person is eager to get food; a covetous man is eager to seize whatever comes within his grasp: a person is earnest in solicitation; earnest

in exhortation; earnest in solicitation; earnest in exhortation; earnest in devotion.

Eagerness is mostly faulty; it cannot be too early restrained; we can seldom have any substantial reason to be eager;

With joy the ambitious youth his mother heard, And, eager for the journey, soon prepar'd. DRYDEN.

Whence this term is applied with particular propriety to brutes ;

The panting steeds impatient fury breathe, But snort and tremble at the gulf beneath Eager they view'd the prospect dark and deep, Eager they view'd the prospect dam and Vast was the leap, and headlong hung the steep.

POPE.

Farnestness is always taken in a good sense; it denotes the inward conviction of the mind, and the warmth of the heart when awakened by important objects;

Then even superiour to ambition, we With earnest eye anticipate those scenes Of happiness and wonder .- Thomson.

A person is said to be earnest, or in carnest; a person or thing is said to be serious: the former characterizes the temper of the mind, the latter characterizes the object itself. In regard to persons, in which alone they are to be compared, earnest expresses more than serious; the former is oplosed to lukewarmness, the latter to unconcernedness: we are earnest astoour wishes, our prayers, or our persuasions; 'He which prayeth in due sort, is thereby made the more attentive to hear; and he which heareth, the more earnest to pray for the time which we bestow, as well in the one as the other.'-HOOKER. We are serious as to our intentions, or the temper of mind with which we set about things; 'It is hardly possible to sit down to the serious perusal of Virgil's works, but a man shall rise more disposed to virtue and goodness. -WALSH. The earnestness with which we address another depends upon the force of our conviction; the seriousness with which we address them depends upon our sincerity, and the nature of the subject: the preacher earnestly exhorts his hearers to lay aside their sins; he seriously admonishes those who are guilty of irregularities.

SOBER, GRAVE.

Sober (v. Abstinent) expresses the absence of all exhilaration of spirits; grave (v. Grave) expresses a weight in the intellectual operations which makes them proceed slowly. Sobriety is therefore a more natural and ordinary state for the human mind than gravity: it behooves every man to be sober in all situations; but those who fill the most important stations of life must be grave. Even in our pleasures we may observe sobricty, which keeps us from every unseemly ebullition of mirth; but on particular occasions where the importance of the subject ought to weigh on the

mind it becomes us to be grave. At a feast we have need of sobriety; at a funeral we have need of gravity; sobriety extends to many more objects than gravity; we must be suber in our thoughts and opinions, as well as in our outward conduct and behaviour; confusions disposed men of any suber understanding to wish for peace."—Clarendon. We can be grave, properly speaking, only in our looks and our outward deportment;

So spake the Cherub, and his grave rebuke, Severe in youthful beauty, added grace Invincible.-MILTON.

Sober is often poetically and figuratively applied;

Now came still ev'ning on, and twilight gray Had in her sober liv'ry all things clad.—MILTON.

GLAD, PLEASED, JOYFUL, CHEERFUL.

Glad is obviously a variation of glee and glow; pleased, from to please, marks the state of being pleased; joyful bespeaks its own meaning, either as full of joy or productive of great joy; cheerful, v.

Glud denotes either a partial state, or a permanent and habitual sentiment: in the former sense it is most nearly allied to pleased; in the latter sense to joyful and

merry

Glad and pleased are both applied to the ordinary occurrence of the day; but the former denotes rather occurrence of the day; but the former denotes rather a lively and momentary sentiment, the latter a gentle but rather more lasting feeling; we are glad to see a friend who has been long absent; we are glad to have good intelligence from our friends and relatives; we are glad to get rid of a troublesome companion;

O Sol, in whom my thoughts find all repose, My glory, my perfection! glad I see
Thy face, and morn return'd.—MILTON.

We are pleased to have the approbation of those we esteem: we are pleased to hear our friends well spoken of; we are pleased with the company of an intelligent of; we are pleased with the company of an analydif-and communicative person; 'The soul has many different ferent faculties, or, in other words, many different ways of acting, and can be intensely pleased or made happy by all these different faculties or ways of acting.

Glad, joyful, and cheerful, all express more or less hvely sentiments; but glad is less vivid than joyful, and more so than cheerful. Gladness seems to rise as much from physical as mental causes; wine is said to make the heart glad: joy has its source in the mind, as it is influenced by external circumstances; instances of good fortune, either for ourselves, our friends, or our country, excite joy: cheerfulness is an even tenour of the mind, which it may preserve of itself independently of all external circumstances: religious contemplation produces habitual cheerfulness.

A comfortable meal to an indigent person gladdens

his heart: a nation rejoices at the return of peace after a long protracted war: a traveller is cheered in a solitary desert by the sight of a human being, or the sound of a voice; or a sufferer is cheered by his trust in Divine Providence.

Glad is seldom employed as an epithet to qualify things, except in the scriptural or solemn style, as, glad

tidings of great joy;

Man superiour walks

Amid the glad creation, musing praise.-Thomson. Joyful is seldomer used to qualify persons than things; hence we speak of joyful news, a joyful occurrence, joyful faces, joyful sounds, and the like;

Thus joyful Troy maintain'd the watch of night, While fear, pale comrade of inglorious flight, And heaven-bred horrour, on the Grecian part, Sat on each face, and sadden'd every heart.—Pops.

Cheerful is employed either to designate the state of the mind or the property of the thing; we either speak of a cheerful disposition, a cheerful person, a cheerful society, or a cheerful face, a cheerful sound, a cheerful aspect, and the like;

No sun e'er gilds the gloomy horrours there, No cheerful gales refresh the lazy air .- Pope.

When used to qualify a person's actions, they all bespeak the temper of the mind: gladly denotes a high

degree of willingness as opposed to aversion; one who is suffering under excruciating pains gladly submits to any thing which promises relief;

For his particular I'll receive him gladly, But not one follower .- SHARSPEARE

Joyfully denotes unqualified pleasure, unmixed with any alloy or restrictive consideration; a convert to Christianity joyfully goes through all the initiatory ceremonies which entitle him to all its privileges, spiritual and temporal;

Never did men more joyfully obey, Or sooner understood the sign to flie; With such alacrity they bore away, As if to praise them all the states stood by. DRYDEN.

Cheerfully denotes the absence of unwillingness, it is opposed to reluctantly; the zealous Christian cheerfully submits to every hardship to which he is exposed in the course of his religious profession; 'Doctrine is that which must prepare men for discipline; and men never go on so cheerfully, as when they see where they go.'-South.

JOY, GLADNESS, MIRTH.

The happy condition of the soul is designated by all these terms (v. Pleasure); but joy and gladness lie more internally; mirth, or the feeling of being merry, (v. Glad) is the more immediate result of external circumstances. What creates joy and gladness is of a permanent nature; that which creates mirth is temporary: joy is the most vivid sensation in the soul; dua-ness is the same in quality, but inferiour in degree joy is awakened in the mind by the most important events in life; gladness springs up in the mind on ordinary occasions: the return of the prodigal son awakened joy in the heart of his father; a man feels gladness at being relieved from some distress or trouble: publick events of a gratifying nature produce universal joy;

His thoughts triumphant, heav'n alone employs, And hope anticipates his future joys .- JENYNS.

Relief from either sickness or want brings gladness to an oppressed heart; 'None of the poets have observed so well as Milton those secret overflowings of gladness, which diffuse themselves through the mind of the beholder upon surveying the gay scenes of nature.'—
Addison. He who is absorbed in his private distresses is ill prepared to partake of the mirth with which he is surrounded at the festive board.

Joy is depicted on the countenance, or expresses itself by various demonstrations: gladness is a more tranquil feeling, which is enjoyed in secret, and seeks no outward expression: mirth displays itself in laugh-ter, singing, and noise. 'Most of the appearing mirth in the world, is not mirth, but art. The wounded spirit is not seen, but walks under a disguise.'—South.

PLEASURE, JOY, DELIGHT, CHARM

Pleasure, from the Latin placeo to please or give content, is the generick term, involving in itself the common idea of the other terms; joy, v. Glad; delight, in Latin delicia, comes from delicio to allure, signify-

ing the thing that allures the mind.

Pleasure is a term of most extensive use; it embraces one grand class of our feelings or sensations, and is opposed to nothing but pain, which embraces the opposite class or division: joy and delight are but modes or modifications of pleasure, differing as to the degree, and as to the objects or sources. Pleasure, in its peculiar acceptation, is smaller in degree than either joy or delight, but in its universal acceptation it defines no degree: the term is indifferently employed for the no degree: the term is indifferently employed for the highest as well as the lowest degree; whereas joy and nighest as well as the lowest degree; whereas joy and delight can only be employed to express a positively high degree. Pleasure is produced by any or every object; every thing by which we are surrounded acts upon us more or less to produce it; we may have pleasure either from without or from within: pleasure from the gratification of our senses, from the exercise of our affections, or the exercise of our understand into the characters. ings; pleasures from our own selves, or pleasures from others: but joy is derived from the exercise of the affections; and delight either from the affections or the understanding. In this manner we distinguish the

pleasures of the table, social pleasures, or intellectual pleasures; the joy of meeting an old friend; or the delight of pursuing a favourite object.

Pleasures are either transitory or otherwise; they may arise from momentary circumstances, or be attached to some permanent condition; all earthly pleasure is in its nature flecting; and heavenly pleasure, on the contrary, lasting; 'That every day has its pains and sorrows is universally experienced; but if we look impartially about us, we shall find that every day has likewise its pleasures and its joys.'—Johnson. Joy is in its nature commonly of short duration, it springs from particular events; it is pleasure at high tide, but it may come and go as suddenly as the events which caused it: one's joy may be awakened and damped in quick succession; earthly joys are pecu-liarly of this nature, and heavenly joys@are not altogether divested of this characteristick; they are supposed to spring out of particular occurrences, when the spiritual and holy affections are peculiarly called into

While he who virtue's radiant course has run, Descends like a serenely setting sun; His thoughts triumphant heav'n alone employs, And hope anticipates his future juys .- JENYNS

Delight is not so fleeting as jon, but it may be less so than simple pleasure; delight arises from a state of outward circumstances which is naturally more durable than that of joy; but it is a state seldomer attainable, and not so much at one's command as pleasure; this last is very seldom denied in some form or another to every human being, but those only are susceptible of delight who have acquired a certain degree of mental refinement; we must have a strong capacity for enjoyment before we can find delight in the pursuits of literature, or the cultivation of the arts. Pleasures are often calm and moderate; they do not depend upon a man's rank or condition; they are within the reach of all, more or less, and more or less at one's command: joys are buoyant; they dilate the heart for a time, but they must and will subside; they depend likewise on casualties which are under no one's control: delights are ardent and excessive; they are within the reach of a few only, but depend less on external circumstances than on the temper of the receiver.

Pleasure may be had either by reflection on the past, or by anticipation of the future; joy and delight can be produced only by the present object: we have a pleasure in thinking on what we have once enjoyed, or what we may again enjoy; we experience joy on the receipt of particularly good news; one may experience delight from a musical entertainment. Pleasure render actignt from a musical emerianment. Fleasure and delight may be either individual or social; joy is rather of a social nature: we feel a pleasure in solitude when locked up only in our own contemplations; we experience delight in the prosecution of some great end; we feel joy in the presence of those whom we love, when we see them likewise happy. Pleasures are particularly divided into selfish or benevolent; joys and delights flow commonly from that which immediately interests ourselves, but very frequently spring from the higher source of interest in the hanpiness of others: the pleasure of serving a friend, or of relieving a distressed object, has always been esteemed by moralists as the purest of pleasures; we are told that in heaven there is more joy over one sinner that repenteth, than over the ninety and nine that need no repentance; the delight which a parent feels at seeing the improvement of his child is one of those enviable sorts of pleasures which all may desire to experience, but which many must be contented to forego

Pleasure, joy, and delight are likewise employed for the things which give pleasure, joy, or delight. Charm (v. Attraction) is used only in the sense of what charms, or gives a high degree of pleasure; but not a degree equal to that of joy or delight, though greater than of ordinary pleasure: pleasure intoxi-cates; the joys of heaven are objects of a Christian's pursuit; the delights of matrimony are lasting to those who are susceptible of true affection; Before the day of departure (from the country), a week is always ap-propriated for the payment and reception of ceremonial visits, at which nothing can be mentioned but the de-lights of London.'—Johnson. The charms of rural scenery never fail of their effect whenever they offer themselves to the eve:

When thus creation's charms around combine, Amid the store should thankless pride repine? GOLDSMITH

HAPPINESS, FELICITY, BLISS, BLESSED-NESS, BEATITUDE.

Happiness signifies the state of being happy; fels city, in Latin felicitus, from felix happy, most probably comes from the Greek ἥλιξ youth, which is the age of purest enjoyment; bliss, blessedness, signify the state or property of being blessed; beatifude, from the Latin beatus, signifies the property of being happy in a superiour degree.

Happiness comprehends that aggregate of plea surable sensations which we derive from external objects; it is the ordinary term which is employed alike in the colloquial or the philosophical style: felicity is a higher expression, that comprehends inward enjoyment, or an aggregate of inward pleasure, without regard to the source whence they are derived: bliss is a still higher term, expressing more than either happiness or felicity, both as to the degree and nature of the enjoyment. Happiness is the thing adapted to our present condition, and to the nature of our being, as a compound of body and soul; it is impure in its nature, and variable in degree; it is sought for by various means and with great eagerness; but it often various means and with great eagerness; but notest lies much more within our reach than we are apt to imagine: it is not to be found in the possession of great wealth, of great power, of great dominions, of great splendour, or the unbounded indulgence of any one appetite or desire; but it is to be found in moderate possessions, with a heart tempered by religion and virtue, for the enjoyment of that which God has bestowed upon us: it is, therefore, not so unequally dis-

tributed as some have been led to conclude.

Happiness admits of degrees, since every individual is placed in different circumstances, either of body or mind, which fit him to be more or less happy;

Ah! whither now are fled Those dreams of greatness? those unsolid hopes Of happiness?—Thomson.

Felicity is not regarded in the same light; it is that which is positive and independent of all circumstances: domestick felicity, and conjugal felicity, are regarded as moral enjoyments, abstracted from every thing which can serve as an alloy; 'No greater felicity can genius attain than that of having purified intellectual pleasure, separated mirth from indecency, and wit from licentiousness."—Johnson. Bliss is that which is purely spiritual; it has its source in the imagination, and rises above the ordinary level of human enjoyments: of earthly bliss little is known but in poetry; heavenly bliss we form but an imperfect conception from the utmost stretch of our powers;

The fond soul. Wrapp'd in gay visions of unreal bliss, Still paints th' illusive form.—Thomson.

In the description of heaven and hell we are surely interested, as we are all to reside hereafter either in the regions of horrour or of bliss.'-Johnson. Blessedness is a term of spiritual import which refers to the happy condition of those who enjoy the Divine favour, and are permitted to have a foretaste of heavenly bliss, by the exaltation of their minds above earthly happiness 'So solid a comfort to men, under all the troubles and afflictions of this world, is that firm assurance which the Christian religion gives us of a future happiness, as to bring even the greatest miseries which in this life we are liable to, in some sense, under the notion of blessedness.'-TILLOTSON. Beatitude denotes that quality or degree of happiness only which is most exalted; namely, heavenly happiness; 'As in the next world, so in this, the only solid blessings are owing to the goodness of the mind, not the extent of the capacity; friendship here is an emanation from the same source as beatitude there.'-Pope.

HAPPY, FORTUNATE.

Happy and fortunate are both applied to the external circumstances of a man; but the former conveys the idea of that which is abstractedly good, the latter implies rather what is agreeable to one's wishes. man is happy in his marriage, in his children, in his

connexions, and the like: he is fortunate in his trading concerns. Happy excludes the idea of chance; fortunate excludes the idea of personal effort: a man is kappy in the possession of what he gets; he is fortunate in getting it.

In the improper sense they bear a similar analogy. A happy thought, a happy expression, a happy turn, a happy event, and the like, denote a degree of posi-

tive excellence;

O happy, if he knew his happy state, The swain, who, free from business and debate, Receives his easy food from nature's hand, And just returns of cultivated land.—DRYPEN.

A fortunate idea, a fortunate circumstance, a fortunate event, are all relatively considered, with regard to the wishes and views of the individual; 'Visit the gayest and most fortunate on earth only with sleepless nights, disorder any single organ of the senses, and you shall (will) presently see his gayety vanish.'—BLAIR.

TO FELICITATE, CONGRATULATE.

Felicitate, from the Latin felix happy, signifies to make happy, and is applicable only to ourselves; con gratulate, from gratus, pleasant or agreeable, is to make agreeable, and is applicable either to ourselves or others: we felicitate ourselves on having escaped the danger; we congratulate others on their good fortune; 'The astronomers, indeed, expect her (night) with impatience, and felicitate themselves upon her arrival.'—Johnson. 'The fierce young hero who had overcome the Curiatii, instead of being congratulated by his sister for his victory, was upbraided by her for having slain her lover.'—Addison.

FORTUNATE, LUCKY, FORTUITOUS, PROSPEROUS, SUCCESSFUL.

Fortunate signifies having fortune (v. Chance, fortune); lucky, having luck, which is in German gluck, and in all probability comes from gelingen or lungen to succeed; fortuitous, after the manner of fortune; prosperity; successful, i.e. full of successful i.e. full of successful, i.e. full of successful i.e. full of succes

cess, enabled to succeed.

The fortunate and lucky are both applied to that which happens without the control of man; but lucky, which is a collateral term, describes the capricious goddess Fortune in her most freakish humours, and fortunate represents her in her most sober mood: in other words, the fortunate is more according to the ordinary course of things; the lucky is something sudden, unaccountable, and singular; a circumstance is said to be fortunate which turns up suitably to our purpose; it is said to be lucky when it comes upon us unexpectedly at the moment that it is wanted;

unexpectedly at the moment that it is wanted; This *lucky* moment the sly traitor chose,

Then starting from his ambush up he rose.

DRYDEN

Hence we speak of a man as fortunate in his business, and the ordinary concerns of life; 'Several of the Roman emperours, as is still to be seen upon their medals, among their other tiles, gave themselves that of Felix or fortunate.'—Addison. A man is lucky in the lottery or in games of chance: a fortunate year will make up for the losses of the past year;

O fortunate old man, whose farm remains
For you sufficient, and requires your pains.

DRYDEN.

A lucky bit may repair the ruined spendthrift's fortune, only to tempt him to still greater extravagances;

Riches are oft by guilt or baseness earn'd,
 Or dealt by chance to shield a lucky knave

Armstrong.

Fortunate and lucky are applied to particular circumstances of fortune and luck; but fortuitous is employed only in matters of chance generally; 'A wonder it must be, that there should be any man found so stupid as to persuade himself that this most beautiful world could be produced by the fortuitous concourse of atoms.'—RAY.

Prosperous and successful seem to exclude the idea of what is fortuitous, although prosperity and success are both greatly aided by good fortune. Fortunate

and lucky are applied as much to the removal of evil as to the attainment of good; prosperous and successful are concerned only in what is good, or esteemed as such: we may be fortunate in making our escape; we are prosperous in the acquirement of wealth. Fortunate is employed for single circumstances; prosperous only for a train of circumstances; a man may be fortunate in meeting with the approbation of a superiour; he is prosperous in his business; 'Prosperous people (for happy there are none) are hurried away with a fond sense of their present condition, and thoughtless of the mutability of fortune.'—STRELE Prosperity is extended to whatever is the object of our wishes in this world; success is that degree of prosperity which immediately attends our endeavours: wealth, honours, children, and all outward circumstances, constitute prosperity; whence the epithet prosperous may be applied to the winds as far as they favour our designs;

Nour our designs;
Ye gods, presiding over lands and seas,
And you who raging winds and waves appease,
Breathe on our swelling sails a prosp'rous wind.
DRYDEN.

"The attainment of any object constitutes the success;
'The Count d'Olivares was disgraced at the court of
Madrid, because it was alleged against him that he
had never success in his undertakings."—Addition
The fortunate and lucky man can lay no claim to
merit, because they preclude the idea of exertion,
prosperous and successful may claim a share of merit
proportioned to the exertion.

TO FLOURISH, THRIVE, PROSPER.

Flourish, in French fleurir, florissant, Latin floresco or floreo, from flos a flower, signifies to have the vigour and health of a flower in bloom; thrive signifies properly to drive on; prosper, in Latin prosper, prospers, compounded of pro and spero and spes hope, signifies to be agreeable to the hopes.

To flourish expresses the state of being that which is desirable; to thrive, the process of becoming so.

Is destraine; to thrive, the process of vectoring so, In the proper sense, flourish and thrive are applied to the vegetation: the former to that which is full grown; the latter to that which is in the act of growing: the oldest trees are said to flourish, which put forth their leaves and fruits in full vigour; young trees thrive when they increase rapidly towards their full growth.

Flourish and thrine are taken likewise in the moral sense; prosper is employed only in this sense: flourish is said either of individuals or communities of men; thrine and prosper only of individuals. To flourish is to be in full possession of one's powers, physical, intellectual, and incidental; an author flourishes at a certain period; an institution flourishes; literature or trade flourishes; a nation flourishes. To thrive is to carry on one's concerns to the advantage of one's circumstances; it is a term of familiar use for those who gain by positive labour: the industrious tradesman thrives. To prosper is to be already in advantageous circumstances: nuen prosper who accumulate wealth agreeably to their wishes, and beyond their expectations.

Flourish and thrive are always taken in the good sense: nothing flourishes but what ought to flourish; the word bespeaks the possession of that which ought to be possessed: when a peet flourishes he is the ornament of his country, the pride of human nature, the boast of literature: when a city flourishes it attains all the ends of civil association; tits advantageous not only to its own members, but to the world at large; 'There have been times in which no power has been brought so low as France. Few have ever flourished in greater glory.'—Burke. No one thrives without merit: what is gained by the thriving man is gained by those qualities which entitle him to all he has; 'Every thriving grazier can think himself but ill dealt with, if within his own country he is not courted.'—South. To prosper admits of a different view: one may prosper by that which is bad, or prosper in that which is bad, or prosper in the attainment of one's ends, be they what they may constitutes the prosperity; a man may prosper by means of freud and injustice; he may prosper; and he may become

proud, unfeeling, and selfish, by his prosperity: so great an enemy has prosperity been considered to the virtue of man, that every good man has trembled to be in that condition; Betimes inure yourself to examine how your estate prospers."—Wentworth.

WELL-BEING, WELFARE, PROSPERITY, HAPPINESS.

Well being may be said of one or many, but more generally of a body; the well being of society depends upon a due subordination of the different ranks of which it is composed; Have free-thinkers been au-thors of any inventions that conduce to the well-being of mankind ?'-BERKELEY. Welfare, or faring well, from the German fahren to go, respects the good condition of an individual; a parent is naturally anxious for the welfare of his child;

For his own sake no duty he can ask,

The common welfare is our only task .- JENYNS.

Well-being and welfare consist of such things as more immediately affect our existence: prosperty, which comprehends both well ocing and welfare, includes likewise all that can add to the enjoyments of man. The prosperity of a state, or of an individual, therefore, consists in the increase of wealth, power, honours, and the like; 'Religion affords to good men peculiar security in the enjoyment of their prosperity. BLAIR. As outward circumstances more of affect the happiness of man, happiness is, therefore, often substituted for prosperity; but it must never be forgotten that happiness properly lies only in the mind, and that consequently prosperity may exist without happiness: but happiness, at least as far as respects a body of men, cannot exist without some portion of prosperity.

TO ACQUIRE, OBTAIN, GAIN, WIN, EARN.

Acquire, in French acquirer, Latin acquire, is com-Acquire, in French acquirer, Latin acquiro, is compounded of ac or ad and quero to seek, signifying to seek or get to one's self; obtain, in French obtenir, Latin obtineo, is compounded of ob and tene to hold, signifying to lay hold or secure within one's reach; gain and win are derived from the same source; mamely, the French gagner, German gevinnen, Saxon namely, the French gagner, German geachier, Saxon zeinner, from the Latin vinco, Greek kalvypau or vike to conquer, signifying to get the mastery over, to get into one's possession; earn comes from the Saxon tharnan, German erndten, Frieslandish arnan to reap, which is connected with the Greek ἄρννμαι to take or

The idea of getting is common to these terms, but the circumstances of the action vary. We acquire by our own efforts; we obtain by the efforts of others, as well as of ourselves; we gain or win by striving; we earn by labour. Talents and industry are requisite earn by labour. Talents and industry are requisite for acquiring; what we acquire comes gradually to us in consequence of the regular exercise of our abilities; in this manner, knowledge, honour, and reputation are acquired; 'It is Sallust's remark upon Cato, that the less he coveted glory, the more he acquired it.'—Addison. Things are obtained by all means, honest or dishonest; whatever comes into our possession agreeable to our wishes is obtained; favours and requests are always obtained; 'Were not this desire of fame very strong, the difficulty of obtaining it, and the danger of losing it when obtained, would be sufficient to deter a man from so vain a pursuit.'-Apprison. Fortune assists in both gaining and winning, but particularly in the latter case: a subsistence, a superiority, a victory or battle, an advantage, or a pleasure, is gained; 'He whose mind is engaged by the acquisition or improvement of a fortune, not only escapes the tan or improvement of rotatile, not only escapes the insipidity of indifference and the tediousness of in-activity, but gains enjoyments wholly unknown to those who live lazily on the toils of others.'—Johnson. A game or a prize in the lottery is literally won;

An honest man may freely take his own; The goat was mine, by singing fairly won

DRYDEN.

But we may win many things, in the gaining of which fortune is more concerned than one's own exertions; Where the danger ends, the hero ceases: when he has won an empire, or gained his mistress, the rest of

his story is not worth relating.'-STEELE. his story is not worth relating. —Street. A good constitution and full employment are all that is necessary for earning a livelihood; "They who have earned their fortune by a laborious and industrious life are naturally tenacious of what they have painfully acquired."—BLAIR. Fortunes are acquired after a course of years; they are obtained by inheritance, or gained in trade; they are sometimes won at the gaming table, but seldom ear ned.

What is acquired is solid, and produces lasting bene fit; what is obtained may often be injurious to one's health, one's interest, or one's morals; what is gained or won is often only a partial advantage, and transitory in its nature; it is gained or won only to be lost: what is sarned serves only to supply the necessity of the moment; it is hardly got and quickly spent. Scho-lars acquire learning, obtain rewards, gain applause, and win prizes, which are often hardly earned by the loss of health.

TO ACQUIRE, TO ATTAIN.

To acquire (v. To acquire) is a progressive and permanent action; to attain, from the Latin attineo, compounded of ac or ad and tenco to hold, signifying to rest at a thing, is a perfect and finished action; we always go on acquiring; but we stop when we have attained. What is acquired is something got into the possession; what is attained is the point arrived at. We acquire a language; we attain to a certain degree of perfection.

We acquire a language, we actual to a certain uegree of perfection.

By abilities and perseverance we may acquire a considerable fluency in speaking several languages; but we can scarcely expect to attain to the perfection of a native in any foreign language. Ordinary powers, native in any foreign language. Ordinary powers, coupled with diligence, will enable a person to acquired by art, but is the gift of nature.'—Gax. We cannot attain to superiority without extraordinary talents and determined perseverance; 'Inquiries after happiness, and rules for attaining it, are not so necessary and useful to mankind as the arts of consolation, and supporting one's self under affliction.'—Shephard. Accessed as always certificated by afficients as quirements are always serviceable; attainments always creditable.

ACQUIREMENT, ACQUISITION,

Are two abstract nouns from the same verb, denot ing the thing acquired.

Acquirement implies the thing acquired for and by ourselves; acquisition that which is acquired for an-

other, or to the advantage of another.

People can expect to make but slender acquir without a considerable share of industry: 'Men of the greatest application and acquirements can look back upon many vacant spaces and neglected parts of time.'—Hughes. Men of slender acquirements will be no acquisition to the community to which they have attached themselves; 'To me, who have taken pains to look at beauty, abstracted from the consideration of its being an object of desire; at power only as it sits upon another, without any hopes of partaking any share of it; at wisdom and capacity without any pretension to rival or envy its acquisitions; the world is not only a mere seene, but a pleasant one. "Street.

Acquirement respects rather the exertions employed;

acquisition, the benefit or gain accruing. To learn a language is an acquirement; to gain a class or a de-gree, an acquisition. The acquirements of literature far exceed in value the acquisitions of fortune.

TO GET, GAIN, OBTAIN, PROCURE.

To get signifies simply to cause to have or possess; it is generick, and the rest specifick; to gain (v. To acquire) is to get the thing one wishes, or that is for one's advantage: to obtain is to get the thing aimed at or striven after: to procure, from pro and cure to care for, is to get the thing wanted or sought for.

Get is not only the most general in its sense, but in its application: it may be substituted in almost every case for the other terms, for we may say to get or gain a prize, to get or obtain a reward, to get or procure a book; and it is also employed in numberless familiar cases, where the other terms would be less suitable, for what this word gains in familiarity it loses in digalty: hence we may with propriety talk of a servant's getting some water, or a person getting a book off a shelf or getting meat from the butcher, with number-less similar cases in which the other terms could not be employed without losing their dignity. Moreover, get is moniscuously used for whatever comes to the hand, whether good or bad, desirable or not desirable, sought for or not: 'The miser is more industrious than the saint: the pains of getting, the fears of losing, and the inability of enjoying his wealth, have been the mark of satire in all ages.'—Siectator. Gain, obtain, and procure always include citler the wishes, or the instrumentality of the agent, or both together. Thus a person is said to get a cold, or a fever, a good or an ill name, without specifying any of the circumstances of the action; but he is said to get gain that approbation which is gratifying to his feelings; to obtain a recompense which is the object of his exertions; to procure a situation which is the end of his endeavour.

The word gain is peculiarly applicable to whatever comes to us fortuliously; what we gain constitutes our good fortune; we gain a victory, or we gain a cause; the result in both cases may be independent of our exertions; 'Neither Virgil nor Horace would have gained so great reputation in the world, had shey not been the friends and adminers of each other.'—Addison. To obtain and procure exclude the idea of chance, and suppose exertions directed to a specifick end: but the former may include the exertions of others; the latter is particularly apployed for one's own personal exertions. A person obtains a situation through the recommendation of a friend; he procures a situation by applying for it. Obtain is likewise employed only in that which requires particular efforts, that which is not immediately within our reach;

All things are blended, changeable, and vain! No hope, no wish, we perfectly obtain.—Jenyns.

Procure is applicable to that which is to be got with ease, by the simple exertion of a walk, or of asking for; 'Ambition pushes the soul to such actions as are apt to procure honour and reputation to the actor'.—
Addison.

GAIN, PROFIT, EMOLUMENT, LUCRE.

Gains signifies in general what is gained (v. To acquire); profit, in French profit, Latin profectus, participle of proficio, i. e. pro and facio, signifies that which makes for one's good; emolument, from emolior, signifies to work out or get by working; lucre is in Latin lucrum gain, which probably comes from luo to pay, signifying that which comes to a man's purse.

Gain is here a general term, the other terms are specifick: the gain is that which comes to a man: it is the fruit of his exertions, or agreeable to his wish: the profit is that which accrues from the thing. Thus when applied to riches that which increases a man's estate are his gains; 'The gains of ordinary trades and vocations are honest and furthered by two things, chiefly by diligence and by a good name.'—Bacon. That which flows out of his trade are his profits; that is, they are his gains upon dealing; 'Why may not a whole estate, thrown into a kind of garden, turn as much to the profit as the pleasure of the owner?'—Approon. Emalument is a species of gain from labour, or a collateral gaon; of this description are a man's emoluments from an office; 'Except the salary of the Laureate, to which King James added the office of Historiographer, perhaps with some additional emoluments, Dryden's whole revenue seems to have been casual.'—Johnson. A man estimates his gains by what he receives in the year; he estimates his profits by what he receives on every article; he estimates his profits by what he receives on every article; he estimates his emoluments according to the nature of the service which he has to perform: the merchant talks of his gains; the retail dealer of his profits; the place-man of his emoluments.

G.in and profit are also taken in an abstract sense; have is never used otherwise; but the latter always conveys a bad meaning; it is, strictly speaking, unhallowed gain; an immoderate thirst for gain is the vice of men who are always calculating profit and loss; athirst for lucre deadens every generous feeling of the mind:

O sacred hunger of pernicious gold!

What bands of faith can impious lucre hold?

DRYDEN.

Gain and profit may be extended to other objects, and sometimes opposed to each other; for as that which we gain is what we wish only, it is often the reverse of profitable; hence the force of that important question in Scripture, What shall it profit a man if he gain the whole world and lose his own soul?

GOOD, GOODNESS.

Good, which under different forms runs through all the northern languages, and has a great affinity to the Greek $\delta\gamma\alpha\theta\delta_0$, is supposed by Adeling to be derived from the Latin gaudeo, Greek $\gamma\eta\theta\delta\omega$, and Hebrew 7771, signifying to be joyful, joy or happiness being derived from that which is good.

Good and goodness are abstract terms, drawn from

Good and goodness are abstract terms, drawn from the same word; the former to denote the thing that is good, the latter the inherent good property of a thing. All good comes from God, whose goodness towards

his creatures is unbounded.

The good we do is determined by the tendency of the action; but our goodness in doing it is determined by the motives of our actions. Good is of a two-fold nature, physical and moral, and is opposed to evil; Goodness is applicable either to the disposition of moral agents or the qualities of inanimate objects; it is opposed to badness. By the order of Providence the most horrible convulsions are made to bring about good;

Each form'd for all, promotes through private care The publick good, and justly takes its share.

The goodness or badness of any fruit depends upon its fitness to be enjoyed; 'The reigning errour of his life was, that Savage mistook the love for the practice of virtue, and was indeed not so much a good man as the friend of goodness.'—Johnson.

GOOD, BENEFIT, ADVANTAGE.

Good is an abstract universal term, which in its un limited sense comprehends every thing that can be conceived of, as suited in all its parts to the end proposed. In this sense benefit and advantage, as well as utility, service, profit, &c. are all modifications of good; but the term good has likewise a limited application, which brings it to a just point of comparison with the other terms here chosen; the common idea which allies these words to each other is that of good as it respects a particular object. Good is here employed indefinitely; benefit and advantage are specified by some collateral circumstances. Good is done without regard to the person who does it, or him to whom it is done; but benefit has always respect to the relative condition of the giver and receiver, who must be both specified. Hence we say of a charitable man, that he does much good, or that he bestows benefits upon this or that individual. In like manner, when speaking of particular communities or society at large, we may say that it is for the good of society or for the good of mankind that every one submits to the sacrifice of some portion of his natural liberty; but it is intended for the benefit of the poorer orders that the charitably disposed employ so much time and money in giving them instruction.

Good is limited to no mode or manner, no condition of the person or the thing; it is applied indiscriminately:

Our present good the easy task is made, To earn superiour bliss when this shall fade.

JENYNS.

Benefit is more particularly applicable to the external circumstances of a person, as to his heath, his improvement, his pecuniary condition, and the like: it is likewise confined in its application to persons only; we may counsel another for his good, although we do not counsel him for his benefit; but we labour for the benefit of another when we set apart for him the fruits of our labour: exercise is always attended with some good to all persons; it is of particular benefit to those who are of a lethargick habit: an indiscreet zeal does more harm than good to the cause of religion; a patient cannot expect to derive benefit from a medicine when he counteracts its effects; 'Unless men were endowed by nature with some sense of duty or moral

obligation, they could reap no benefit from revelation.' I moved, who are notwithstanding so zealous to steri

Good is mostly employed for some positive and direct good; advantage for an adventitious and indirect good: the good is that which would be good to all; the advantage is that which is partially good, or good only particular cases: it is good for a man to exert his lents; it is an advantage to him if in addition to his own efforts he has the support of friends: it may however frequently happen that he who has the most adever frequently happen that he who has the most aa-vantages derives the least good; talents, person, voice, powerful interest, a pleasing address, are all advan-tages; but they may produce evil instead of good if they are not directed to the right purpose; 'The true art of memory is the art of attention. No man will art of memory is the art of attention. No man will read with much advantage who is not able at pleasure to evacuate his mind.'—Johnson.

ADVANTAGE, PROFIT.

Advantage, in French avantage, probably comes from the Latin adventum, participle of advenio, compounded of ad and venio to come to, signifying to come to any one according to his desire, or agreeable to his purpose; profit, in French profite, Latin profectus, participle of proficio, signifies that which makes for one's good.

The idea common to these terms is of some good received by a person. Advantage is general; it respects every thing which can contribute to the wishes wants, and comforts of life: profit in its proper sense is specifick; it regards only pecuniary advantage. Situations have their advantages; trade has its profits. Whatever we estimate as an advantage is so to the

individual; but profits are something real; the former is a relative term, it depends on the sentiments of the person: what is an advantage to one may be a disadvantage to another;

> For he in all his am'rous battles N' advantage finds like goods and chattels. BUTLER.

The latter is an absolute term: profit is alike to all under all circumstances; 'He does the office of a counsellor, a judge, an executor, and a friend, to all his acquaintance, without the profits which attend such offices.'-STEELE.

ADVANTAGE, BENEFIT, UTILITY, SERVICE, AVAIL, USE.

Advantage has the same signification as in the preceding article; benefit, in French bienfait, Latin benefactum, compounded of bene well, and factum done, signifies done or made to one's wishes; utility, in French utilité, Latin utilitas and utilis useful, from rench utitie, Latin utities and utities useful, from utor to use, signifies the quality of being able to be used, which is also the meaning of use; service, in French service, Latin servitium, from servic to serve, signifies the quality of serving one's purpose; avail compounded of a or ad and valeo to be strong, signifies to be strong for a purpose.

Advantage respects external or extrinsick circumstances of profit, honour, and convenience; benefit respects the consequences of actions and events; respects the consequences of actions and vertex, utility and service respect the good which can be drawn from the use of any object. Utility implies the intrinsick good quality which renders a thing fit for use; service the actual state of a thing which may fit it for immediate use: a thing has its utility and is made of

sernice.

A large house has its advantages; suitable exercise is attended with benefit: sun-dials have their utility in ascertaining the hour precisely by the sun; and may be made serviceable at times in lieu of watches. Things are sold to advantage, or advantages are derived from buying and selling: 'It is the great advantage of a trading nation, that there are very few in it so dull and heavy, who may not be placed in stations of life which may give them an opportunity of making their fortunes.'-ADDISON. Persons ride or walk for the benefit of their health; 'For the benefit of the gentle reader, I will show what to turn over unread, and what to peruse.'-STRELE. Things are purchased for their utility; 'If the gibbet does not produce virtue, it is yet of such incontestible utility, that I believe those gen-tlemen would be very unwilling that it should be re-

every breast against damnation.' -- HAWKESWORTH. Things are retained when they are found serviceable: 'His wisdom and knowledge are serviceable to all who think fit to make use of them.'-STELLE.

A good education has always its advantages, al-though every one cannot derive the same benefit from the cultivation of his talents, as all have not the happy art of employing their acquirements to the right objects: riches are of no utility unless rightly employed; and edge-tools are of no service which are not pro-perly sharpened. It is of great advantage to young people to form good connexions on their entrance into life: it is no less beneficial to their morals to be under the guidance of the aged and experienced, from whom they may draw many useful directions for their future conduct, and many serviceable hints by way of admo-

Utility, use, service, and avail, all express the idea of times to be employed to advantage. Utility is applied mostly in a general sense for that which may be used, and use for that which actually is used; thus things may be said to be of general utility, or of parthings may be said to be of general utility, or of particular use; 'Those things which have long gone together are confederate; whereas new things piece not so well; but, though they help by their utility, yet they trouble by their inconformity.'—Bacon. 'When will my friendship be of use to you?'—Phillips Use comprehends in it whatever is sived from the use of a thing; service may imply that which serves for a particular purpose; avail implies that kind of service which may possibly be procured from any object but which also may not be procured from any object but which also may not be procured. ject, but which also may not be procured; it is therefore used in problematical cases, or in a negative sense. Prudence forbids us to destroy any thing that can be turned to a use; 'A man with great talents, but void of discretion, is like Polyphemus in the fable, strong and blind, endued with an irresistible force, which for want of sight is of no use to him?—Addison. Economy enjoins that we should not throw aside a thing so long as it is fit for service; 'The Greeks in the heroick age seem to have been unacquainted with the use of iron, the most serviceable of all the metals.'—ROBERTSON.
When entreaties are found to be of no avail, females sometimes try the force of tears; 'What does it avail, though Seneca had taught as good morality as Christ himself from the mount?'-Cumberland.
The intercession of a friend may be available to

avert the resentment of one who is offended: useful lessons of experience may be drawn from all the events of life: whatever is of the best quality will be found

most serviceable.

TO EMPLOY, USE.

Employ, from the Latin implico, signifies to impli cate, or apply for any special purpose; use, from the Latin usus and utor, signifies to enjoy or derive benefit from.

Employ expresses less than use; it is in fact a species of partial using: we always employ when we use; but we do not always use when we employ. We employ whatever we take into our service, or make subservient to our convenience for a time; we use what-ever we entirely devote to our purpose. Whatever is employed by one person may, in its turn, be employed by another, or at different times be employed by the same person; but what is used is frequently consumed or rendered unfit for a similar use. What we employ may frequently belong to another; but what one uses is supposed to be his exclusive property. On this ground we may speak of employing persons as well as things; but we speak of using things only, and not persons except in the most degrading sense. Persons, persons, except in the most degrading sense. time, strength, and power are employed;

Thou godlike Hector! all thy force employ; Assemble all th' united band of Troy.—Pore

Houses, furniture, and all materials, of which either necessities or conveniences are composed, are used:

Straight the broad belt, with gay embroid'ry grac'd, He loos'd, the corslet from his breast unbrac'd, Then suck'd the blood, and sov'reign balm infus'd, Which Chiron gave, and Æsculapius us'd .- Pope.

It is a part of wisdom to employ well the short portion of time which is allotted to us in this sublunary state, and to use the things of this world so as not to abuse

moral action, by suffering himself to be employed as an instrument to serve the purposes of another: we ought to use our utmost endeavours to abstain from all connexion with such as wish to implicate us in their guilty practices.

INSTRUMENT, TOOL.

Instrument, in Latin instrumentum, from instruo, signifies the thing by which an effect is produced; tool comes probably from toil, signifying the thing with which one toils. These terms are both employed to express the means of producing an end; they differ mancipally in this, that the former is used in a good or an indifferent sense, the latter only in a bad sense, for persons. Individuals in high stations are often the instruments in bringing about great changes in nations; Devotion has often been found a powerful instrument in humanizing the manners of men'-Blair. Spies and informers are the worthless tools of government;

Poor York! the harmless tool of others' hate, He sues for pardon, and repents too late .- Swift.

TO ABUSE, MISUSE.

Abuse, in Latin abusus, participle of abutor, compounded of ab from and utor to use, signifies to use away or wear away with using; in distinction from misuse, which signifies to use amiss. Every thing is abused which receives any sort of injury; it is misused, if not used at all, or turned to a wrong use.

Young people are too prone to abuse books for want Young people are too prone to wasse boost property of setting a proper value on their contents; 'I know no evil so great as the abuse of the understanding, and yet there is no one vice more common.—Steele. People misuse books when they read for amusement only instead of improvement;

You misuse the reverence of your place, As a false favourite doth his prince's name, In deeds dishon'rable .- SHAKSPEARE.

Money is abused when it is clipped, or its value any way lessened; it is misused when it is spent in excess and debauchery.

TREATMENT, USAGE

Treatment implies the act of treating, and usage that of using: treatment may be partial or temporary; but usage is properly employed for that which is permanent or continued: a passer-by may meet with ill treatment; but children or domesticks are liable to meet with ill usage. All persons may meet with treatment from others with whom they casually come in connexion. 'By pro mises of more indulgent treatment; if they would unite with him (Cortez) against their oppressors, he prevailed with him (Cortez) against their oppressors, he prevailed on the people to supply the Spanish camp with provisions.'—Robertson. Usage is applied more properly to those who are more or less in the power of others: children may receive good or ill usage from those who have the charge of them, servants from their masters, or wives from their husbands; 'If we look further into the world, we shall find this usage (of our Saviour from his own) not so very strange; for kindred is not feinedship.'—Sourm friendship.'-South.

TO PROVIDE, PROCURE, FURNISH, SUPPLY.

Provide, in Latin provideo, signifies literally to see befrom the figuratively to get in readiness for some future purpose; procure, v. To get; furnish, in French fournir, may possibly be connected with the Latin ferro to bring; supply, in French suppleer, Latin suppleo, from sub and pleo, signifies to fill up a deficiency, or make up what is wanting

Provide and procure are both actions that have a special reference to the future; furnish and supply are employed for that which is of immediate concern; one provides a dinner in the contemplation that some persons are coming to partake of it; one procures help in the contemplation that it may be wanted; one furnishes a room, as we find it necessary for the present purpose one supplies a family with any article of domestick use. Calculation is necessary in providing; one does not wish to provide too much or too little; 'A rude hand may build walls, form roofs, and lay floors, and provide all that warmth and security require.'—John-

tnem. No one is exculpated from the guilt of an im- | son. Labour and management are requisite in procur ing; when the thing is not always at hand, or not easily come at, one must exercise one's strength or ingenuity to procure it; 'Such dress as may enable the body to endure the different seasons, the most unenlightened na-Such dress as may enable the body to tions have been able to procure.'—Johnson. Judgement is requisite in furnishing; what one furnishes ought to be selected with due regard to the circumought to be selected with due regard to the circumstances of the individual who furnishes, or for whom it is furnished; 'Auria having driven the Turks from Corone, both by sea and land, furnished the city with corn, wine, victual, and powder.'—KNOLLES. Care and attention are wanted in supplying; we must be careful to know what a person really wants, in order to supply him to his satisfaction;

Although I neither lend nor borrow, Yet, to supply the ripe wants of my friend, I'll break a custom.—Shakspeare.

One provides against all contingencies; one procures all necessaries; one furnishes all conforts; one procures all necessaries; one furnishes all conforts; one supplies all deficiencies. Provide and procure are the acts of persons only; furnish and supply are the acts of unconscious agents. A person's garden and orchard may be said to furnish him with delicacies; the earth supplies another of Sainth in the interport application. us with food. So in the improper application: the daily occurrences of a great city furnish materials for a newspaper; a newspaper, to an Englishman, supplies almost every other want; 'Your ideas are new, and borrowed from a mountainous country, the only one that can furnish truly picturesque scenery.'-GRAY.

And clouds, dissolv'd, the thirsty ground supply.

DRYDEN.

PROVIDENCE, PRUDENCE,

Providence and prudence are both derived from the verb to provide; but the former expresses the particular act of providing; the latter the habit of providing. The former is applied both to animals and men; the latter is employed only as a characteristick of men. We may admire the providence of the ant in laying up a store for the winter:

In Albion's isle, when glorious Edgar reign'd, He, wisely provident, from her white cliffs Launch'd half her forests .- SomeRVILLE.

The prudence of a parent is displayed in his concern for the future settlement of his child; 'Prudence operates on life, in the same manner as rules on com position; it produces vigilance rather than elevation. It is provident in a person to adopt measures JOHNSON. of escape for himself, in certain situations of peculiar danger; it is prudent to be always prepared for all contingencies

PRUDENT, PRUDENTIAL.

Prudent (v. Judgement) characterizes the person or the thing; prudential characterizes only the thing Prudent signifies having prudence; prudential, according to the rules of prudence, or as respects prudence. The prudent is opposed to the imprudent and inconsiderate; the providential is opposed to the voluntary; the counsel is prudent which accords with the principles of prudence. principles of prudence;

Ulysses first in publick care she found, For prudent counsel like the gods renown'd.

The reason or motive is prudential, as flowing out of circumstances of prudence or necessity; 'Those who possess elevated understandings, are naturally apt to consider all prudential maxims as below their regard.

-Johnson. Every one is called upon at certain times —Johnson. Every one is called upon at certain times to adopt prudent measures; those who are obliged to consult their means in the management of their ex penses, must act upon prudential motives

FORESIGHT, FORETHOUGHT, FORECAST, PREMEDITATION.

Foresight, from seeing before, and forethought, from thinking beforehand, denote the simple act of the mind in seeing a thing before it happens: forecast, from casting the thoughts onward, signifies coming at the knowledge of a thing beforehand by means of calculation: premeditation from pre before, and meditate

signifies obtaining the same knowledge by force of good and evil, is not such as to supersede prudence in meditating, or reflecting deeply on a thing beforehand. | conduct.'—Blair. Foresight and forethought are general and indefinite terms; we employ them either on ordinary or extraorterms: we employ them either on ordinary or extraorfinary occasions; but forethought is of the two the
most familiar term; forecast and premeditation mostly
in the latter case; all business requires foresight; state
concerns, require forecast; foresight and forecast
respect what is to happen; they are the operations
of the mind in calculating futurity; premeditation
respects what is to be said or done; it is a preparation
of the thoughts and designs for action; by foresight
and forecast we guard against evils and provide for
continuousless. In remeditation, we guard against contingencies; by premeditation we guard against errours of conduct. A man betrays his want of foresight who does not provide against losses in trade

The wary crane foresees it first, and sails Above the storm, and leaves the lowly vales. DRYDEN.

A person shows his want of forecast who does not provide against old age;

Let him forecast his work with timely care Which else is huddled, when the skies are fair. DRYDEN.

A man shows his want of premeditation who acts or speaks on the impulse of the moment; the man therefore who does a wicked act without premeditation lessens his guilt; 'The tongue may fail and falter in her sudden extemporal expressions, but the pen having the statement of the suddential of the suddential to the sudd a greater advantage of premeditation is not so subject to errour.'-Howell.

JUDGEMENT, DISCRETION, PRUDENCE.

These terms are all employed to express the various modes of practical wisdom, which serve to regulate the conduct of men in ordinary life. The judgement is that faculty which enables a person to distinguish right and wrong in general; discretion and prudence serve and wrong in general; ussertton and practice serve the same purpose in particular cases. The judgement is conclusive; it decides by positive inference; it en-ables a person to discover the truth: discretion is in-tuitive (v. Discernment); it discerns or perceives what is in all probability right. The judgement acts by a fixed rule; it admits of no question or variation; the discretion acts according to circumstances, and is its discretion acts according to circumstances, and is its own rule. The judgement determines in the choice of what is good: the discretion sometimes only guards against errour or direct mistakes; it chooses what is nearest to the truth. The judgement requires knowledge and actual experience; the discretion requires know-ledge and actual experience; the discretion requires reflection and consideration; a general exercises his judgement in the disposition of his army, and in the mode of attack; while he is following the rules of military art he exercises his discretion in the choice of officers for different posts, in the treatment of his men. in his negotiations with the enemy, and various other mass negorations with the cherny, and various filter measures which depend upon contingencies; 'If a man have that penetration of judgement as he can discern what things are to be laid open, and what to be secreted, to him a habit of dissimulation is a hindrance and a poorness.'—Bacon.

Let your own Discretion be your tutor. Suit the action To the words .- SHAKSPEARE.

Discretion looks to the present; prudence, which is the same as providence or forethought calculates on the future: discretion takes a wide survey of the case that offers: it looks to the moral fitness of the thing. as well as the consequences which may follow from it; it determines according to the real propriety of the thing, as well as the ultimate advantages which it may produce; prudence looks only to the good or evil which may result from the thing; it is, therefore, but a mode or accompaniment of discretion; we must have prudence when we have discretion, but we may have prudence where there is no occasion for discre-tion. Those who have the conduct or direction of others require discretion; those who have the manage ment of their own concerns require prudence. For want of assortion the master of a school, or the general of an army, may lose his authority: for want of prudence the merchant may involve hinself in ruin; or the man of fortune may be brought to beggary; 'The ignorance in which we are left concerning

As epithets, judicious is applied to things oftene than to persons; discrect is applied to persons rather than to things; prudent is applied to both: a remark or a military movement is judicious; it displays the judgement of the individual from whom they emanate;

So bold, yet so judiciously you dare, That your least praise is to be regular.—DRYDEN.

A matron is discreet, who, by dint of years, experience, and long reflection, is enabled to determine on what is befitting the case:

To elder years to be discreet and grave, Then to old age maturity she gave .- DENMAN.

A person is prudent who does not inconsiderately expose himself to danger; a measure is prudent that guards against the chances of evil;

The monarch rose, preventing all reply Prudent lest, from his resolution rais'd Others among the chiefs might offer .- MILTON.

Counsels will be injudicious which are given by those who are ignorant of the subject: it is dangerous to intrust a secret to one who is indiscreet; the impetuosity of youth naturally impels them to be imprudent; an imprudent marriage is seldom followed by prudent conduct in the parties that have involved themselves in it.

WISDOM, PRUDENCE.

Wisdom (v. Wit) consists in speculative knowledge; prudence (v. Prudent) in that which is practical: the former knows what is past; the latter by foresight knows what is to come; many wise men are remarkable for their want of prudence; and those who are remarkable for prudence have frequently no other knowledge of which they can boast; 'Two things speak much the visdom of a nation: good laws, and a prudent management of them.'--Stillingfleet.

FOLLY, FOOLERY.

Folly is the abstract of foolish, and characterizes the thing; foolery the abstract of fool, and characterizes the person: we may commit an act of folly with-out being chargeable with weakness or folly; but out being chargeable with weakness or folly; but none are guilty of foolerics who are not themselves fools, either habitually or temporarily: young people are perpetually committing follies if not under proper control; 'This peculiar ill property has folly, that it enlarges men's desires while it lessens their capacities.'—South. Fashionable people only lay aside one foolery to take up another; 'If you are so much transported with the sight of beautiful persons, to what cestasy would it raise you to behold the original beauty, not filled up with flesh and blood, or varnished with a feding niture of colours, and the rest of mostal fading mixture of colours, and the rest of mortal trifles and fooleries.'—WALSH.

FOOL, IDIOT, BUFFOON.

Fool is doubtless connected with our word foul, in German faul, which is either nasty or lazy, and the Greek φαύλος which signifies worthless or good for nothing; idiot comes from the Greek Ιδιώτης, signifying either a private person or one that is rude and unskilled in the ways of the world; buffoon, in French bouffon, is in all probability connected with our word beet, buffalo, and bull, signifying a senseless fellow. The fool is either naturally or artificially a fool;

Thought's the slave of life, and life's time's fool.

SHAKSPEARE.

The idiot is a natural fool; 'Idiots are still in request in most of the courts of Germany, where there is not a prince of any great magnificence who has not two or three dressed, distinguished, undisputed fools in his retinue.—Addrson. The buffoon is an artificial fool; 'Homer has described a Vulcan that is a buffoon among his gods, and a Thersites among his mortals Whoever violates common sense in his Appison. Additional actions is a fool; whoever is unable to act according to common sense is an idiot; whoever intentionally violates common sense is a buffoon.

SIMPLE, SILLY, FOOLISH.

semple, v. Simple; silly is but a variation of simple :

foolish signifies like a fool (v. Fool).

The simple, when applied to the understanding, implies such a contracted power as is incapable of combination; sitly and foolish rise in sense upon the former, signifying either the perversion or the total deficiency of understanding the behavior of a reserved. deficiency of understanding; the behaviour of a person may be silly, who from any excess of feeling loses his sense of propriety; the conduct of a person will be foolish who has not judgement to direct himself. Country people may be simple owing to their want of knowledge

And had the simple natives Observ'd his sage advice, Their wealth and fame some years ago Had reach'd above the skies .- Swift.

Children will be silly in company if they have too much liberty given to them;

Two gods a silly woman have undone.- DRYDEN. There are some persons who never acquire wisdom enough to prevent them from committing foolish errours; 'Virgil justly thought it a foolish figure for a grave man to be overtaken by death, while he was weighing the cadence of words and measuring verses.

-WALSH.

STUPID, DULL.

Stupid, in Latin stupidus, from stupeo to be amazed or bewildered, expresses an amazement which is equivalent to a deprivation of understanding; dull, through the medium of the German toll, and Swedish stollig, comes from the Latin stultus simple or foolish, and denotes a simple deficiency. Stupidity in its proper sense is natural to a man, although a particular circumstance may have a similar effect upon the understanding; he who is questioned in the presence of standing; ne who is questioned in the presence of others may appear very stupid in that which is otherwise very familiar to him; 'A stupid butt is only fit for the conversation of ordinary people.'—Apprson. Dull is an incidental quality, arising principally from the state of the animal spirits. A writer may sometimes be dull who is otherwise vivacious and pointed; a person may be dull in a large circle while he is very lively in private intercourse; 'It is the great advantage of a trading nation that there are very few in it so dull and heavy who may not be placed in stations of life which may give them an opportunity of making their fortunes.'-Appison.

YOUTHFUL, JUVENILE, PUERILE.

Youthful signifies full of youth, or in the complete state of youth: juvenile, from the Latin juvenis, signifies the same; but puerile, from puer a boy, signifies literally boyish. Hence the first two terms are taken in an indifferent sense; but the latter in a bad sense, or at least always in the sense of what is suitable to a or at least arways in the sense of what is sultable to a boy only; thus we speak of youthful vigour, youthful the properties of youth in contrast with men, as sense when speaking of youth in contrast with men, as the state of the properties of th juvenile tricks; but puerile is a much stronger term of yavenue trias, our puerue is a initial stronger termior reproach, and marks the absence of manhood in those who ought to be men. We expect nothing from a youth but what is juverule; we are surprised and dissatisfied to see what is puerile in a man;

Chorebus then, with youthful hopes beguil'd, Swoln with success, and of a daring mind, This new invention fatally design'd.—DRYDEN.

'Raw juvenile writers imagine that, by pouring forth figures often, they render their compositions warm and animated.'--Blair. 'After the common course of puerile studies, he was put an apprentice to a brewer.' -JOHNSON.

CHILDISH, INFANTINE.

Childish is in the manner of a child; infantine is in

the manner of an infant.
What children do is frequently simple or feelish; repair infants do is commonly pretty and engaging;

therefore childish is taken in the bad, and infantine in the good or indifferent sense. Childish manners are very offensive in those who have ceased according to very one sive in mose who have ceased a coording to their years to be children; 'It may frequently be remarked of the studious and speculative, that they are proud of trifles, and that their amusements seem frivolous and children."—JOHNSON. The infantine actions of some children evince a simplicity of character; 'The sole comfort of his declining years, almost in infantine imbecility.'—Burke.

PENETRATION, ACUTENESS, SAGACITY.

As characteristicks of mind, these terms have much more in them in which they differ than in what they agree: penetration is a necessary property of mind; it exists to a greater or less degree in every rational being that has the due exercise of its rational powers: acuteness is an accidental property that belongs to the mind only, under certain circumstances. As penetration (v. Discernment) denotes the process of entering into substances physically or morally, so acuteness which is the same as sharpness, denotes the fitness of the thing that performs this process; and as the mind is in both cases the thing that is spoken of, the terms penetration and acuteness are in this particular closely allied. It is clear, however, that the mind may have penetration without having acuteness, although one cannot have acuteness without penetration. If by penetration we are commonly enabled to get at the truth which lies concealed, by acuteness we succeed in piercing the veil that hides it from our view; the former is therefore an ordinary and the letterer we in piercing the vert that moes it from our view; me former is, therefore, an ordinary, and the latter an extraordinary gift; 'Fairfax, having neither talents himself for cabal, now penetration to discover the cabals of others, had given his entire confidence to Cromwell.'—Hume. 'Chillingworth was an acute disputant against the papists.'-HUME.

Sagacity, in Latin sagacitas and sagio to perceive quickly, comes in all probability from the Persian sag a dog, whence the term has been peculiarly applied to dogs, and from thence extended to all brutes which discover an intuitive wisdom, and also to children, or uneducated persons, in whom there is more penetration than may be expected from the narrow compass of their knowledge; hence, properly speaking, sagacity is natural or uncultivated acuteness; 'Activity to seize, not sagacity to discern, is the requisite which youth value. BLAIR.

SAGE, SAGACIOUS, SAPIENT.

Sage and sagacious are variations from the Latin sagaz and sagio (v. Penetration); sapient is in Latin sapiens, from sapio, which comes probably from the Greek σοφός wise.

The first of these terms has a good sense, in application to men, to denote the faculty of discerning immediately, which is the fruit of experience, and very similar to that sagacity in brutes which instinctively perceives the truth of a thing without the deductions of reason;

So strange they will appear, but so it happen'd, That these most sage academicians sate In solemn consultation—on a cabbage.

Sagacious all to trace the smallest game, And bold to seize the greatest .- Young.

Sapient, which has very different meanings, in the original, is now employed only with regard to animals which are trained up to particular arts; its use is therefore mostly burlesque.

ACUTE, KEEN, SHREWD.

Acute, in French acute, Latin acutus, from acus a needle, signifies the quality of sharpness and pointed ness peculiar to a needle; keen, in Saxon cene, probably comes from sniden to cut; signifying the quality bany comes from snaden to cut; signifying the quality of being able to cut; shread, probably from the Teutonick beschreyen to enchant, signifies inspired or endowed with a strong portion of intuitive intellect. In the natural sense, a fitness to pierce is predominant in the word **sate; and that of cutting, or a fitness

in the midst of falschood; it fixes itself on a single point with wonderful celerity; 'His acuteness was most eminently signalized at the masquerade, where he discovered his acquaintance through their disguises with such wonderful facility.'—Johnson. A keen understanding cuts or removes away the artificial veil under which the truth lies hidden from the view;
'The village songs and festivities of Bacchus gave a
scope to the wildest extravagancies of mummery and grimace, mixed with coarse but keen raillery.'-BERLAND. A shrewd understanding is rather quick at discovering new truths, than at distinguishing truth from falsehood;

You statesmen are so shrewd in forming schemes! JEFFREY.

Acuteness is requisite in speculative and abstruse Acuteness is requisite in speculative and abstruse discussions; keenness in penetrating characters and springs of action; shrewdness in eliciting remarks and new ideas. The acute man detects errours, and the keen man falsehoods. The shrewd man exposes follies. Arguments may be acute, reproaches keen, and replies or retorts shrewd. A polemick, or a lawyer, must be acute, a satirist keen, and a wit shrewd.

SHARP, ACUTE, KEEN.

The general property expressed by these epithets is that of sharpness or an ability to cut. The term sharp, from the German scharf and scheren to cut, is generick and indefinite; the two others are modes of sharpness differing in the circumstance or the degree: the acute (v. Acute) is not only more than sharp in the common sense, but signifies also sharp pointed a knife may be sharp; but a needle is properly acute Things are sharp that have either a long or a pointed edge; but the keen is applicable only to the long edge; and that in the highest degree of sharpness; a common knife may be sharp; but a razor or a lancet are properly said to be keen. These terms preserve the same distinction in their figurative use. Every pain is sharp which may resemble that which is produced by cutting; Be sure you avoid as much as you can to inquire after those that have been sharp in their judgements towards me.'—EARL of STRAFFORD. A pain is acute when it resembles that produced by piercing deep;

Wisdom's eye

Acute for what? To spy more miseries .- Young. Words are keen when they cut deep and wide;

To this great end keen instinct stings bim on. YOUNG.

TO PENETRATE, PIERCE, PERFORATE, BORE.

Penetrate, v. Discernment; pierce, in French percer, comes probably from the Hebrew pro to break or rend; perforate, from the Latin foris a door, signifies to make a door through; bore, in Saxon borian, is probably changed from fore or foris a door, signifying to

make a door or passage.

To penetrate is simply to make an entrance into any and to bore are to go through, or at all events to perforate and to bore are to go through, or at all events to make a considerable hollow. To penetrate is a natural and gradual process; in this manner rust penetrates iron, water penetrates wood: to pierce is a violent, and commonly artificial, process; thus an arrow or a bullet pierces through wood. The instrument by which the act of penetration is performed is in no case defined but that of piercing commonly proceeds by some pointed instrument: we may penetrate the earth by means of a spade, a plough, a knife, or various other instruments; but one pierces the flesh by means of a needle, or one pierces the ground or a wall by means of a needle, or one pierces the ground or a wall by means of a mattock.

To perforate and bore are modes of piercing that vary in the circumstances of the action, and the objects acted upon: to pierce, in its peculiar use, is a sudden action by which a hollow is produced in any substance; but to perforate and bore are commonly the effect of mechanical art. The body of an animal is pierced by a dart; but cannon is made by perforating or boring

for cutting, in the word keen. The same difference is observable in their figurative acceptation.

An acute understanding is quick at discovering truth in the mistor falsehood; it fixes itself on a single point with wonderful celerity; 'His acuteness was most worken be in leather or in wood by the Romans.'—Gibbox. Holes are made in the ear by perforation; 'Mountains were perforated, and most rapid with wonderful celerity; 'His acuteness was most in leather or in wood by the Romans.'—Gibbox. Holes are made in leather, or in wood, by boring;

But Capys, and the graver sort, thought fit, The Greeks' suspected present to commit To seas or flames, at least to search or bore The sides, and what that space contains t'explore. DENHAM.

These last two words do not differ in sense, but in application; the latter being a term of vulgar use.

To penetrate and pierce are likewise employed in an improper sense; to perforate and bore are employed only in the proper sense. The first two bear the same relation to each other as in the former: penetrate is, however, only employed as the act of persons; piercs is used in regard to things. There is a power in the mind to penetrate the looks and actions, so as justly to interpret their meaning;

For if when dead we are but dust or clay, Why think of what posterity shall say? Their praise or censure cannot us concern, Nor ever penetrate the silent urn .- JENYNS.

The eye of the Almighty is said to pierce the thickest veil of darkness

Subtle as lightning, bright, and quick, and fierce, Gold through doors and walls did pierce COWLEY.

Affairs are sometimes involved in such mystery, that the most enlightened mind is unable to penetrate either the end or the beginning; the shrieks of distress are sometimes so loud as to seem to pierce the ear.

ORIFICE, PERFORATION.

Orifice, in Latin orificium or orificium, from os and factum, signifies a made mouth, that is, an opening made, as it were; perforation, in Latin perforatio, from perforo, signifies a piercing through.

These terms are both scientifically employed by medical men, to designate certain cavities in the human body; but the former respects that which is natural, the latter that which is artificial: all the vessels of the human body have their orifices, which are so constructed as to open or close of themselves. are so constructed as to open or close of themselves. Surgeons are frequently obliged to make perforations into the bones. Sometimes the term perforation may describe what comes from a natural process, but it denotes a cavity made through a solid substance; but the orifice is particularly applicable to such openings as most resemble the mouth in form and use. manner the words may be extended in their application to other bodies besides animal substances, and in other sciences besides anatomy; hence we speak of the orifice of atube, the orifice of any flower, and the like; or the perforation of a tree, by means of a cannon ball or an iron instrument.

OPENING, APERTURE, CAVITY.

Opening signifies in general any place left open, without defining any circumstances; the aperture is generally a specifick kind of opening which is considered scientifically: there are openings in a wood when the trees are partly cut away; openings in streets by the removal of houses; or openings in a fence that has been broken down;

The scented dew Betrays her early labyrinth, and deep In scattered sullen openings far behind, With every breeze she hears the coming storm. Thomson.

Anatomists speak of apertures in the skull or in the heart, and the naturalist describes the apertures in the nests of bees, ants, beavers, and the like; 'In less than nests of bees, ants, beavers, and he hate, 'In less than a minute he had thrust his little person through the aperture, and again and again perches upon his neighbour's cage.'—COWPER. The opening or aperture is the commencement of an enclosure; the cam'ty is the whole enclosure; hence the first two are frequently as a part to the whole: many animals make a cavity in the earth for their nest with only a small aperture for their egress and ingress; 'In the centre of every floor

from top to bottom in the chief room, of no great extent, round which there are narrow cavities or recesses.'—Johnson.

GULF, ABYSS.

Gulf, in Greek κόλπος from κοίλος hollow, is applied literally in the sense of a deep concave receptacle for water, as the gulf of Venice; abyss, in Greek abwoos, compounded of a privative and busses a bottom, signifies literally a bottomless pit.

One is overwhened in a gulf; it carries with it the idea of liquidity and profundity, into which one inevitably sinks never to rise: one is lost in an abyss; it carries with it the idea of immense profundity, into which he who is cast never reaches a bottom, nor is able to return to the top: an insatiable voracity is the

A gulf is a capacious bosom, which holds within itself and burries all objects that out to sink into it, without allowing them the possibility of escape; hell is represented as a fiery gulf, into which evil spirits are plunged, and remain perpetually over-whelmed: a guilty mind may be said, figuratively, to be plunged into a gulf of wo or despair, when filled with the horrid sense of its enormities;

Sin and death amain Following his track, such was the will of heav'n, Pav'd after him a broad and beaten way Over the dark abyss, whose boiling gulf Tamely endur'd a bridge of wondrous length, From hell continued.—Milton.

An abyss presents nothing but an interminable space. which has neither beginning nor end; he does wisely who does not venture in, or who retreats before he has plunged too deep to retrace his footsteps: as the ocean, in the natural sense, is a great ubyss, so are metaphysicks an immense abyss, into which the human mind precipitates itself only to be bewildered;

His broad wing'd vessel drinks the whelming tide, Hid in the bosom of the black abyss .- Thomson

LABYRINTH, MAZE.

Intricacy is common to both the objects expressed by these terms: but the term labyrinth has it to a much greater extent than maze; the labyrinth, from the Greek $\lambda a \beta \dot{\nu} \rho \iota \nu \partial \sigma_{\varsigma}$, was a work of antiquity which surpassed the maze in the same proportion as the ancients surpassed the moderns in all other works of art: it was constructed on so prodigious a scale, and with so many windings, that when a person was once entered, he could not find his way out without the assistance of a clue or thread. Maze, probably from the Saxon mase a gulf, is a modern term for a similar structure on a smaller scale, which is frequently made by way of ornament in large gardens. From the proper mean ing of the two words we may easily see the ground of their metapnorical application: political and poleunical discussions are comtained to a labyrinth; because the mind that is once entangled in them is unable to extricate itself by any efforts of its own;

From the slow mistress of this school, Experience, And her assistant, pausing, pale Distrust, Purchase a dear-bought clue to lead his youth

Through serpentine obliquities of human life, And the dark labyrinth of human hearts.—Young.

On the other hand, that perplexity and confusion into which the mind is thrown by unexpected or inexplicable events, is termed a maze; because, for the time, it is bereft of its power to pursue its ordinary functions of recollection and combination:

To measur'd notes, while they advance, He in wild maze shall lead the dance.

CUMBERLAND.

WONDER, ADMIRATION, SURPRISE, ASTONISHMENT, AMAZEMENT.

Wonder, in German wunder, is in all probability a variation of wander, because wonder throws the mind off its bias; admiration, from the Latin miror, and the Hebrew מראת vision, or looking at, signifies looking at attentively: surprise, compounded of sur and prize, or the Latin prehendo, signifies to take on a sudden;

astonish, from the Latin attonitus, and tonitru thunder, signifies to strike, as it were, with the overpowering noise of thunder; amaze signifies to be in a maze, so as not to be able to collect one's self.

so as not to be able to conect one's sent.
That particular feeling which any thing unusual produces on our minds is expressed by all these terms, but under various modifications. Wonder is the most indefinite in its signification or application, but it is still the least vivid sentiment of all; it amounts to lit tle more than a pausing of the mind, a suspension of the thinking faculty, an incapacity to fix on a discernible point in an object that rouses our curiosity: it is that state which all must experience at times, but none so much as those who are ignorant; they wonder at every thing because they know nothing; 'The reader of the "Seasons" wonders that he never saw before what Thomson shows him.'—Johnson. Admiration is wonder mixed with esteem or veneration; the admirer suspends his thoughts, not from the vacancy but the fulness of his mind: he is riveted to an object which for a time absorbs his faculties: nothing but what is great and good excites admiration, and none but cultivated minds are susceptible of it; an ignorant person cannot admire, because he cannot appreciate the value of any thing;

With eyes insatiate, and tumultuous joy, Beholds the presents, and admires the boy

Surprise and astonishment both arise from that which happens unexpectedly; they are a species of wonder differing in degree, and produced only by the events of life: the surprise, as its derivation implies, takes us unawares; we are surprised if that does not happen which we calculate upon, as the absence of a friend whom we conclude upon, as the ansence of a friend whom we looked for; or we are surprised if that hap-pens which we did not calculate upon; thus we are surprised to see a friend returned whom we supposed surprised to see a trient returned winning supposed was on his journey; astonishment may be awakened by similar events which are more unexpected and more unaccountable; thus we are astonished to find a friend at our house whom we had every reason to suppose was many hundred miles off; or we are astonished to hear that a person has got safely through a road which we conceived to be absolutely impussable; 'So little do we accustom ourselves to consider the effects of time, that things necessary and certain often surprise uslike unexpected contingencies.'—Johnson. 'I have often been astonished, considering that the mutual intercourse between the two countries (France and England) has lately been very great, to find how little you seem to know of us.'—BURKE.

Surprise may for a moment startle; astonishment may stupify and cause an entire suspension of the faculties; but amazement has also a mixture of perturbation. We may be surprised and astonished at things in which we have no particular interest: we are mostly amazed at that which immediately concerns us. may be surprised agreeably or otherwise; we may be astonished at that which is agreeable, although astonishment is not itself a pleasure; but we are amazed at that which happens contrary to our inclination. We are agreeably surprised to see our friends: we are astonished how we ever got through the difficulty: we are amazed at the sudden and unexpected events which have come upon us to our ruin. A man of experience will not have much to wonder at, for his observations will supply him with corresponding examples of whatever passes: a wise man will have but momentary surprises; as he has estimated the uncer-tainty of human life, few things of importance will happen contrary to his expectations: a generous mind will be astonished at gross instances of perfidy in others: there is no mind that may not sometimes be thrown into amazement at the awful dispensations of Providence:

Amazement seizes all; the general cry Proclaims Laocoon justly doom'd to die .- DRYDEN.

WONDER, MIRACLE, MARVEL, PRODIGY MONSTER.

Wonder is that which causes wonder (v. Wonder); miracle, in Latin miraculum, from mirror to wonder, has the same signification, signifying that which strikes the sense; marvel is a variation of miracle; prodigy in Latin prodigium, from prodigo, or procul and ago

to launch forth, signifies the thing launching forth; monster, in Latin monstrum, comes from monstro to point out, and moneo to advise or give notice; because among the Romans any unaccountable appearance was considered as an indication of some future event.

Wonders are natural; miracles are supernatural. The whole creation is full of wonders; the Bible contains an account of the miracles which happened in those days. Sometimes the term miracle or miraculous may be employed hyperbolically for what is exceedingly worderful;

Murder, though it have no tongue, will speak With most mirac'lous organ.—SHAKSPEARE.

Wonders are real; marvels are often fictitious; pro digies are extravagant and imaginary. Natural history is full of wonders ;

His wisdom such as once it did appear Three kingdoms wonder, and three kingdoms fear. DENHAM.

Travels abound in marvels or in marvellous stories, which are the inventions either of the artful or the ignorant and credulous: ancient history contains numberiess accounts of produces. Wonders are agreeable to the laws of nature; they are wonderful only as respects ourselves: monsters are violations of the laws of nature. The production of a tree from a grain of seed is a wonder; but the production of a culf with two heads is a monster;

Ill omens may the guilty tremble at, Make every accident a prodigy,
And monsters frame where nature never err'd.—Lee.

DISADVANTAGE, INJURY, HURT, DETRI-MENT, PREJUDICE.

Disadvantage implies the absence of an advantage (v. Advantage); injury, in Latin injuria, from jus, properly signifies what is contrary to right or justice, but extends in its sense to every loss or deficiency but extends in its sense to every loss or deficiency which is occasioned; hurt signifies in the northern languages beaten or wounded; detriment, in Latin detrimentum, from detritum and deterrere to wear away, signifies the effect of being worn out; prejudice, in the improper sense of the word (v. Bias), implies the ill which is supposed to result from prejudice.

The disadvantage is rather the absence of a good; the injury is a positive evil; the want of education may frequently be a disadvantage to a person by retarding his advancement; Even the greatest actions of a celebrated person labour under this disadvantage, that however surprising and extraordinary they may be, they are no more than what are expected from him be, they are no more than what are expected from him.'—ADDISON. The ill word of another may be an injury by depriving us of friends; 'The places were acquired by just title of victory, and therefore in keeping of them no injury was offered.'—Hayward. The disadvantage, therefore, is applied to such things as are of an adventitious nature: the injury to that which is of essential importance. The hurt, detriment, and prejudice are all species of injuries. Injury, in general, implies whatever ill befalls an object by the external action of other objects, whether taken in relation to physical or moral evil to persons or to things; hurt is that species of injury which is produced by more distance. that species of injury which is produced by more direct violence; too close application to study is inju-rious to the health; reading by an improper light is hurtful to the eyes: so in a moral sense, the light read-ing which a circulating library supplies is often injurious to the morals of young people; 'Our repentance is not real, because we have not done what we can to undo our faults, or at least to hinder the injurious consequences of them from proceeding. —Tillorson. All violent affections are hurtful to the mind; 'The number of those who by abstracted thoughts become useless is inconsiderable, in respect of them who are hurtful to mankind by an active and restless disposition.'—BARTLETT. The detriment and prejudice are species of injury which affect only the outward circumstances of a person; the former implying what may lessen the value of an object, the latter what may lower it in the esteem of others. Whatever affects the stability of a merchant's credit is highly derivental to his interests; 'In many instances we clearly perceive that more or less knowledge dispensed to man would have proved detrimental to his state '- BLAIR.

Whatever is prejudicial to the character of a man should not be made the subject of indiscriminate conversation: 'That the heathen have spoken things to the same sense of this saying of our Saviour is so far from being any prejudice to this saying, that it is a great commendation of it.'—Tillotsus.

It is prudent to conceal that which will be to our It is prudent to conceal that which will be to our disadvantage unless we are called upon to make the acknowledgment. There is nothing material that is not exposed to the injuries of time, if not to those of actual violence. Excesses of every kind carry their own punishment with them, for they are always hartful to the body. The price of a book is often detrimental to its sale. The intemperate zeal, or the inconsistent conduct of religious professors is highly prejudicial to the spread of religion.

TO LOSE, MISS.

Lose, in all probability, is but a variation of loose,

Lose, in an probability, is but a variation of loses, because what gets loses or away from a person is lost to him; to miss, probably from the particle mis, implying a defect, signifies to lose by mistake.

What is lost is not at hand: what is missing is not to be seen; it does not depend upon ourselves to recover what is lost; it is supposed to be irrevocably gone; what we miss at one time we may by diligence. and care recover at another time. A person loses his health and strength by a decay of nature, and must submit patiently to the loss which cannot be repaired;
'Some ants are so unfortunate as to fall down with
their load when they almost come home; when this
happens they seldom lose their corn, but carry it up again.—Addison. If a person misses the opportunity of improvement in his youth, he will never have another opportunity that is equally good;

For a time caught up to God, as once Moses was in the mount, and missing long MILTON

LOSS, DAMAGE, DETRIMENT.

Loss signifies the act of losing or the thing lost; damage, in French dommage, Latin damnum, from demo to take away, signifies the thing taken away; detriment, v. Disadvantageous.

Loss is here the generick term; damage and detri-ment are species or modes of loss. The person sus-tains the loss, the thing suffers the damage or detriment. Whatever is gone from us which we wish to retain is a loss; hence we may sustain a loss in our property, in our reputation, in our influence, in our intellect, and every other object of possession; 'What trader would purchase such airy satisfaction (as the charms of conversation) by the loss of solid gain.'—
Johnson. Whatever renders an object less service able or valuable, by any external violence, is a damage; as a vessel suffers a damage in a storm; 'The ants were still troubled with the rain, and the next day they took a world of pains to repair the damage. Addison. Whatever is calculated to cross a man's purpose is a detriment; the bare want of a good name may be a detriment to a young tradesman; the want of pru-dence is always a great detriment to the prosperity of a family; 'The expenditure should be with the least possible detriment to the morals of those who expend.' BURKE.

INJURY, DAMAGE, HURT, HARM, MISCHIEF.

The idea of making a thing otherwise than it ought is common to these terms. Injury (v. Disadvantage) is the most general term, simply implying what hapis the most general term, simply implying what hap-pens contrary to right; the rest are but modes of in-jury: damage, from the Latin damnum loss, is the injury which takes away from the value of a thing: hurt (v. Disadvantage) is the injury which destroys the soundness or wholeness of a thing: hurm (v. Evil is the injury which is attended with trouble and inconis the injury which is attended with trouble and inconvenience: mischief is the injury which interrupts the order and consistency of things. The injury is applicable to all bodies physical and moral: damage is applicable only to physical bodies. Trade may suffer an injury; a building may suffer an injury; but a building, a vessel, a merchandise, suffers damage. When applied both to physical bodies, the injury comprehends every thing which makes an object otherwise

than it ought to be: that is to say, all collateral circumstances which are connected with the end and purpose of things; but damage implies that actual injury which affects the structure and materials of the object the situation of some buildings is an *injury* to them; the falling of a chimney, or the breaking of a roof, is a damage: the injury may not be easily removed; the damage may be easily repaired.

aamage may be easily repaired.

Injury and hurt are both applied to persons; but the injury may either affect their bodies, their circumstances, or their minds; the hurt in its proper sense affects only their bodies. We may receive an injury or a hurt by a fall; but the former is employed when the health or spirits of a person suffer, the latter when any fracture or wound is produced. A person sometimes sustains an injury from a fall, either by losing the use of a limb, or by the deprivation of his senses; 'Great injuries mice and rats do in a field,'—MORTI-MER. A sprain, a cut, and a bruise are little hurts which are easily cured;

No plough shall hurt the glebe, no pruning hook the vine .- DRYDEN.

The hurt is sometimes figuratively employed as it respects the circumstances of a man, where the idea of inflicting a wound or a pain is implied; as in hurting a man's good name, hurting his reputation, hurting his morals, and other such cases, in which the specifick term hurt may be substituted for the general term injury;

In arms and science 't is the same, Our rival's hurt creates our fame.-PRIOR.

The injury, harm, and mischief are all employed for the circumstances of either things or men; but the injury comprehends cause and effect; the harm and mischief respect the evil as it is. If we say that the injury is done, we always think of either the agent by which it is done, or the object to which it is done, or both; 'Many times we do injury to a cause by dwelling upon trifling arguments.'—WATTS. When we speak of the harm and mischief, we only think of the nature and measure of the one or the other. It is an injury to society to let publick offenders go free; injury to society to let publick offenders go free; young people do not always consider the harm which there may be in some of their most imprudent actions; 'After their young are hatched, they brood them under their wings, lest the cold, and sometimes the heat, should harm them.'—RAy. The mischief of disseminating free principles among the young and the ignostration of the property of the cold of the second property of the cold of the second property of the cold of the second property of the second rant has now been found to exceed all the good which might result from the superiour cultivation of the numan mind, and the more extended diffusion of knowledge;

But furious Dido, with dark thoughts involv'd, Shook at the mighty mischief she resolv'd.—DRYDEN.

TO IMPAIR, INJURE.

Impair comes from the Latin im and pejoro or pejor worse, signifying to make worse; injure, from in and jus against right, signifies to make otherwise than it

ought to be.

Impair seems to be in regard to injure as the species Impair seems to be in regard to injure as the species to the genus; what is impaired is injured, but what is injured is not necessarily impaired. To impair is a progressive mode of injuring: an injury may take place either by degrees, or by an instantaneous act; straining of the eyes impairs the sight, but a blow information that it is a small chealth. jures rather than impairs the eye. A man's health may be impaired or injured by his vices, but his limbs are injured rather than impaired by a fall. A person's circumstances are impaired by a succession of misfortimes; they are injured by a sudden turn of fortune. The same distinction is preserved in their figurative application; 'It is painful to consider that this sublime enjoyment of friendship may be impaired by innumerable causes.'-Johnson.

Who lives to nature rarely can be poor. O what a patrimony this! a being Of such inherent strength and majesty, Not worlds possess'd can raise it; worlds destroy'd Can't injure .- Young.

IMMINENT, IMPENDING, THREATENING.

Imminent, in Latin imminens, from in and maneo to *emain, signifies resting or coming upon; impending, The evil which befalls a man is opposed only to the

from the Latin pendeo to hang, signifies hanging; threatening is used in the sense of the verb threaten.

All these terms are used in regard to some evil that is exceedingly near: imminent conveys no idea of duration; impending excludes the idea of what is momentary. A person may be in imminent danger of losing his life in one instant, and the danger may be over the next instant: but an impending danger is that which has been long in existence, and gradually approaching; 'There was an opinion, if we may believe the Spanish historians, almost universal among the Americans, that some dreadful calamity was impend-ing over their heads.'—ROBERTSON. We can seldom ing over their heads.'—Robertson. We can seldom escape imminent danger by any efforts of one's own; but we may be successfully warned to escape from an impending danger. Imminent and impending are said of dangers that are not discoverable; but a threatening evil gives intimations of its own approach; we perceive the threatening tempest in the blackness of the sky; we hear the threatening sounds of the enemy's clashing swords; 'The threatening voice and fierce gestures with which these words were uttered, struck Montezuma. He saw his own danger was imminent, the necessity unavoidable.'—Robertson.

THREAT, MENACE.

Threat is of Saxon origin; menace is of Latin ex-They do not differ in signification; but, as is traction. They do not unler in signification; but, as is frequently the case, the Saxon is the familiar term, and the Latin word is employed only in the higher style. We may be threatened with either small or great evils; but we are menaced only with great evils. One individual threatens to strike another: a general menaces the enemy with an attack. We are threatened by things as well as persons: we are menaced by persons only; a person is threatened with a look; he is menaced with a prosecution by his adversary;

By turns put on the suppliant and the lord; Threaten'd this moment, and the next implor'd. PRIOR.

Of the sharp axe Regardless, that o'er his devoted head

EVIL OR ILL, MISFORTUNE, HARM, MISCHIEF.

Evil in its full sense comprehends every quality which is not good, and consequently the other terms

express only modifications of evil.

Hangs menacing .- SomeRville.

The word is however more limited in its application than its meaning, and admits therefore of a just com-parison with the other words here mentioned. They are all taken in the sense of evils produced by some external cause, or evils inherent in the object and arising out of it. The evil, or, in its contracted form, the ing out of it. The evil, or, in its contracted form, the ill, befalls a person; the misfortune comes upon him; the harm is taken, or he receives the harm; the mis-chief is done him. Evil in its limited application is taken for evils of the greatest magnitude; it is that which is evil without any mitigation or qualification of circumstances. The misfortune is a minor evil; it depends upon the opinion and circumstances of the individual; what is a misfortune in one respect may be the contrary in another respect. An untimely death, the fracture or loss of a limb, are denominated evils: the loss of a vessel, the overturning of a carriage, and the like, are misfortunes, inasmuch as they tend to the diminution of property; but as all the casualties of life may produce various consequences, it may sometimes happen that that which seems to have come upon us by our ill fortune turns out ultimately of the greatest benefit; in this respect, therefore, the misfortune is but a partial evil: of evil it is likewise observable, that it has no respect to the sufferer as a moral agent, but misfortune is used in regard to such things as are controllable or otherwise by human foresight;

Misfortune stands with her bow ever bent Over the world; and he who wounds another, Directs the goddess by that part where he wounds There to strike deep her arrows in himself

good which he in general experiences; but the misfortune is opposed to the good fortune or the prudence of the individual. Sickness is an evil, let it be endured or caused by whatever circumstances it may; misfortune for an individual to come in the way of having this evil brought on himself: his own relative condition in the scale of being is here referred to.

The harm and mischief are species of minor evils; the former of which is much less specifick than the latter, both in the nature and cause of the evil. A person takes harm from circumstances that are not known; the mischief is done to him from some positive and immediate circumstance. He who takes cold takes harm; the cause of which, however, may not be known or suspected: a fall from a horse is attended with mischief, if it occasion a fracture or any evil to the body. Evil and misfortune respect persons only as the objects, harm and mischief are said of inanimate things as the object. A tender plant takes harm from being exposed to the cold air; mischief is done to it when its branches are violently broken off or its roots

Misfortune is the incidental property of persons who are its involuntary subjects; but evil, harm, and mischief are the inherent and active properties of things that flow out of them as effects from their tangs that how out of them as eners from their causes: evil is said either to lie in a thing or attend it as a companion or follower; 'A misery is not to be measured from the nature of the evil, but from the temper of the sufferer.'-Addison. Harm properly

lies in the thing;

To me the labours of the field resign; Me Paris injured; all the war be mine. Fall he that must beneath his rival's arms, And leave the rest secure of future harms

Mischief properly attends the thing as a consequence;

To mourn a mischief that is past and gone, Is the next way to draw new mischief on. Shakspeare.

In political revolutions there is evil in the thing and evil from the thing; evil when it begins, evil when it ends, and evil long after it has ceased;

Yet think not thus, when freedom's ills I state, I mean to flatter kings or court the great.

GOLDSMITH. It is a dangerous question for any young person to put to himself—what harm is there in this or that indul-gence? He who is disposed to put this question to himself will not hesitate to answer it according to his own wishes. The mischiefs which arise from the unskilfulness of those who undertake to be their own coachinen are of so serious a nature, that in course of time they will probably deter men from performing such unsuitable offices.

HURTFUL, PERNICIOUS, NOXIOUS, NOISOME.

Hurtful signifies full of hurt, or causing much hurt; pernicious, v. Destructive; noxious and noisome, from the Latin noxius and noceo to hurt, signifies the same originally as hurtful.

Between hurtful and pernicious there is the same distinction as between hurting and destroying: that which is hurtful may hurt in various ways;

The hurtful hazel in thy vineyard shun.

DRYDEN.

'That which is pernicious necessarily tends to destruction: confinement is hurtful to the health: bad company is pernicious to the morals; or the doctrines of freethinkers are pernicious to the well-being of society

Of strength, pernicious to myself, I boast, The powers I have were given me to my cost. LEWIS.

Noxious and noisome are species of the hurtful: things may be hurtful both to body and mind; noxious and noisome only to the body: that which is noxious inflicts a direct injury;

The serpent, subtlest beast of all the field, Of huge extent sometimes, with brazen eyes; And hairy mane, terrifick, though to thee Not noxious, but obedient at thy call.

That which is noisome inflicts the injury indirectly: noxious insects are such as wound; noisome vapours are such as tend to create disorders;

The only prison that enslaves the soul Is the dark habitation, where she dwells As in a noisome dungeon.—Bellingham.

Ireland is said to be free from every noxious weed or animal; where filth is brought together, there will always be noisone smells.

CALAMITY, DISASTER, MISFORTUNE MISCHANCE, MISHAP.

Calamity, in French calamité, Latin calamitas, from calamus a stalk; because hail or whatever injured the stalks of corn was termed a calamity; disaster, in French désastre, is compounded of the privative des or dis and astre, in Latin astrum a star, signifying what came from the adverse influence of the stars; misfortune, mischance, and mishap naturally express what comes amiss.

The idea of a painful event is common to all these terms, but they differ in the degree of importance.

A calamity is a great disaster or misfortune; a mis fortune a great mischance or mishap: whatever is attended with destruction is a calamity; whatever attended with destruction is a catainty; whilever occasions mischief to the person, defeats or interrupts plans, is a disaster; whatever is accompanied with a loss of property, or the deprivation of health, is a misfortune; whatever diminishes the beauty or utility of objects is a mischance or mishap: the devastation of a country by hurricanes or earthquakes, or the desolation of its inhabitants by famine or plague, are great calamities; the overturning of a carriage, and the fracture of a limb, are disasters; losses in trade are mis-fortunes; the spoiling of a book is, to a greater or less extent, a mischance or mishap.

A calamity seldom arises from the direct agency of

man; the elements, or the natural course of things are mostly concerned in producing this source of misery to men; the rest may be ascribed to chance, as distinguished from design; 'They observed that as distinguished from design; They observed that several blessings had degenerated into calamities, and that several calamities had improved into blessings, according as they fell into the possession of wise or foolish men.—Addition. Disasters mostly arise from some specifick known cause, either the carelessness of persons, or the unfitness of things for their use; as they generally serve to derange some preconcerted scheme or undertaking, they seem as if they were produced by some secret influence;

There in his noisy mansion, skill'd to rule, The village master taught his little school: A man severe he was, and stern to view, I knew him well, and every truant knew. Well had the boding tremblers learn'd to trace The day's disasters in his morning face.

Goldsmith.

Misfortune is frequently assignable to no specifick Misjortune is frequently assignable to no specifick cause, it is the bad fortune of an individual; a link in the chain of his destiny; an evil independent of himself, as distinguished from a fault; 'She daily exercises her benevolence by pitying every misjortune that happens to every family within her circle of notice.'—Johnson. Mischance and mishap are misfortunes of comparatively so trivial a nature, that it would not be worth while to inquire into their cause, or to dwell upon their consequences: or to dwell upon their consequences;

Permit thy daughter, gracious Jove, to tell, How this mischance the Cyprian queen befell.

For pity's sake tells undeserv'd mishaps, And their applause to gain, recounts his claps. CHURCHILL.

A calamity is dreadful; a disaster melancholy; a misfortune grievous or heavy; a mischance or mishap slight or trivial.

A calamity is either publick or private, but more frequently the former: a disaster is rather particular than private; it affects things rather than persons; journeys. expeditions, and military movements are commonly

attended with **sasters: misfortunes are altogether personal; they immediately affect the interests of the individual: **mischances and miskaps are altogether domestick. We speak of a calamitous period, a **disastrous expedition, an unfortunate person, little mischances or mishaps.

ADVERSITY, DISTRESS.

Adversity, v. Adverse; distress, from the Latin distringo, compounded of distwice, and stringo to bind, signifies that which binds very tight, or brings into a Preal strait.

Adversity respects external circumstances; distress regards either external circumstances or inward feelings. Adversity is opposed to prosperity; distress to ease.

Adversity is a general condition, distress a particular state. Distress is properly the highest degree of adversity. When a man's affairs go altogether adverse to his wishes and hopes, when accidents deprive him of his possessions or blast his prospects, he is said to be in adversity; 'The other extreme which these considerations should arm the heart of a man against, is utter despondency of mind in a time of pressing adversity.'—SOUTH. When a man is reduced to a state of want, deprived of friends and all prospect of relief, his situation is that of real distress; 'Moet men, who are at length delivered from any great distress, indeed, find that they are so by ways they never thought of.'—SOUTH.

thought of?—South.

Adversity is trying, distress is overwhelming.

Every man is liable to adversity, although few are reduced to distress but by their own fault.

DISTRESS, ANXIETY, ANGUISH, AGONY.

Distress, v. Adversity; anxiety, in French anxieté, and anguish, in French angoisse, both come from the Latin ango, anxi to strangle; agony, in French agonie, Latin agonia, Greek ἀγωνία, from ἀγωνίζω to contend or strive, signifies a severe struggle with pain and suffering.

Distress is the pain felt when in a strait from which we see no means of extricating ourselves; anxiety is that pain which one feels on the prospect of an evil. The distress always depends upon some outward cause; the anxiety often lies in the imagination. The distress is produced by the present, but not always immediate, evil;

How many, rack'd with honest passions, droop In deep fetir'd distress! How many stand Around the death-bed of their dearest friends, And point the parting anguish.—Thomson.

The anxiety respects that which is future; 'If you have any affection for me, let not your anxiety, on my account, injure your health'—MELMOTH (Letters of Cicero). Anguish arises from the reflection on the evil that is past; 'In the anguish of his heart, Adam expostulates with his Creator for having given him an unasked existence.'—Addison. Agony springs from witnessing that which is immediate or before the eye;

These are the charming agonies of love, Whose misery delights. But through the heart Should jealousy its venom once diffuse, 'T is then delightful misery no more,

But agony unmixed.—Thomson.

Distress is not peculiar to any age, where there is a consciousness of good and evil, pain and pleasure; it will inevitably arise from some circumstance or another. Anxiety, anguish, and agony belong to riper years: infancy and childhood are deemed the happy periods of human existence; because they are exempt from the anxieties attendant on every one who has a station to fill, and duties to discharge. Anguish and agony are species of distress, of the severer kind, which spring altogether from the maturity of reflection, and the full consciousness of evil. A child is in distress when it loses its mother, and the mother is also in distress when it loses its mother, and the mother is also in distress when it loses its mother, and the mother for ductive, not only of distress, but anxiety, anguish, and agony: the mother has her peculiar anxieties for the child, while rearing it in its infant state; the father has his anxiety for its welfare on its entrance into the has his anxiety for its welfare on its entrance into

world: they both suffer the deepest anguish when the child disappoints their dearest hopes, by running a career of vice, and finishing its wicked course by an untimely, and sometimes ignominious, end: not unfrequently they are doomed to suffer the agony of seeing a child encircled in flames from which he cannot be snatched, or sinking into a watery grave from which he cannot be rescued.

TO DISTRESS, HARASS, PERPLEX.

Distress, v. Distress; harass, in French harasser probably from the Greek ἀράσσω to beat; perplez, in Latın perplezus, participle of perplector, compounded of per and plector, signifies to wind round and entangle.

A person is distressed either in his outward circumstances or his feelings; he is harassed mentally or corporeally; he is perplexed in his understanding, more than in his feelings: a deprivation distresses; provocations and hostile measures harass; stratagems and ambiguous measures perplex: a besieged town is distressed by the cutting off its resources of water and provisions;

O friend! Ulysses' shouts invade my ear;
Distress'd he seems, and no assistance near.

The besieged in a town are harassed by perpetual attacks; 'Persons who have been long harassed with business and care, sometimes imagine that when life declines, they cannot make their retirement from the world too complete.'—BLAIR. The besiegers of a town are sometimes perplexed in all their manœuvres and plans, by the counter-manœuvres and contrivances of their opponents; or a person is perplexed by the contradictory points of view in which an affair appears to him; a tale of wo distresses: continual alarms and incessant labour harass; unexpected obstacles and inextricable difficulties perplex;

Would being end with our expiring breath, How soon misfortunes would be puff'd away! A trifling shock can shiver us to the dust, But th' existence of the immortal soul, Futurity's dark road perplexes still.—Gentleman.

We are distressed and perplexed by circumstances; we are harassed altogether by persons, or the intentional efforts of others: we may relieve another in distress, or may remove a perplexity; but the harassing ceases only with the cause which gave rise to it.

PAIN, PANG, AGONY, ANGUISH.

Pain is to be traced, through the French and northern languages, to the Latin and Greek mown junishment, nowe shour, and notopa. To be poor or in trouble. Pang is but a variation of pain, contracted from the Teutonick peinigen to torment; agony comes from the Greek dywn/Ko to struggle or connend, signifying the labour or pain of a struggle; anguish comes from the Latin ango, contracted from ante and ago, to act against, or in direct opposition to, and signifies the pain arising from severe pressure.

pain arising from severe pressure.

Pain, which expresses the feeling that is most repugnant to the nature of all sensible beings, is here the generick, and the rest specifick terms: pain and agony are applied indiscriminately to what is physical and mental; pang and anguish mostly respect that which is mental: pain signifies either an individual feeling or a permanent state; pang is only a particular feeling; agony is sometimes employed for the individual feeling, but more commonly for the state; anguish is always employed for the state. Pain is indefinite with regard to the degree; it may rise to the highest, or sink to the lowest possible degree; the rest are positively high degrees of pain; the pang is a sharp pain; the agony is a severe and permanent pain; the anguish is an overwhelming paan.

The causes of pain are as various as the modes of pain, or as the circumstances of sensible beings; it attends disease, want, and sin, in an infinite variety of forms; 'We should pass on from crime to crime, heedless and remorseless, if misery did not stand in our way, and our own pains admonish us of our folly.'

—Johnson. The pangs of conscience frequently trouble the man who is not yet hardened in guilt: the

pangs of disappointed love are among the severest to consolation and surest supports. The assistance and be borne:

| value |

What pangs the tender breast of Dido tore!

DRYDEN.

Agony and anguish are produced by violent causes and disease in its most terrible shape: wounds and torments naturally produce corporeal agony; a guilty conscience that is awakened to a sense of guilt will suffer mental agony;

Thou shalt behold him stretch'd in all the agonies Of a tormenting and a shameful death.-OTWAY.

Anguish arises altogether from moral causes; the miseries and distresses of others, particularly of those who are nearly related, are most calculated to excite anguish; a mother suffers anguish when she sees her child labouring under severe pain, or in danger of losing its life, without having the power to relieve it;

Are these the parting pangs which nature feels, When anguish rends the heart-strings?—Rows.

TORMENT, TORTURE.

Torment (v. To tease) and torture both come from torqueo to twist, and express the agony which ari from a violent twisting or griping of any part; but the latter, which is more immediately derived from the verb, expresses much greater violence and consequent pain than the former. Torture is an excess of torment.

We may be tormented by a variety of indirect means; but we are tortured only by the direct means of the rack, or similar instruments. Torment may be permanent: torture is only for a time, or on certain occasions. It is related in history that a person was once tormented to death, by a violent and incessant beating of drums in his prison: the Indians practise every species of torture upon their prisoners. A guilty conscience may torment a man all his life;

Yet in his empire o'er thy abject breast, His flames and torments only are express'd .- PRIOR.

The horrours of an awakened conscience are a torture to one who is on his death-bed;

To a wild sonnet or a wanton air, Offence and torture to a sober ear .- PRIOR.

TO AFFLICT, DISTRESS, TROUBLE.

Afflict, in Latin afflictus, participle of affligo, compounded of af or ad and fligo, in Greek $\theta \lambda i \beta \omega$ to press hard, signifies to bear upon any one; distress, v. Adversity; trouble signifies to cause a tumult, from the Latin turba, Greek τύρβη or θόρυβος a tumuit.

When these terms relate to outward circumstances, the first expresses more than the second, and the second

more than the third.

People are afflicted with grievous maladies;

A melancholy tear afflicts my eye,

And my heart labours with a sudden sigh .- PRIOR.

The mariner is distressed for want of water in the midst of the wide ocean, or an embarrassed tradesman is distressed for money to maintain his credit;

I often did beguile her of her tears,

When I did speak of some distressful stroke,

That my youth suffered .- SHAKSPEARE.

The mechanick is troubled for want of proper tools, or the head of a family for want of good domesticks;

The boy so troubles me. 'T is past enduring .- SHAKSPEARE.

When they respect the inward feelings, afflict conveys the idea of deep sorrow: distress that of sorrow mixed with anxiety; trouble that of pain in a smaller degree. The death of a parent afficies; 'We last night received a piece of ill news at our club which night received a piece of ill news at our club which very sensibly afflicted every one of us. I question not but my readers themselves will be troubled at the hearing of it. To keep them no longer in suspense, Sir Roger de Coverly is dead?—Addison. The misfortunes of our family and friends distress; 'While the mind contemplates distress, it is acted upon and never acts, and by indulging in this contemplation it becomes more and more unfit for action?—Craic. Crosses in trade and domestick inconveniences trouble. In the season of affliction, mayer affling the heat In the season of affliction prayer affords the best

sympathy of friends serve to relieve distress. We may often help ourselves out of our troubles, and remove the evil by patience and perseverance.

Afflictions may be turned to benefits if they lead a man to turn inwardly into himself, and examine the state of his heart and conscience in the sight of his Maker. The distresses of human life often serve only to enhance the value of our pleasures when we regain them. Among the troubles with which we are daily assailed, many of them are too trifling for us to be troubled by them.

AFFLICTION, GRIEF, SORROW.

Affliction, v. To afflict; grief, from grieve, in German gramen, Swedish gramga, &c.; sorrow, in German sorge, &c. signifies care, as well as sorrow.

All these words mark a state of suffering which differs either in the degree or the cause, or in both.

Affliction is much stronger than grief, it lies deeper in the soul, and arises from a more powerful cause; the loss of what is most dear, the continued sickness of our friends, or a reverse of fortune, will all cause affliction; 'Some virtues and some in prosperity.'—Addison. The misiortunes and some in prosperity.'—Addison. The misiortunes of others, the failure of our favourite schemes, the of others, the failure of our favourite will occasion us grief; 'The affliction; 'Some virtues are only seen in affliction, and some in prosperity.'—Appropri. The misjoitunes troubles of our country, will occasion us grief; The melancholy silence that follows hereupon, and continues until he has recovered himself enough to reveal

that is inexpressible.'—Addison the spectators a grief that is inexpressible.'—Addison.

Sorrow is less than grief; it arises from the untoward circumstances which perpetually arise in life. A disappointment, the loss of a game, our own mistake, or the negligences of others, cause sorrow. If more springs objects, awayers, correct the feeling is less. serious objects awaken sorrow, the feeling is less poignant than that of grief; 'The most agreeable objects recall the sorrow for her with whom he used

to enjoy them.'-Addison.

Affliction lies too deep to be vehement; it discovers itself by no striking marks in the exteriour: it is lasting and does not cease when the external cause ceases to act; grief may be violent, and discover itself by loud and indecorous signs; it is transitory, and ceases even before the cause which gave birth to it; sorrow discovers itself by a simple expression; it is still more transient than grief, not existing beyond the moment in which it is produced.

A person of a tender mind is afflicted at the remembrance of his sins; he is grieved at the consciousness of his fallibility and proneness to errour; he is sorry

for the faults which he has committed.

Affliction is allayed; grief subsides; sorrow in soothed.

TO GRIEVE, MOURN, LAMENT.

Grieve, v. Affliction; mourn, like moan and murmur, is probably but an imitation of the sound which is produced by pain.

To grieve is the general term; mourn the particular term. To grieve, in its limited sense, is an inward act; to mourn is an outward act: the grief lies altogether in the mind; the mourning displays itself by some outward mark. A man grieves for his sins; he mourns for the loss of his friends. One grieves for that which immediately concerns one's self;

Achates, the companion of his breast,

Goes grieving by his side, with equal cares oppress'd.

One mourns for that which concerns others;

My brother's friends and daughters left behind, False to them all, to Paris only kind; For this I mourn till grief or dire disease Shall waste the form whose crime it was to please.

One grieves over the loss of property; one mourns the fate of a deceased relative.

Grieve is the act of an individual; mourn may be Grieve is the act of an individual; mourn may be the common act of many; a nation mourns, though it does not grieve, for a publick calamity. To grieve is applicable to domestick troubles; mourn may refer to publick or private ills. Every good Frenchman has had occasion to grieve for the loss of that which is immediately dear to himself, and to mourn over the misfortunes which have overwhelmed his country.

Grieve and mourn are permanent sentiments: la

ment (v. To bewait) is a transitory feeling: the former produced by substantial causes, which come home to the feelings; the latter respects things of a more partial, oftentimes of a more remote and indifferent, na-ture. A real widow mourns all the remainder of her days for the loss of her husband; we lament a thing to-day which we may forget to-morrow. Mourn and lament are both expressed by some outward sign: but the former is composed and free from all noise; the latter displays itself either in cries or simple words;

So close in poplar shades, her children gone, The mother nightingale laments alone .- DRYDEN.

In the moment of trouble, when the distress of the mind is at its height, it may break out into loud lamentation; but commonly griving and mourning commence when lamentation ceases.

When tamentation ceases.

As epithets, grievous, mournful, and lamentable have a similar distinction. What presses hard on persons, their property, connexions, and circumstances, is grievous; what touches the tender feelings, and tears as under the ties of kindred and friendship, is mournful; whatever excites a painful sensation in our minds is lamentable. Famine is a grievous calamity for a nation; the violent separation of friends by death is a mournful event at all times, but particularly so for those who are in the prime of life and the fulness of expectation; the ignorance which some persons of expectation; the ignorance which some persons discover even in the present cultivated state of society is truly lamentable. Grievous misfortunes come but seldom, although they sometimes fall thickly on an individual; a mournful tale excites our pity from the persuasion of its veracity; but lamentable stories are often fabricated for sinister purposes.

GRIEVANCE, HARDSHIP.

Grievance, from the Latin gravis, heavy or burdensome, implies that which lies heavy at heart; hard-ship, from the adjective hard, denotes that which presses or bears violently on the person.

Grievance is in general taken for that which is done by another to grieve or distress: hardship is a par-ticular kind of grievance, that presses upon indivi-duals. There are national grievances, though not

national hardships.

An infraction of one's rights, an act of violence or oppression, are grievances to those who are exposed to them, whether as individuals or bodies of men: an unequal distribution of labour, a partial indulgence of one to the detriment of another, constitute the hard-ship. A weight of taxes levied by an unthinking government, will be esteemed a grievance; the partiality and caprice of tax gatherers or subordinates in office in making it fall with unequal weight upon particular persons will be regarded as a peculiar hardship. seck a redress of their grievances from some higher power than that by which they are afflicted: they endure their *kardships* until an opportunity offers of getting them removed; 'It is better private men should have some injustice done them, than a publick griev-ance should not be redressed. This is usually pleaded in defence of all those hardships which fall on particular persons, in particular occasions which could not be foreseen when the law was made.'—Spectator.

TO COMPLAIN, LAMENT, REGRET.

Complain, in French complaindre or plaindre, Latin

Complain, in French complaindre or plaindre, Latin plangs to beat the breast as a sign of grief, in Greek πλήγω to beat, lament, v. To bewait; regret; compounded of re privative and gratus grateful, signifies to have a feeling the reverse of pleasant.

Complaint marks most of dissatisfaction; lamentation most of regret; regret most of pain. Complaint is expressed verbally; lamentation either by words or signs; regret may be felt without being expressed. Complaint is made of personal grievances; lamentation and regret may be made on account of others as well as ourselyes. We complain of our ill health. of well as ourselves. We complain of our ill health, of our inconveniences, or of troublesome circumstances; we liment our inability to serve another; we regret the absence of one whom we love. Selfish people have the most to complain of, as they demand the most of others, and are most liable to be disappointed;

anxious people are the most liable to lament, as they feel every thing strongly; the best regulated mind may have occasion to regret some circumstances which give pain to the tender affections of the heart.

pain to the tender affections of the heart. The folly of complaint has ever been the theme of moralists in all ages; it has always been regarded as the author and magnifier of evils; it dwells on little things until they become great; 'We all of us complain of the shortness of time, saith Seneca, and yet have much more than we know what to do with.'—

I amentative are not wiser though ween. Addison. Lamentations are not wiser though more excusable, especially if we lament over the mistortunes of others; 'Surely to dread the future is more reasonable than to lament the past.'—Johnson. Regret is frequently tender, and always moderate; hence it is allowable to mortals who are encompassed with troubles to indulge in regret; 'Regret is useful and virtuous when it tends to the amendment of life.'—John-We may complain without any cause, and lament beyond what the cause requires; but regret will always be founded on some real cause, and not exceed the cause in degree. It would be idle for a man- to complain of his want of education, or lument over the errours and misfortunes of his youth; but he can never look back upon mispent time without sincere regret.

TO COMPLAIN, MURMUR, REPINE.

Complain, v. To complain; murmur, in German murmeln, conveys both in sound and in sense the idea of dissatisfaction; repine is compounded of re and pine, from the English pain, Latin pana punishment, and the Greek rativa hunger, signifying to convert into pain. The idea of expressing displeasure or dissatisfaction

is common to these ternis. Complaint is not so loud as murmuring, but more so than repining.

We complain or murmur by some audible method: we may repine secretly. Complaints are always addressed to some one; murmurs and repinings are often addressed only to one's self. Complaints are made of whatever creates uneasiness, without regard to the source from which they flow; murmurings are a species of complaints made only of that which is done by others for our inconvenience; when used in done by others for our inconvenience; when used in relation to persons, complaint is the act of a superiour; murmuring that of an inferiour; repining is always used in relation to the general disposition of things. When the conduct of another offends, it calls for complaint; when a superiour aggrieves by the imposition of what is burdensome, it occasions murmuring on the part of the aggrieved; when disappointments arrive, or ambition is thwarted, men repine at their destiny.

Complaints and murmurs may be made upon every trivial occasion; repinings only on matters of moment. Complaints, especially such as respect one's self, are at best but the offspring of an uneasy mind; they betray great weakness, and ought to be suppressed, murmurs are culpable; they violate the respect and obedience due to superiours; those who murmur have seldom substantial grounds for murmuring; repinings are sinful, they arraign the wisdom and the goodness of an infinitely wise and good Being. It will be difficult, by the aid of philosophy, to endure much pain without complaining; religion only can arm the soul against all the ills of life:

I'll not complain; Children and cowards rail at their misfortunes.

The rebellious Israelites were frequently guilty of murmurings, not only against Moses, but even against their Almighty Deliverer, notwithstanding the repeated manifestations of his goodness and power;

Yet, O my soul! thy rising murmurs stay, Nor dare th' ALLWISE DISPOSER to arraign: Or against his supreme decree, With impious grief complain .- LYTTLETON.

A want of confidence in God is the only cause of repinings; he who sees the hand of God in all things cannot repine;

Would all the deities of Greece combine. In vain the gloomy thunderer might repine; Sole should he sit, with scarce a god to friend. And see his Trojans to the shades descend .- Popz. TO BEWAIL, BEMOAN, LAMENT, DEPLORE.

Bewail is compounded of be and wail, which is probably connected with the word wo, signifying to express sorrow; bemoan, compounded of be and moan, signities to indicate grief with moans; lament, in French lamenter, Latin lamenter or lamentum, comes lament, 111 probably from the Greek κλαύμα and κλαίω to cry out with grief; deplore, in Latin deplore, i. e. de and plore or plange, signifies to give signs of distress with the face or mouth.

All these terms mark an expression of pain by some external sign Bewail is not so strong as bemoan, but stronger than lument; bewail and bemoan are expressions of unrestrained grief or anguish: a wretched mother bewaits the loss of her child; a person in deep distress bemoans his hard fate: lamentation may arise from simple sorrow or even imaginary grievances; a sensualist laments the disappointment of some ex-

pected gratification.

Bewait and bemaan are always indecorous, if not sinful, expressions of grief, which are inconsistent with the profession of a Christian; they are common among the uncultivated, who have not a proper principle to restrain the intemperance of their feelings. There is nothing temporal which is so dear to any one that he ought to bewail its loss: nor any condition of things so distressing or desperate as to make a man bemoon his lot. Lamentations are sometimes allowable; the miseries of others, or our own infirmities and sins, may justly be lamented.

Deplore is a much stronger expression than lament; the former calls forth tears from bitterness of the

The wounds they washed, their pious tears they shed, And laid along their oars deplor'd the dead.—Pops.

The latter excites a cry from the warmth of feeling;

But let not chief the nightingale lament Her ruin'd care, too delicately fram'd To brook the harsh confinement of the cage.

THOMSON. The deplorable indicates despair; the lamentable marks

only pain or distress.

Among the poor we have deplorable instances of poverty, ignorance, vice, and wretchedness combined. Among the higher classes we have often lamentable instances of people involving themselves in trouble by instances of people involving themselves in trouble by their own imprudence. A field of battle or a city overthrown by an earthquake is a spectacle truly deplorable. It is lamentable to see beggars putting on all the disguises of wretchedness in order to obtain what they might earn by honest industry. The condition of a dying man suffering under the agonies of an awakened conscience is deplorable; the situation of the relative or friend who witnesses the agony, without being able to afford consolation to the sufferer, is truly lamentable.

TO GROAN, MOAN.

Groan and moan are both an oromatopela, from the sounds which they express. Groun is a deep sound produced by hard breathing: moan is a plaintive, longdrawn sound produced by the organs of utterance. The groun proceeds involuntarily as an expression of severe pain, either of body or mind: the moan proceeds often from the desire of awakening attention or exciting compassion. Dying groans are uttered in the agonies of death; the moans of a wounded sufferer are sometimes the only resource he has left to make his destitute case known

The plain ox, whose toil, Patient and ever ready, clothes the land With all the pomp of harvest, shall he bleed, And struggling grown beneath the cruel hands E'en of the clown he feeds?—Thomson.

The fair Alexis lov'd, but lov'd in vain, And underneath the beechen shade, alone Thus to the woods and mountains made his moan DRYDEN.

MOURNFUL, SAD.

Mournful signifies full of what causes mourning; Gloum has its source internally, and is often in add (v. Dull) signifies either a painful sentiment, or dependent of outward circumstances; heaviness is a

what causes this painful sentiment. The difference in the sentiment is what constitutes the difference between these epithets: the mournful awakens tender and sympathetick feelings: the sud oppresses the spirits and makes one heavy at heart; a mournful tale contains an account of others' distresses;

Upon his tomb Shall be engrav'd the sack of Orleans; The treacherous manner of his mournful death. SHAKSPEARE.

A sad story contains an account of one's own distress; How sad a sight is human happiness

To those whose thoughts can pierce beyond an hour!

A mournful event befalls our friends and relatives; a sad misfortune befalls ourselves. Selfish people find nothing mournful, but many things sad; tender hearted people are always affected by what is mournful, and are less troubled about what is sad.

DULL, GLOOMY, SAD, DISMAL.

Dull may probably come from the Latin dolor, signifying generally that which takes off from the brightness, vivacity, or perfection of any thing; gloomy, from the German glumm muddy, signifies the same as tarmshed; sad is probably connected with shade, to imply obscurity, which is most suitable to sorrow; dismal, compounded of dis and mal or malus, signifies

very evil.

When applied to natural objects they denote the want of necessary light; in this sense metals are more or less dull according as they are stained with dirt: the weather is either dull or gloomy in different degrees; that is, dull when the sun is obscured by clouds, and gloomy when the atmosphere is darkened by fogs or thick clouds. A room is dull, gloomy, or dismal, according to circumstances: it is dull if the usual quantity of light and sound be wanting; it is gloomy if the darkness and stillness be very considerable; it is dismal if it be deprived of every convenience that fits it for a habitation; in this sense a dun-geon is a dismal abode; 'While man is a retainer to the elements and a sojourner in the body, it (the soul) must be content to submit its own quickness and spi rituality to the dulness of its vehicle.'-South

Achilles' wrath, to Greece the direful spring Of woes unnumber'd, heav'nly goddess, sing! That wrath which hurl'd to Pluto's gloomy reign The souls of mighty chiefs untimely slain .- POPE.

For nine long nights, through all the dusky air The pyres thick flaming shot a dismal glare.-Pops.

Sad is not applied so much to sensible as moral objects, in which sense the distressing events of human life, as the loss of a parent or a child, is justly denominated sad; 'Henry II. of France, by a splinter unhappily thrust into his eye at a solemn justing, was sent out of the world by a sad but very accidental death." SOUTH.

In regard to the frame of mind which is designated by these terms, it will be easily perceived from the above explanation. As slight circumstances produce duluess, any change, however small, in the usual flow of spirits may be termed dult;

> So dull, so dead in look, so wo-begone. SHAKSPE .. RE.

Gloom weighs heavy on the mind, and gives a turn to the reflections and the imagination: desponding thoughts of futurity will spread a gloom over every other object; 'Neglect spreads gloominess upon their humour, and makes them grow sullen and unconversable.'—
Collier. The word dismal is seldom used except as an epithet to external objects. Sadness indicates a wounded state of the heart; feelings of unmixed pain;

Six brave companions from each ship we lost; With sails outspread we fly the unequal strife, Sad for their loss, but joyful of our life.—Pope.

GLOOM, HEAVINESS.

weight upon the spirits, produced by a foreign cause: the former belongs to the constitution; the latter is occasional. People of a melancholy habit have a particular gloom hanging over their minds which pervades all their thoughts; those who suffer under severe disappointments for the present, and have gloomy prospects for the future, may be expected to be heavy at heart; we may sometimes dispel the gloom of the mind by the force of reflection, particularly by the force of religious contemplation: heaviness of spirits is itself a temporary thing, and may be succeeded by vivacity or lightness of mind when the pressure of the moment has subsided; 'If we consider the frequent reliefs we receive from laughter, and how often it breaks the gloom which is apt to depress the mind, one would take care not to grow too wise for so great a pleasure of life.'—Abouson.' Worldly prosperity flatens as life descends. He who lately overflowed with cheerful spirits and high hopes, begins to look back with heaviness on the days of former years.'—Blair.

GLOOMY, SULLEN, MOROSE, SPLENETICK.

All these terms denote a temper of mind the reverse of easy or happy: gloomy lies either in the general constitution or the particular frame of the mind; sullen lies in the temper: a man of a gloomy disposition is an involuntary agent; it is his misfortune, and renders him in some measure pitiable: the sullen man yields to his evil humours; sullenness is his fault, and renders him offensive. The gloomy man distresses himself most; his pains are all his own: the sullen man has a great share of discontent in his composition; he charges his sufferings upon others, and makes them suffer in common with himself. A man may be rendered gloomy for a time by the influence of particular circumstances; but sullenness creates pains for itself when all external circumstances of a painful nature are wanting;

Th' unwilling heralds act their lord's commands, Pensive they walk along the barren sands; Arriv'd, the hero in his tent they find, With gloomy aspect, on his arm reclin'd.—Pope. At this they ceased; the stern debate expir'd; The chiefs in sullen majesty retir'd.—Pope.

Sullenness and moroseness are both the inherent properties of the temper; but the former discovers itself in those who have to submit, and the latter in those who have to command: sullenness therefore betrays itself mostly in early life; moroseness is the peculiar characteristick of age; 'The morose philosopher is so much affected by these and some other authorities, that he becomes a convert to his friend, and desires he would take him with him when he went to his next ball.'—BUPGELL. The sullen person has many fancied hardships to endure from the control of others; the morose person causes others to endure many real hardships, by keeping them under too severe a control. Sullenness shows itself mostly by an unseemly referve; moroseness hows itself by the hardness of the speech, and the roughness of the voice. Sullenness is altogether a sluggish principle, that leads more or less to inaction; moroseness is a harsh feeling, that is not contented with exacting obedience unless it inflicts pain.

Moroseness is a defect of the temper; but spleen, from splen, is a defect in the heart: the one betrays itself in behaviour, the other more in conduct. A morose man is an unpleasant companion; a splenetick man is a bad member of society: the former is ill-natured to those about him, the latter is ill-numoured with all the world. Moroseness vents itself in temporary expressions: spleen indulges itself in perpetual bitterness of expression: 'While in that splenetick mood, we amused ourselves in a sour critical speculation of which we ourselves were the objects, a few months effected a total change in our variable minds.'—Burke.

PITEOUS, DOLEFUL, WOFUL, RUEFUL.

Piteous signifies moving pity (v. Pity); doleful, or full of dole, in Latin dolor pain, signifies indicative of much pain; woful, or full of wo, signifies likewise indicative of wo, which from the German web implies pain; rueful, or full of rue, from the German reuen to repent, signifies indicative of much sorrow

The close alliance in sense of these words one to another is obvious from the above explanation; piteous is applicable to one's external expression of bodily or mental pain; a child makes piteous lamentations when it suffers for hunger, or has lost its way;

With pond'rous clubs
As weak against the mountain heaps they push
Their beating breast in vain and pitcous bray,
He lays them quivering on th' ensanguin'd plain
Thomson

Doleful applies to those sounds which convey the idea of pain; there is something doleful in the tolling of a funeral bell, or in the sound of a muffled drum;

Entreat, pray, beg, and raise a doleful cry.—Dryden. Woful applies to the circumstances and situations of men; a scene is woful in which we witness a large family of young children suffering under the complicated horrours of sickness and want; 'A bruish temptation made Samson, from a judge of Israel, a woful judgement upon it.'—South. Rueful applies to the outward indications of inward sorrow depicted in the looks or countenance. The term is commonly applied to the sorrows which spring from a gloomy or distorted imagination, and has therefore acquired a somewhat Indicrous acceptation; hence we find in Don Quixote, the knight of the rueful countenance introduced. The term is however used in poetry in a serious seuse;

Cocytus nam'd, of lamentation loud,

Cocytus nam'd, of lamentation loud, Heard on the rueful stream.—MILTON.

MEAN, PITIFUL, SORDID.

The moral application of these terms to the characters of men, in their transactions with each other, is what constitutes their common signification. What ever a man does in common with those below him is mean; it evinces a temper that is prone to sink rather than to rise in the scale of society: whatever makes him an object of pity, and consequently of contempt for his sunken character, makes him pitiful: what ever makes him grovel and crawl in the dust, licking up the dross and filth of the earth, is sordid, from the Latin sordeo to be filthy and nasty. Meanness is in many cases only relatively bad as it respects the disposal of our property: for instance, what is meanness in one, might be generosity or prudence in another: the due estimate of circumstances is allowable in all, but it is meanness for any one to attempt to save, at the expense of others, that which he can conveniently afford either to give or pay: hence an undue spirit of seeking gain or advantage for one's self to the detriothers, is denominated a mean temper: this temper the world affords such abundant examples, that it may almost seem unnecessary to specify any particulars, or else I would say it is mean in those who keep servants, to want to deprive them of any fair sources of emolument: it is nean for ladies in their carriages, and attended by their livery servants, to take up the time of a tradesman by bartering with him about sixpences or shillings in the price of his articles. it is mean for a gentleman to do that for himself which, according to his circumstances, he might get another to do for him;

Can you imagine I so mean could prove, To save my life by changing of my love?

Pitifulness goes farther than meanness: it is not merely that which degrades, but unmans the person; it is that which is bad as well as low: when the fear of evil or the love of gain prompts a man to sacrifice his character and forfeit his veractity he becomes truly pitiful: Blifield in Tom Jones is the character whom all pronounce to be pitiful; 'The Jews tell us of a two-fold Messiah, a vile and most pitiful fetch, invented only to evade what they cannot answer.'—PRIDEAUX. Sordidaness is peculiarly applicable to one's love of gain: although of a more corrupt, yet it is not of so degrading a nature as the two former; the sordid man does not deal in trifles like the mean man; and has nothing so low and vicious in him as the pitiful man. A continual habit of getting money will engender a sordid love of it in the human mind; but nothing short of a radically contemptible character leads a man to be pitiful. A mean man is thought

lightly of: a pitiful man is held in profound contempt: | a sordid man is hated. Meanness descends to that which is insignificant and worthless;

Nature, I thought, perform'd too mean a part, Forming her movements to the rules of art.

Pitifulness sinks into that which is despicable; 'Those men who give themselves airs of bravery on reflecting upon the last scenes of others, may behave the most pitifully in their own.'—RICHARSON. Sordidness contaminates the mind with what is foul; 'It is strange, since the priest's office heretofore was always splendid, that it is now looked upon as a piece of religion, and to make it low and sordid.'-South.

This my assertion proves, he may be old, And yet not sordid, who refuses gold.

DENHAM.

SORRY, GRIEVED, HURT.

Sorry and grieved are epithets somewhat differing from their primitives sorrow and grief (v. Affliction), inasmuch as they are applied to ordinary subjects. We speak of being sorry for any thing, however trivial, which concerns ourselves;

The ass, approaching next, confess'd That in his heart he lov'd a jest; One fault he hath, is sorry for 't His ears are half a foot too short .- SWIFT.

We are commonly grieved for that which concerns others:

> The mimick ape began to chatter, How evil tongues his name bespatter; He saw, and he was griev'd to see't, His zeal was sometimes indiscreet .- Swift.

I am sorry that I was not at home when a person called upon me; I am grieved that it is not in my power to serve a friend who stands in need. Both these terms respect only that which we do ourselves: these terms terms terms the account which we are ourselves. thurt (o. To displease and To injure) respects that which is done to us, denoting a painful feeling from hurt or wounded feelings; we are hurt at being treated with disrespect; 'No man is hurt, at least few are so, by hearing his neighbour esteemed a worthy man. BLAIR.

UNHAPPY, MISERABLE, WRETCHED.

Unhappy is literally not to be happy; this is the negative condition of many who might be happy if they pleased. Miserable, from misereor to pity, signifes to deserve pity, which is to be positively and extremely unhappy; this is the lot only of a comparatively few. Wretched, from our word wreek, the Saxon wreeca an exile, and the like, signifies cast saxon wrecca an exne, and the like, signifies cast away or abandoned; that is, particularly miserable, which is the lot of still fewer. As happiness lies properly in the mind, unhappy is taken in the proper sense, with regard to the state of the feelings, but is figuratively extended to the outward circumstances which occasion the painful feelings; we lead an unhappy life, or are in an unhappy condition: as that which excites the compassion of others must be external, and the state of abandonment must of itself be an outward state, miscrable and wretched are properly applied to the outward circumstances which cause the pain, and improperly to the pain which is occasioned. We can measure the force of these words, that is to say, the degree of unhappiness which they express, only by the circumstance which causes the unhappi-Unhappy is an indefinite term; as we may be unhappy from slight circumstances, or from those which are important; a child may be said to be unhappy at the loss of a plaything; a man is unhappy who leads a vicious life; missrable and woretched are more limited in their application; a child cannot be either miserable or wretched; and he who is so, has some serious cause either in his own mind or in his circumstances to make him so: a man is miserable

an unhappy man whom nobody likes, and who likes nobody; every criminal suffering the punishment of his offences is an unhappy man;

Such is the fate unhappy women find, And such the curse entail'd upon our kind. Rowr.

The condition of the poor is particularly miserable in countries which are not blessed with the abundance that England enjoys;

These miseries are more than may be borne. SHAKSPEARE.

Philoctetes, abandoned by the Greeks in the island of Lemnos, a prey to the most poignant grief and the horrours of indigence and solitude, was a wretched

'T is murmur, discontent, distrust, That makes you wretched .- GAY

Unhappy is only applicable to that which respects the happiness of man; but miserable and wretched may be said of that which is mean and worthless in its nature; a writer may be either miserable or wretched according to the lowness of the measure at which he is rated; so likewise any performance may be miserable or wretched, a house may be miserable or wretched, and the like.

TO EMBARRASS, PERPLEX, ENTANGLE

Embarrass (v. Difficult) respects a person's manners or circumstances; perplex (v. To distress) his views and conduct; entangle (v. To disengage) is said of particular circumstances. Embarrassments depend alto gether on ourselves; the want of prudence and presence of mind are the common causes: perplexities depend on extraneous circumstances as well as ourselves; extensive dealings with others are mostly attended with perplexities; entanglements arise mostly from the evil designs of others.

That embarrasses which interrupts the even course That embarrasses which interrupts the even course or progress of one's actions; 'Cervantes had so much kindness for Don Quixote, that however he embarrasses him with absurd distresses, he gives him so much sense and virtue as may preserve our esteem.'—Johnson. That perplexes which interferes with one's opinions; 'It is scarcely possible, in the regularity and composure of the present time, to image the tumult of absurdity and clamour of contradiction which perplexed doctrine, disordered practice, and dis-turbed both publick and private quiet in the time of the rebellion."—JOHNSON. That entangles which binds a person in his decisions; 'I presume you do not entangle yourself in the particular controversies be-tween the Romanists and us.'—CLARENDON. Pecuniary difficulties embarrass, or contending feelings proniary difficulties emodarrass, or contending feelings pro-duce embarrassment; contrary counsels or interests perplex; law-suits entangle. Steadiness of mind pre-vents embarrassment in the outward behaviour. Firmness of character is requisite in the midst of perplexities; caution must be employed to guard against entanglements.

TO TROUBLE, DISTURB, MOLEST.

Whatever uneasiness or painful sentiment is produced in the mind by outward circumstances is effected either by trouble (v. Affiction), by disturbance (v. Commotion), or by molestation (v. To inconvenience). Trouble is the most general in its application; we may be troubled by the want of a thing, or troubled by that be troubled by the want of a thing, or troubled by that which is unsuitable; we are disturbed and molested only by that which actively troubles. Pecuniary wants are the greatest troubles in life; the perverseness of servants, the indisposition or ill behaviour of children, are domestick troubles; 'Ulysses was exceedingly troubled at the sight of his mother (in the Elysian fields)."—Addison. The noise of children is a disturbance, and the prospect of want disturbate the mind. Trouble may be permanent; disturbance and malestries are tumporary, and both refer to the who is tormented by his conscience; a mother will be wretched who sees her child violently torn from her. The same distinction holds good when taken to designate the outward circumstances themselves; he is

a.ways a disturbance to one who wishes to think or to produce dejection in persons of the greatest equa to remain in quiet;

No buzzing sounds disturb their golden sleep.

DRYDEN.

Talking, or any noise, is a molestation to one who is in an irritable frame of body or mind;

Both are doom'd to death; And the dead wake not to molest the living

TROUBLESOME, IRKSOME, VEXATIOUS. These epithets are applied to the objects which create trouble or vexation.

Irksome is compounded of irk and some, from the German arger vexation, which probably comes from the Greek apyds; troublesome (v. To afflict) is here, as before, the generick term; irksome and vexatious are species of the troublesome: what is troublesome creates either bodily or mental pain; what is it some creates a mixture of bodily and mental pain; and what is vexatious creates purely mental pain. What requires great exertion, or a too long continued exertion or exertions. coupled with difficulties, is troublesome; in this sense the laying in stores for the winter is a troublesome work for the ants, and compiling a dictionary is a troublesome labour to some writers: 'The incursions of troublesome labour to some writers: 'The incursions of troublesome thoughts are often violent and importunate.'—Johnson. What requires any exertion which we are unwilling to make, or interrupts the quiet which we particularly long for, is irksome; in this sense giving and receiving of visits is irksome to some persons; travelling is irksome to others;

For not to irksome toil, but to delight he made us. MILTON.

What comes across our particular wishes, or disappoints us in a particular manner, is vexatious; in this sense the loss of a prize which we had hoped to gain may be reratious:

The pensive goddess has already taught How vain is hope, and how vexatious thought.

DIFFICULTIES, EMBARRASSMENTS,

These terms are all applicable to a person's concerns in life; but difficulties relate to the difficulty (v. Diffi-culty) of conducting a business; embarrassments relate to the confusion attending a state of debt; and trouble to the pain which is the natural consequence not fulfilling engagements or answering demands. Of the three, difficulties expresses the least, and troubles the most. A young man on his entrance into the world will unavoidably experience difficulties, if not provided with ample means in the outset; 'Young Cunningham was recalled to Dublin, where he continued for four or five years, and of course experienced all the difficulties that attend distressed situations.'— Johnson. Let a man's means be ever so ample, if he have not prudence and talents fitted for business, he will hardly keep himself free from embarrassments; Few men would have had resolution to write books with such embarrassments (as Milton laboured under)."

—Johnson. There are no troubles so great as those which are produced by pecuniary difficulties, which are the greatest troubles that can arise to disturb the peace of a man's mind; 'Virgil's sickliness, studies, and the troubles he met with, turned his hair gray before the usual time '—Walsh.

DEJECTION, DEPRESSION, MELANCHOLY.

Dejection, from dejicio to cast down, and depression. from deprimo to press or sink down, have both regard from a primary of the state of the animal spirits; melancholy, from the Greek $\mu \epsilon \lambda a \gamma \chi o \lambda i a$ black bile, regards the state of the humours in general, or of the particular humour called the bile.

Dejection and depression are occasional, and depend on outward circumstances; melancholy is permanent, and lies in the constitution. Depression is but a degree of dejection: slight circumstances may occasion a depression; distressing events occasion a dejection the death of a near and dear relative may be expected

nimity;

So bursting frequent from Atrides' breast, Sighs following sighs his inward fears confess'd; Now o'er the fields dejected he surveys,

From thousand Trojan fires the mountain blaze.

Lively tempers are most liable to depressions; 'I will only desire you to allow me that Hector was in an absolute certainty of death, and depressed over and above with the conscience of being in an ill cause.'-Pork Melancholy is a disease which nothing but clear views of religion can possibly correct; 'I have read somewhere in the history of ancient Greece, that the women of the country were seized with an unaccountable melancholy, which disposed several of them to make away with themselves."—Addison.

DESPAIR, DESPERATION, DESPONDENCY.

Despair and desperation, from the French desespoir, compounded of the privative de and the Latin spess hope, signifies the absence or the annihilation of all hope; despondency, from despond, in Latin desponden compounded of the privative de and sponde to promise, signifies literally to deprive in a solemn manner, or cut off from every gleam of hope.

Despair is a state of mind produced by the view of external circumstances; desperation and despondency may be the fruit of the imagination; the former therefore always rests on some ground, the latter are some-times ideal: despair lies mostly in reflection; desperation and despondency in the feelings; the former marks a state of vehement and impatient feeling, the latter that of fallen and mournful feeling. Despair is often the forerunner of desperation and despondency, but it is not necessarily accompanied with effects so power-

ful: the strongest mind may have occasion to despair when circumstances warrant the sentiment; men of an impetuous character are apt to run into a state of desperation; a weak mind full of morbid sensibility is most liable to fall into despondency.

Despair interrupts or checks exertion

Despair and grief distract my lab'ring mind; Gods! what a crime my impious heart design

Desperation impels to greater exertions; 'It may be generally remarked of those who squander what they know their fortune is not sufficient to allow, that in know their fortune is not sufficient to allow, that in their most jovial moments there always breaks out some proof of discontent and impatience; they either scatter with a wild desperation, or pay their money with a peevish anxiety."—JOHNSON. Despondency unfits for exertion; 'Thomson submitting his productions to some who thought themselves qualified to criticise, he heard of nothing but faults; but finding other judges more favourable, he did not suffer himself to sink into despondence."—JOHNSON. When a physician despairs of making a cure, he lays aside the application of remedies; when a soldier sees nothing but plication of remedies; when a soldier sees nothing but death or disgrace before him, he is driven to despera tion, and redoubles his efforts; when a tradesman sees before him nothing but failure for the present, and want for the future, he may sink into despondency. despair is justifiable as far as it is a rational calcula tion into futurity from the present appearances: des peration may arise from extraordinary circumstances or the action of strong passions; in the former case it is unavoidable, and may serve to rescue from great distress; in the latter case it is mostly attended with fatal consequences: despondency is a disease of the mind, which nothing but a firm trust in the goodness of Providence can obviate.

DESPERATE, HOPELESS.

Desperate (v. Despair) is applicable to persons o things; hopeless to things only: a person makes a desperate effort; he undertakes a hopeless task.

Desperate, when applied to things, expresses more than hopeless; the latter marks the absence of hope at to the attainment of good, the former marks the absence of hope as to the removal of an evil: a person who is in a desperate condition is overwhelmed with actual trouble for the present, and the prospect of its continuance for the future; he whose case is hopeless is without the prospect of effecting the end he has in view: gamesters are frequently brought into desperate situations when bereft of every thing that might possibly serve to lighten the burdens of their misfortunes;

Before the ships a desperate stand they made, And fir'd the troops, and call'd the gods to aid POPE.

It is a hopeless undertaking to endeavour to reclaim men who have plunged themselves deep into the labyinths of vice;

Th' Eneans wish in vain their wanted chief, Hopeless of flight, more hopeless of relief. DRYDEN.

HOPE, EXPECTATION, TRUST, CONFIDENCE.

Anticipation of futurity is the common idea expressed by all these words. Hope, in German hoffen, probably from the Greek δπιπεύω to look at with plea sure, is welcome; expectation (v. To await) is either welcome or unwelcome: we hope only for that which is good; we expect the bad as well as the good. In bad weather we hope it will soon be better; but in a bad season we expect a bad harvest, and in a good season a good harvest. Hope is simply a presentiment; it may vary in degree, more according to the temper of the mind than the nature of the circumstances; some hope where there is no ground for hope, and others despair where they might hope; expectation is a conviction that excludes doubt;* we expect in proportion as that conviction is positive: we hope that which may as that conviction is positive. We appear that which must be be or can possibly be; we expect that which must be or which ought to be. The young man hopes to live many years; the old man expects to die in a few years. Hope is a precious gift to man; it is denied to no one under any circumstances; it is a solace in affliction, and a support under adversity; it throws a ray of light and a support under adversity; it throws a ray of ight over the darkest scene: expectation is an evil rather than a good; whether we expect the thing that is agreeable or otherwise, it is seldom attended with any thing but pain. Hope is justified by the nature of our condition; since every thing is changing, we have also reason to hope that a present evil, however great, may be succeeded by something less severe;

Regions of sorrow, doleful shades, where peace And rest can never dwell; hope never comes, That comes to all.—MILTON.

Expectation is often an act of presumption, in which the mind outsteps its own powers, and estimates the future as if it were present; since every thing future is uncertain, but death, there is but that one legitimate subject of expectation;

All these within the dungeon's depth remain, Despairing pardon, and expecting pain .- DRYDEN.

Hope may be deferred, but never dies; it is a pleasure as lasting as it is great: expectation is swallowed up in certainty; it seldom leaves any thing but disappoint-

Trust (v. Belief) and confidence (v. To confide) agree with hope in regard to the objects anticipated they agree with expectation in regard to the certainty of the anticipation : expectation, trust, and confidence, when applied to some future good, differ principally in the grounds on which this certainty or positive convic-tion rests. Expectation springs either from the character of the individual or the nature of the event which is the subject of anticipation: in the former it is a decision; in the latter a rational conclusion: trust springs altogether from a view of the circumstances connected with the event, and is an inference or conclusion of the mind drawn from the whole;

Our country's gods, in whom our trust we place. DRYDEN.

Confidence arises more from the temper of the mind, than from the nature of the object; it is rather an in-stantaneous decision than a rational conclusion;

His pride Humbled by such rebuke, so far beneath His confidence to equal God in pow'r.—MILTON.

*See Eberhardt: "Hoffnung, Erwartung, Vertrauen, Zuversicht.

Expectation and confidence therefore are often errone ous, and mostly unwarrantable; the latter still more frequently than the former: trust, like hope, is always warrantable, even though it may sometimes be deceived.

If we expect our friends to assist us in time of need, it may be a reasonable expectation founded upon their tried regard for us and promises of assistance; or it may be an extravagant expectation founded upon our self-love and selfishness: if we trust that an eminent physician will cure us, it is founded upon our knowledge of his skill, and of the nature of our case; if we indulge a confident expectation that our performances will meet with universal approbation, it is founded upon our vanity and ignorance of ourselves. most modest man is permitted to hope that his endeavours to please will not fail of success; and to trust so far in his own powers as to be encouraged to proceed: a prudent man will never think himself authorized to expect success, and still less to be confident of it, when a thousand contingencies may intervene to defeat the proposed end.

TO CONFIDE, TRUST.

Both these verbs express a reliance on the fidelity of another, but confide, in Latin confide, compounded of con and fide, signifying to place a trust in a person, of con and fido, signifying to place a trust in a person, is to trust (v. Belief) as the species to the genus; we always trust when we confide, but not vice versa. We confide to a person that which is of the greatest importance to ourselves; we trust to him whenever we rest on his word for any thing. We need rely only on a person's integrity when we trust to him, but we want to the confidence of the children and the proton of the children and the confidence of the children and proton of the children and the confidence of the children and proton of the children and the children and proton of the children and proton of the children and the childr rely also on his abilities and mental qualifications when we place confidence; it is an extraordinary trust, founded on a powerful conviction in a person's favour.

counsed on a powerful conviction in a person's favour. Confidence frequently supposes something secret as well as personal; trust respects only the personal interest. A king confides in his ministers and generals for the due execution of his plans, and the administration of the laws; one friend confides in another when he discloses to him all his private concerns: a merchant trusts to his clerks when he employs them in his business; individuals trust each other with portions of their property. tions of their property;

Men live and prosper but in mutual trust, A confidence of one another's truth .- Southern.

Hence, credit And publick trust 'twixt man and man are broken.

ROWE.

A breach of trust evinces a want of that common principle which keeps human society together; but a breach of confidence betrays a more than ordinary share of baseness and depravity.

CONFIDENT, DOGMATICAL, POSITIVE.

Confident, from confide (v. To confide), marks the temper of confiding in one's self; dogmatical, from dogma a maxim or assertion, signifies the temper of dealing in unqualified assertions; positive, in Latin positivus, from positivus, signifies fixed to a point.

The first two of these words dead to the confidence of the confidence o

The first two of these words denote an habitual or permanent state of mind; the latter either a partial or an habitual temper. There is much of confidence in an habitual temper. There is much of confinence in dogmatism and positivity, but it expresses more than either. Confidence implies a general reliance on one's abilities in whatever we undertake; dogmatism implies a reliance on the truth of our opinions; positivity a reliance on the truth of our assertions. A confident a reliance on the truth of our assertions. A confident man is always ready to act, as he is sure of succeeding, a dogmatical man is always ready to speak, as he is sure of being heard; a positive man is determined to maintain what he has asserted, as he is convinced that

maintain what he has assected, as he is convinced that he has made no mistake.

Confidence is opposed to diffidence; dogmatism to skepticism; positivity to hesitation. A confident man mostly fails for want of using the necessary means to ensure success; 'People forget how little it is that they know and how much less it is that they can do, they know and now much less it is mat they can do, when they grow confident upon any present state of things.'—South. A dogmatical man is mostly in errour, because he substitutes his own partial opinions for such as are established; 'If you are neither dogmatical, nor show either by your words or your actions rejoice at your victory.'-Budgell. A positive man is mostly deceived, because he trusts more to his own senses and memory than he ought; ' Positive as you now are in your opinions, and confident in your asser-tions, be assured that the time approaches when both men and things will appear to you in a different light. -Blair. Self-knowledge is the most effectual cure for self-confidence; an acquaintance with men and things tends to lessen dogmatism. The experience of things tends to lessen dogmatism. The experience of having been deceived one's self, and the observation that others are perpetually liable to be deceived, ought to check the folly of being positive as to any event or circumstance that is past.

ASSURANCE, CONFIDENCE.

Assurance implies either the act of making another sure (v. To affirm), or of being sure one's self; confidence implies simply the act of the mind in confiding, which is equivalent to a feeling.

Assurance, as an action, is to confidence as the means to the end. We give a person an assurance in order to inspire him with confidence.

Assurance and confidence, as a sentiment in our-

selves, may respect either that which is external of us, or that which belongs to ourselves; in the first case they are both taken in an indifferent sense: but the feeling of assurance is much stronger than that of confidence, and applies to objects that interest the feelings; 'I appeal to posterity, says Æschylus; to posterity I consecrated my works, in the assurance that they will meet that reward from time which the partiality of my contemporaries refuses to bestow.'-Cum-Confidence, on the other hand, applies only BERLAND. to such objects as exercise the understanding; 'All the arguments upon which a man, who is telling the private affairs of another, may ground his confidence of security, he must, upon reflection, know to be uncertain, because he finds them without effect upon himself.'—Johnson. Thus we have an assurance of a life to come; an assurance of a blessed immortality: we have a confidence in a person's integrity. As respects ourselves exclusively, assurance is employed to designate either an occasional feeling, or a habit of the mind; confidence is for the most part an occa-sional feeling; assurance, therefore, in this sense, may be used indifferently, but in general it has a bad acceptation; but confidence has an ind fferent or a good

Assurance is a self-possession of the mind, arising from the conviction that all in ourselves is right; 'I never sit silent in company when secret history is talking, but I am reproached for want of assurance.'-Johnson. Confidence is self-possession only in parti-cular cases, grounded on the reliance we have in our abilities or our character; 'The hope of fame is necessarily connected with such considerations as must abate the ardour of confidence, and repress the vigour of pursuit.'-Johnson.

The man of assurance never loses himself under any circumstances, however trying; he is calm and easy when another is abashed and confounded; the man who has confidence will generally have it in cases that

warrant him to trust to himself.

A liar utters his falsehoods with an air of assurance, in order the more effectually to gain belief; conscious innocence enables a person to speak with confidence

when interrogated.

Assurance shows itself in the behaviour, confidence in the conduct. Young people are apt to assert every thing with a tone of assurance; 'Modesty, the daughter of Knowledge, and Assurance, the offspring of Ignorance, met accidentally upon the road; both had a long way to go, and had experienced from former hardships that they were alike unqualified to pursue their journey alone, they agreed, for their mu-tual advantage, to travel together. Moore. No man should undertake any thing without a certain degree of confidence in himself; 'I must observe that there is a vicious modesty which justly deserves to be ridiresuled, and which those very persons often discover, who value themselves most upon a well-bred confidence. This happens when a man is ashamed to act up to his reason, and would not, upon any consideration, be surprised in the practice of those duties for

that you are full of yourself, all will the more heartily | the performance of which he was sent into the world? -Addison.

ASSURANCE, IMPUDENCE.

Assurance (v. Assurance), and impudence, which literally implies shamelessness, are so closely allied to each other, that assurance is distinguished from impudence more in the manner than the spirit; for impudence has a grossness attached to it which does not belong to assurance.

Vulgar people are impudent because they have assurance to break through all the forms of society; but those who are more cultivated will have their assuman of assurance, though at first it only denoted a person of a free and open carriage, is now very usually applied to a profligate wretch, who can break through ail the rules of decency and morality without a blush. I shall endeavour, therefore, in this essay, to restore these words to their true meaning, to prevent the idea of modesty from being confounded with that of sheep-ishness, and to hinder impudence from passing for assurance.'-Budgell.

TO AWAIT, WAIT FOR, LOOK FOR, EXPECT.

Await and wait, in German warten, comes from wahren to see or look after; expect, in Latin expecto or exspecto, compounded of ex and specto, signifies to look out after.

All these terms have a reference to futurity, and our actions with regard to it.

Await, wait for, and look for mark a calculation of consequences and a preparation for them; and expect simply a calculation; we often expect without awaiting, waiting, or looking for, but never the reverse.

Await is said of serious things; wait and look for are terms in familiar use; expect is employed either seriously or otherwise.

A person expects to die, or awaits the hour of his dissolution; he expects a letter, waits for its coming, and looks for it when the post is arrived.

Await indicates the disposition of the mind; wait

for the regulation of the outward conduct as well as that of the mind; look for is a species of waiting drawn from the physical action of the eye, and may be figuratively applied to the mind's eye, in which latter sense it is the same as expect.

It is our duty, as well as our interest, to await the severest trials without a murmur;

This said, he sat, and expectation held His looks suspense, awaiting who appeared To second, or oppose, or undertake The perilous attempt .- MILTON.

Not less resolv'd, Antenor's valiant heir Confronts Achilles, and awaits the war .- Pope.

Prudence requires us to wait patiently for a suitable Pridence requires us to vait patiently for a simable opportunity, tather than be premature in our attempts to obtain any objects; 'Wait til thy being shall be unfolded.'—Baars. When children are too much indulged and caressed, they are apt to look for a repetition of caresses at inconvenient seasons; 'If you llook for a friend, in whose temper there is not to be found the least inequality, you look for a pleasing phantom.'—BLAR. It is in vain to look for or expect happiness from the conjugal state, which is not founded on a cordial and mutual regard; 'We are not to expect, from our intercourse with others, all that satisfaction which we fondly wish.'—BLAIR.

TO CONSIGN, COMMIT, INTRUST.

Consign, in French consigner, Latin consigno, com-Consign, in Friend consigner, Ladin consigner, configured pounded of con and signo, signifies to seal for a specifick purpose, also to deposite; commit, in French commettre, Latin committo, compounded of com and mitto to put together, signifies to put into a person's hands; intrust, compounded of in and trust, signifies to put in trust

The idea of transferring from one's self to the care of another is common to these terms. What is consigned is either given absolutely away from one's self, or only conditionally for one's own purpose;

And oft I wish, amid the scene, to find

Some spot to real happiness consign'd .- Goldsmith.

What is committed or intrusted is given conditionally. What is committed of intrusted is given conditionary.

A person consigns his property over to another by a deed in law; a merchant consigns his goods to another, to dispuse of them for his advantage; he commits the management of his business to his clerks, and intrusts them with the care of his property.

Consign expresses a more positive measure than commit, but intrusting is more or less positive or important, according to the nature of the thing intrasted.

When a child is consigned to the care of another, it is an unconditional surrender of one's trust into the hands of another;

Atrides, parting for the Trojan war, Consign'd the youthful consort to his care.-POPE.

Any person may be committed to the care of another with various limitations; 'In a very short time Lady Macclesfield removed her son from her sight, by committing him to the care of a poor woman.'-Johnson (Life of Savage). When a person is intrusted to the care of another, it is both a partial and temporary matter, referring mostly to his personal safety, and that only for a limited time. A parent does most wisely to consign the whole management of his child's edu cation to one individual, in whom he can confide; if he commit it in part only to any one's care, the deficiency in the charge is likely to remain unsupplied; in infancy children must be more or less intrusted to the care of servants, but prudent parents will diminish the frequency of these occasions as much as possible

In this sense the word intrust may be applied to other minor objects. In an extended application of the terms, papers are said to be consigned to an editor of a work for his selection and arrangement. The inspection of any publick work is committed to proper officers. A person is intrusted with a secret, but he may also be intrusted with the lives of others, and every thing else which they hold; on the same ground power is intrusted by the Almighty to kings, or, according to republican phraseology, it is intrusted by the commonwealth to the magistrate; 'Supposing both equal in their natural integrity, I ought in common prudence to fear foul play from an indigent person rather than from one whose circumstances seem to have placed him above the base temptation of money. This reason makes the commonwealth regard her richest subjects as the fittest to be intrusted with her highest employments.'-Apprson.

Consign and commit are used in the figurative sense. A thing is consigned to destruction, or committed to the flames. Death consigns many to an untimely grave: a writer commits his thoughts to the press; 'At the day of general account, good men are then to be consigned over to another state, a state of everlast-

ing love and charity.'-ATTERBURY.

Is my muse controll'd

By servile awe? Born free, and not be bold!

At least I'll dig a hole within the ground,

And to the trusty earth commit the sound.—DRYDEN.

DEPENDENCE, RELIANCE.

Dependence, from the Latin dependo, de and pendo to hang from, signifies literally to rest one's weight by hanging from that which is held; rely, compounded of re and ly or lie, signifies likewise to rest one's weight by lying or hanging back from the object held.

Dependence is the general term; reliance is a spe-

cies of dependence: we depend either on persons or things; we rely on persons only: dependence serves for that which is immediate or remote; reliance serves for the future only. We depend upon a person for that which we are obliged to receive or led to expect from him: we rely upon a person for that which he has given us reason to expect from him.

Dependence is an outward condition, or the state of external circumstances; reliance is a state of the feelings with regard to others. We depend upon God for all that we have or shall have; 'A man who uses his best endeavours to live according to the dictates of virtue and right reason has two perpetual sources of cheerfulness, in the consideration of his own nature, and of that Being on whom he has a dependence.'--Addison. We rely upon the word of man for that

which he has promised to perform; 'They afforded a which he has promised to perform; 'They afforded a sufficient conviction of this truth, and a firm reliance on the promises contained in it.'—Rogers. We may depend upon a person's coming from a variety of causes; but we rely upon it only in reference to his assowed intention. This latter term may also denote the act of things in the same sense;

The tender twig shoots upward to the skies. And on the faith of the new sun relies .- DRYDEN

FAITHFUL, TRUSTY.

Faithful signifies full of faith or fidelity (v. Faith, fidelity); trusty signifies fit or worthy to be trusted

(v. Belief)

Faithful respects the principle altogether; it is suited to all relations and stations, publick and private: trusty includes not only the principle, but the mental qualifications in general; it applies to those in whom particular trust is to be placed. It is the part of a Christian to be faithful to all his engagements; it is a particular excellence in a servant to be trusty;

The steeds they left their trusty servants hold.

Faithful is applied in the improper sense to an unconscious agent; trusty may be applied with equal pro-priety to things as to persons. We may speak of a priety to things as to persons. We may speak of a faithful saying, or a faithful picture; a trusty sword, or a trusty weapon;

What we hear With weaker passion will affect the heart, Than when the faithful eye beholds the part. FRANCES

He took the quiver from the trusty bow Achates used to bear.-DRYDEN.

FAITH, FIDELITY.

Though derived from the same source (v. Belief), they differ widely in meaning: faith here denotes a mode of action, namely, an acting true to the faith which others repose in us; fidelity, a disposition of the mind to adhere to that faith which others repose in us,

We keep our faith, we show our fidelity.

Faith is a publick concern, it depends on promises: fidelity is a private or personal concern, it depends upon relationships and connexious. A breach of faith is a crime that brings a stain on a nation; for faith ought to be kept even with an enemy. A breach of fidelity attaches disgrace to the individual; for fidelity is due from a subject to a prince, or from a servent to his master, or from married people one to another. No treaty can be made with him who will keep no faith; no confidence can be placed in him who discovers no fidelity. The Danes kept no faith with the English;

The pit resounds with shrieks, a war succeeds, For breach of publick faith and unexampled deeds. DRYDEN.

Fashionable husbands and wives in the present day seem to think there is no fidelity due to each other; 'When one hears of negroes who upon the death of their masters hang themselves upon the next tree, who can forbear admiring their fidelity, though it expresses itself in so dreadful a manner ?'-Appison.

DISTRUSTFUL, SUSPICIOUS, DIFFIDENT.

Distrustful signifies full of distrust, or not putting trust in (v. Belief); suspicious signifies having suspicion, from the Latin suspicio, or sub and specio to to look at askance, or with a wry mind; diffident, from the Latin diffide or disfide, signifies having no faith. Distrustful is said either of ourselves or others;

suspicious is said only of others; diffident only of ourselves: to be distrustful of a person, is to impute no good to him; to be suspicious of a person, is to impute positive evil to him: he who is distrustful of another's honour or prudence, will abstain from giving him his confidence; he who is suspicious of another's honesty, will be cautious to have no dealings with him trustful is a particular state of feeling; suspicious an habitual state of feeling: a person is distrustful of arother, owing to particular circumstances; he may be suspicious from his natural temper

As applied to himself, a person is distrustful of his own powers to execute an office assigned, or he is generally of a diffident disposition: it is faulty to distrust that in which we ought to trust; there is nothing more criminal than a distrust in Providence, and nothing better than a distrust in our own powers to with stand temptation; 'Before strangers, Pitt had some thing of the scholar's timidity and distrust.' -- John-Suspicion is justified more or less according to circumstances; but a too great proneness to suspicion is liable to lead us into many acts of injustice towards others; 'Nature itself, after it has done an injury, will for ever be suspicious, and no man can love the person he suspects. - South. Diffidence is becoming in youth, so long as it does not check their laudable exertions; 'As an actor, Mr. Cunningham obtained little reputation, for his diffidence was too great to be overcome.'-Johnson.

TO DISTURB, INTERRUPT.

Disturb, v. Commotion; interrupt, from the Latin inter and rumpo, signifies to break in between so as to

stop the progress

We may be disturbed either inwardly or outwardly; we are interrupted only outwardly; our minds may be disturbed by disquieting reflections, or we may be disturbed in our rest or in our business by unseemly noises; but we can be interrupted only in our business or pur-suits; the disturbance therefore depends upon the character of the person; what disturbs one man will not disturb another: an interruption is however something positive; what interrupts one person will interrupt another: the smallest noises may disturb one who is in bad health; illness or the visits of friends will interrupt a person in any of his business.

The same distinction exists between these words when applied to things as to persons: whatever is put out of its order or proper condition is disturbed; thus water which is put into motion from a state of rest is

disturbed :

If aught disturb the tenour of his breast, 'T is but the wish to strike before the rest.—Pope.

Whatever is stopped in the evenness or regularity of its course is interrupted; thus water which is turned out of its ordinary channel is interrupted; 'The foresight of the hour of death would continually interrupt the course of human affairs.'-BLAIR.

COMMOTION, DISTURBANCE.

Commotion, compounded of com or rum and motion expresses naturally a motion of several together; disturbance signifies the state of disturbing or being disturbed (v. To trouble).

There is mostly a commotion where there is a dis turbance; but there is frequently no disturbance where there is a commotion; commotion respects the physical movement; disturbance the mental agitation. Commotion is said only of large bodies of men, and is occa more is said only by something extraordinary; disturbance may be said of a few, or even of a single individual whatever occasions a bustle, awakens general inquiry and sets people or things in motion, excites a commo

Ocean, unequally press'd, with broken tide And blind commotion heaves .- Thomson.

Whatever interrupts the peace and quiet of one or many produces a disturbance; 'A species of men to whom a state of order would become a sentence of obscurity, are nourished into a dangerous magnitude by the heat of intestine disturbances.'—BURKE. Any wonderful phenomenon, or unusually interesting intelligence, may throw the publick into a commotion 'Nothing can be more absurd than that perpetual con test for wealth which keeps the world in commotion. -Johnson. Drunkenness is a common cause of dis-turbances in the streets or in families; civil commo-tions are above all others the most to be dreaded; they are attended with disturbances general and partial

TO INCONVENIENCE, ANNOY, MOLEST.

hurt to; to molest, from the Latin moles a mass o. weight, signifies to press with a weight.

We inconvenience in small matters, or by omitting such things as might be convenient; we annoy or molest by doing that which is positively painful; we are inconvenienced by a person's absence; we are annoyed by his presence if he renders himself offensive: we are inconvenienced by what is temporary; we are annoyed by that which is either temporary or durable; we are molested by that which is weighty and oppressive: we are inconvenienced simply in regard to our circumstances; we are annoyed mostly in regard to our corporeal feelings; we are molested mostly in regard to our minds: the removal of a seat or a book may inconvenience one who is engaged in business; 'I have often been tempted to inquire what happiness is to be gained, or what inconvenience to be avoided. by this stated recession from the town in the summer season.'-Johnson. The buzzing of a fly, or the stinging of a gnat may annoy;

Against the Capitol I met a lion. Who glar'd upon me and went surly by, Without annoying me. - SHAKSPEARE.

The impertinent freedom, or the rude insults of illdisposed persons may molest;

See all with skill acquire their daily food, Produce their tender progeny and feed, With care parental, while that care they need, In these lov'd offices completely blest, No hopes beyond them, nor vain fears molest. JENVNS.

COMMODIOUS, CONVENIENT, SUITABLE

Commodious, from the Latin commodus, or con and modus, according to the measure and degree required convenient, from the Latin conveniens, participle of con and venio to come together, signifies that which comes together with something else as it ought.

Both these terms convey the idea of what is cal-culated for the pleasure of a person. Commodious regards the physical condition, and convenience the

circumstances or mental feelings;

Within an ancient forest's ample verge There stands a lonely but a healthful dwelling, Built for convenience and the use of life.-RowE.

That is commodious which suits one's bodily ease: that is convenient which suits one's purpose. A house or a chair is commodious; 'Such a place cannot be commodious to live in; for being so near the moon, it had been too near the sun.'—RALEIGH. A time, an opportunity, a season, or the arrival of any person, is convenient. A noise incommodes; the staying or going of a person may inconvenience. A person wishes to sit commodiously, and to be conveniently situated for witnessing any spectacle.

Convenient regards the circumstances of the individual; suitable (v. Conformable) respects the established opinions of mankind, and is closely connected with moral propriety: nothing is convenient which does not favour one's purpose; nothing is suitable which does not suit the person, place, and thing: whoever has any thing to ask of another must take a convenient opportunity in order to ensure success; 'If any man think it convenient to seem good, let him be so indeed, and then his goodness will appear to every body's satisfaction.'—Tillotson. The address of a suitor on such an occasion would be very unsuitable, if he affected to claim as a right what he ought to so-licit as a favour; Pleasure in general is the consequent apprehension of a suitable object, suitably applied to a rightly disposed faculty."—South.

NECESSARY, EXPEDIENT, ESSENTIAL, REQUISITE.

Necessary, (v. Necessity), from the Latin necesse and ne cedo, signifies not to be departed from; expedient signifies belonging to, or forming a part of, expedition; essential, containing that essence or property which cannot be omitted; requisite, i. e. literally required (v. To demand).

Necessary is a general and indefinite term; things

may be necessary in the course of nature; it is neces-To inconvenience is to make not convenient; to sary for all men once to die; they may be necessary amoy, from the Latin noceo to hurt, is to do some according to the circumstances of the case, or our views of necessity; in this manner we conceive it necessary to call upon a person

Expedient, essential, and requisite are modes of relative necessity; the expedience of a thing is a matter of discretion and calculation, and, therefore, not so sed evidently necessary as many things which we so denominate; 'One tells me he thinks it absolutely necessary for women to have true notions of right and equity.'--Apprison. It may be expedient for a person to consult another, or it may not, according as circumstances may present themselves; 'It is highly expe-dient that men should, by some settled scheme of duties, be rescued from the tyranny of caprice.—Johnson.
The requisite and the essential are more obviously
necessary than the expedient; but the former is less so
than the latter: what is requisite may be requisite only in part or entirely; it may be requisite to complete a thing when begun, but not to begin it; the essential, on the contrary, is that which constitutes the essence. and without which a thing cannot exist. It is requi-site for one who will have a good library to select only the best authors; exercise is essential for the preserva-tion of good health. In all matters of dispute it is expedient to be guided by some impartial judge: it is requisite for every member of the community to contribute his share to the publick expenditure as far as he is able; 'It is not enough to say that faith and piety, joined with active virtue, constitute the requisite pre paration for heaven; they in truth begin the enjoyment of heaven.'—BLAIR. It is essential to a teacher, parof heaven.—BLAIR. It is essentiat to a feather, pair ticularly a spiritual teacher, to know more than those he teaches; 'The English do not consider their church establishment as convenient, but as essential to their state.'-BURKE.

EXPEDIENT, FIT.

Expedient, from the Latin expedio to get in readiness for a given occasion, supposes a certain degree of necessity from circumstances; ft (v. Fit), i. e. made for the purpose, signifies simply an agreement with, or suitability to, the circumstances; what is fit need be expedient, for it may not be required. The expediency of a thing depends altogether upon the outward circumstances; the fitness is determined by a moral rule: it is imprudent notto do that which is expedient; it is disgraceful to do that which is unfit; it is expedient for him who wishes to prepare for death, occasionally to take an account of his life; 'To far the greater number it is highly expedient that they should by some settled scheme of duties be rescued from the tyranny of caprice.'—Johnson. It is not fit for him who is about to die to dwell with anxiety on the things of this life;

Salt earth and bitter are not fit to sow,

Nor will be tam'd and mended by the plough.

DRYDEN.

OCCASION, OPPORTUNITY.

Occasion, in Latin occasio, from oc or ob and cado to fall, signifies that which falls in the way so as to produce some change; opportunity, in Latin opportunitation, from opportunity fit, signifies the thing that happens fit for the purpose.

These terms are applied to the events of life; but the occasion is that which determines our conduct, and leaves us no choice; it amounts to a degree of necessity: the opportunity is that which invites to action; it tempts us to embrace the moment for taking the step. We do things, therefore, as the occasion requires, or as the opportunity offers. There are many occasions on which a man is called upon to uphold his opinions. There are but few opportunities for men in general to distinguish themselves. The occasion obtrudes upon us; the opportunity is what we seek or desire. On particular occasions it is necessary for a commander to be severe; 'Waller preserved and won his life from those who were most resolved to take it, and in an occasion in which he ought to have been ambitious to have lost it (to lose it).'—Clarendon. A man of a humane disposition will profit by every opportunity to show his lenity to offenders; 'Every man is obliged by the Supreme Maker of the universe to improve all the opportunities of good which are afforded him.'—Jounson.

OCCASION, NECESSITY.

Occasion (v. Occasion) includes, necessity (v. Necessity) excludes, the idea of choice or alternative. We are regulated by the occasion, and can exercise our own discretion; we yield or submit to the necessity, without even the exercise of the will. On the death of a relative we have occasion to go into mourning, if we will not ofter an affiont to the family, but there is no expressnecessity;

A merrier man
Within the limit of becoming mirth,
I never spent an hour's talk withal;
His eye begets occasion for his wit.
SHAKSPEARE.

In case of an attack on our persons, there is a necessity of self-defence for the preservation of life; 'Where necessity ends curiosity begins,'—Johnson.

OCCASIONAL, CASUAL.

These are both opposed to what is fixed or stated; but occasional carries with it more the idea of unfrequency, and casual that of unfixedness, or the absence of all design.

A minister is termed an occasional preacher, who preaches only on certain occasions: his preaching at a particular place, or a certain day may be casual. Our acts of charity may be occasional; but they ought not to be casual; 'The beneficence of the Roman emperous and consuls was merely occasional.—Johnson.

What wonder if so near Looks intervene, and smiles, or object new, Casual discourse draws on.—Milton.

TO ADD, JOIN, UNITE, COALESCE.

Add, in Latin adda, compounded of ud and do, signifies to put to an object; join, in French joindre, Latin jungo, comes from junum a yoke, and the Greek ξεύγω to yoke, signifying to bring into close contact; unite, in Latin unitus, participle of unio, from unus one, implies to make into one: coalesce, in Latin coalesco, compounded of co or con, and alesco for cresso, signifies to grow or form one's self together.

We add by affixing a part of one thing to another, so as to make one whole: We join by attaching one

We add by affixing a part of one thing to another, so as to make one whole; we jorn by attaching one whole to another, so that they may adhere in part; we unite by putting one thing to another, so that all their parts may adhere to each other; things coalesce by coming into an entire cohesion of all their parts.

Adding is either a corporeal or spiritual action; joining is mostly said of corporeal objects: uniting and coalescing of spiritual objects. We add a wing to a house by a mechanical process, or we add quantities together by calculation,

Now, best of kings, since you propose to send Such bounteous presents to your Trojan friend, Aid yet a greater at our joint request, One which he values more than all the rest; Give him the fair Lavinia for his bride.—DRYDEN.

We join two houses together, or two armies, by placing them on the same spot; 'The several great bodies which compose the solar system are kept from joining together at the common centre of gravity by the rectilinear motions the Author of nature has impressed on each of them.'—BERKELEY. People are united who are bound to each other by similarity of opinion, sentiment, condition, or circumstances; 'Two Englishmen meeting at Rome or Constantinople soon run into familiarity. And in China or Japan, Europeans would think their being so a sufficient reason for their uniting in particular converse.'—BERKELEY. Parties coalesce when they agree to lay aside their leading distinctions of opinion, so as to co-operate; 'The Danes had been established during a longer period in England than in France; and though the similarity of their original language to that of the Saxons invited them to a more early coalition with the natives, they had found as yet so little example of civilized manners among the English, that they retained all their ancient ferocity.'—

Nothing can be added without some agent to perform the act of adding; but things may be joined by casually coming in contact; and things will unite of themselves which have an aptitude to accordance; coalition is that

species of union which arises mostly from external it is put is not specified; in the latter the syllable sub agency. The addition of quantities produces vast specifies the extremity as the part: to attack is to make agency. The addition of quantities produces vast sums; the junction of streams forms great rivers; the union of families or states constitutes their principal strength; by the coalition of sounds, dipathongs are formed. Bodies are enlarged by the addition of other bodies; people are sometimes joined in matrimony who are not united in affection; no two things can coalesce, between which there is an essential difference, or the slightest discordance.

Addition is opposed to subtraction; junction and union, to division; coalition, to distinction.

TO CONNECT, COMBINE, UNITE.

The idea of being put together is common to these terms, but with different degrees of proximity. To connect, from the Latin connecto, compounded of con and necto, signifying to knit together, is more remote than to combine (v. Association), and this than to unite To add).

What is connected and combined remains distinct,

but what is united loses all individuality.

Things the most dissimilar may be connected or combined; things of the same kind only can be united. Things or persons are connected more or less re motely by some common property or circumstance that serves as a tie; 'A right opinion is that which connects distant truths by the shortest train of intermediate pro-

distant truins by the shortest train of intermediate pro-positions. "Johnson. Things or persons are combined by a species of juncture; 'Fancy can combine the ideas which memory has treasured."—HAWKES-WORTH. Things or persons are united by a condition; 'A friend is he with whom our interest is united."—HAWKESworth. Houses are connected by means of a common passage: the armies of two nations are combined; two

armies of the same nation are united.

Trade, marriage, and general intercourse create a connexion between individuals; co-operation and similarity of tendency are grounds for combination; entire accordance leads to a union. It is dangerous to be connected with the wicked in any way; our reputation, if not our morals, must be the sufferers thereby. The most obnoxious combers of society are those in whom wealth, talents, influence, and a lawless ambition are combined. United is an epithet that should apply equally to nations and families; the same obedience to laws should regulate every man who lives under the same government; the same heart should animate every breast; the same spirit should dictate every action of every member in the community, who has a common interest in the preservation of the whole.

CONNECTED, RELATED.

Connected, v. To connect; related, from relate, in Latin relatus, participle of refero to bring back, sig-

nifies brought back to the same point.

These terms are employed in the moral sense, to express an affinity between subjects or matters of

thought. Connexion marks affinity in an indefinite manner; It is odd to consider the connexion between despotism and barbarity, and how the making one person more than man, makes the rest less.'—Addison. Relation denotes affinity in a specifick manner: 'All mankind are so related, that care is to be taken, in things to which all are liable, you do not mention what concerns one in terms which shall disgust another.'—Stelle. A connexion may be either close or remote; a relation direct or indirect. What is connected has some common principle on which it depends: what is related has some likeness with the object to which it is related: it is a part of some whole.

TO AFFIX, SUBJOIN, ATTACH, ANNEX.

Affix, in Latin affixus, participle of affigo, compounded Affix, in Latin agains, participle of agingo, compounded of a for ad and figo to fix, signifies to fix to a thing; subjoin is compounded of sub and join, signifying to join to the lower or farther extremity of a body; attach, v. To adhere; annex, in Latin annexus, participle of annexto, compounded of an or ad and necto to knit, signifies to knit or tie to a thing.

To affix is to put any thing as an essential to any whole; to subjoin is to put any thing as a subordinate oart to a whole: in the former case the part to which one thing adhere to another as an accompaniment; to annex is to bring things into a general connexion with each other.

A title is affixed to a book; a few lines are sub-joined to a letter by way of postscript; we attach blame to a person; a certain territory is annexed to a

kingdom.

Letters are affixed to words in order to modify their sense, or names are affixed to ideas; 'He that has settled in his mind determined ideas, with names affixed to them, will be able to discern their differences one from another.—Locks. It is necessary to subjoin remarks to what requires illustration; 'In justice to the opinion which I would wish to impress of the anniable character of Pisistratus, I subjoin to this paper some explanation of the word tyrant.'—Cumberland. We are apt from prejudice or particular circumstances to are apt from prejunce or particular circumstances to attack disgrace to certain professions, which are not only useful but important; 'As our nature is at present constituted, attacked by so many strong connexions to the world of sense, and enjoying a communication so feeble and distant with the world of spirits, we need fear no danger from cultivating intercourse with the latter as much as possible.'—BLAIR. Papers are annexed by way of appendix to some important transaction.

It is improper to affix opprobrious epithets to any community of persons on account of their calling in life. Men are not always scrupulous about the means of attaching others to their interest, when their ambitious views are to be forwarded. Every station in life, above that of extreme indigence, has certain privileges and the control of extreme indigence, the control of extreme indigence in the charge of the control of the con nexed to it, but none greater than those which are enjoyed by the middling classes; 'The evils inseparably annexed to the present condition are numerous and

afflictive.'-Johnson.

TO STICK, CLEAVE, ADHERE.

Stick, in Saxon stican, Low German steken, is connected with the Latin stype, Greek stype to prick; cleave, in Saxon cleofen, Low German kliven, Danish klaeve, is connected with our words glue and lime, the state of the state in Latin gluten, Greek κόλλα lime; adhere, v. To attach.

To stick expresses more than to cleave, and cleave than adhere: things are made to stick either by inci-sion into the substance, or through the intervention of some glutinous matter; they are made to cleave and adhere by the intervention of some foreign body; what sticks, therefore, becomes so fast joined as to render the bodies inseparable; what cleaves and adheres is less tightly bound, and more easily separable

Two pieces of clay will stick together by the in-corporation of the substance in the two parts; paper is made to stick to paper by means of glue; the tongue in a certain state will cleave to the roof of the mouth: paste, or even occasional moisture, will make soft substances adhere to each other, or to hard bodies. Animals stick to bodies by means of their claws; persons in the moral sense cleave to each other by never parting company; and they adhere to each other by uniting their interests.

Stick is employed for the most part on familiar subjects, but is sometimes applied to moral objects

Adieu, then, O my soul's far better part, Thy image sticks so close

behind .- Rows.

That the blood follows from my rending heart. DRYDEN.

Cleave and adhere are peculiarly proper in the moral acceptation:

Gold and his gains no more employ his mind, But, driving o'er the billows with the wind, Cleaves to one faithful plank, and leaves the rest

That there's a God from nature's voice is clear: And yet, what errours to this truth adhere?

FOLLOWER, ADHERENT, PARTISAN.

A follower is one who follows a person generally; an adherent is one who adheres to his cause; a partisan is the follower of a party: the follower follows either

the person, the interests, or the principles of any one; prologue was attached to, was a comedy, in which thus, the retinue of a nobleman, or the friends of a Laberius took the character of a slave. — Cumberthus, the retinue of a nobleman, or the friends of a statesman, or the friends of any man's opinions may be styled his followers;

The mournful followers, with assistant care, The groaning hero to his chariot bear .- POPE.

The adherent is that kind of follower who espouses The agreement is that Anni of joinage with esphuses the interests of another, as the adherents of Charles I; 'With Addison, the wits, his adherents and followers, were certain to concur.'—Johnson. A follower follows near or at a distance; but the adherent is always nows near of at a distance; but the adverent is anways near at hand; the partisan hangs on or keeps at a certain distance: the follower follows from various motives; the adherent adherent from a personal motive; the partisan, from a partial motive; 'They (the Jacobius) then proceed in argument, as if all those who disapprove of their new abuses must of course be partisans of the old.'—BURKE. Charles I. had as many adherents as he had followers; the rebels had as many partisans as they had adherents.

TO ADDUCE, ALLEGE, ASSIGN, ADVANCE.

Adduce, in Latin adduce, compounded of ad and duce to lead, signifies to bring forwards, or for a thing; allege, in French alleguer, in Latin allego, compounded of all or ad and lego, in Greek kéyw to speak, signifies to speak for a thing; assign, in French assigner, Latin assigno, compounded of as or ad and signo to sign or mark out, signifies to set apart for a purpose; advance comes from the Latin advenio, compounded of ad and venio to come, or cause to come, signifying to bring forward a thing.

An argument is adduced; a fact or a charge is alleged; a reason is assigned; a position or an opinion is advanced. What is adduced tends to corroborate or invalidate; 'I have said that Celsus adduces neither oral nor written authority against Christ's miracles.—Cumberland. What is alleged tends to criminate or exculpate; 'The criminal alleged in his defence, that what he had done was to raise mirth, and to avoid ceremony.'—ADDISON. What is assigned tends to justify; 'If we consider what providential reasons may be assigned for these three particulars, we shall find that the numbers of the Jews, their dispersion and adherence to their religion, have furnished every age, and every nation of the world, with the strongest arguments for the Christian faith. — Addison. What is advanced tends to explain and illustrate: 'I have heard of one that, having advanced some erroneous doctrines of philosophy, refused to see the experiments by which they were confuted.'--John-Whoever discusses disputed points must have arguments to adduce in favour of his principles: censures should not be passed where nothing improper can be alleged: a conduct is absurd for which no reason can be assigned: those who advance what they cannot maintain expose their ignorance as much as their folly.

The reasoner adduces facts in proof of what he has advanced. The accuser alleges circumstances in support of his charge. The philosophical investigator assigns causes for particular phenomena.

We may controvert what is adduced or advanced; we may deny what is alleged, and question what is assigned.

TO ADHERE, ATTACH.

Adhere, from the French adherer, Latin adhæreo, is compounded of ad and hareo to stick close to; attach in French attacher, is compounded of at or ad and tach or touch, both which come from the Latin tango to touch, signifying to come so near as to touch.

A thing is adherent by the union which nature pro-Atting is attached by arbitrary ties which keep it close to another thing. Glutinous bodies are apt to cohere to every thing they touch: a smaller building is sometimes attached to a larger by a passage, or some other mode of communication.

What adheres to a thing is closely joined to its outward surface; but what is attached may be fastened to it by the intervention of a third body. There is a universal adhesion in all the particles of matter one to another: the sails of a vessel are attached to a mast by means of ropes; 'The play which this pathetick

LAND.

In a figurative sense, the analogy is kept up in the use of these two words. Adherence is a mode of conduct; attachment a state of feeling. We adhere to opinions which we are determined not to renounce: 'The firm adherence of the Jews to their religion is no less remarkable than their numbers and dispersion.'— ADDISON. We are attached to opinions for which our feelings are strongly prepossessed. It is the character of obstinacy to adhere to a line of conduct after it is proved to be injurious: some persons are not to be attached by the ordinary ties of relationship or friendship; 'The conqueror seems to have been fully apprized of the strength which the new government might derive from a clergy more closely attached to himself.'-TYRWHITT.

ADHESION, ADHERENCE.

These terms are both derived from the verb adhere, one expressing the proper or figurative sense, and the other the moral sense or acceptation

There is a power of adhesion in all glutinous bodies; 'We suffer equal pain from the pertinacious adhesion of unwelcome images, as from the evanescence of those which are pleasing and useful."—Johnson. There is a disposition for adherence in steady minds; 'Shakspeare's adherence to general nature has exposed him to the ceusure of criticks, who form their judgements upon narrower principles.'-Johnson.

ADJACENT, ADJOINING, CONTIGUOUS

Adjacent, in Latin adjacens, participle of adjaceo, 13 compounded of ad and jaceo to lie near; adjoining, as the words imply, signifies being joined together; contiguous, in French contigu, Latin contiguus, comes from contingo or con and tango, signifying to touch close

What is adjacent may be separated altogether by the intervention of some third object; 'They have been beating up for volunteers at York, and the towns adjacent; but nobody will list.'—GRANVILLE. What is jacent; but nobody will list.—UKANTURE adjoining must touch in some part; 'As he happens to have no estate adjoining equal to his own, his oppressions are often horne without resistance.'—Johnson. What is conaguous must be fitted to touch entirely on one side; 'We arrived at the utmost boundaries of a wood which fay contiguous to a plain. - STEELE. Lands are adjustent to a house or a town; fields are adjoining to each other; houses contiguous to each other.

EPTHET, ADJECTIVE.

Epithet is the technical term of the rhetorician; adjective that of the sammarian. The same word is an epithet as it qualises the sense; it is an adjective as it is a part of speech: thus in the phrase 'Alexander the Great, great is an emiker, inasmuch as it designates Alexander in distinction from all other persons: it is an adjective as it expresses a quality in distinction from the noun Alexander, which denotes a thing. The cpithet $\hat{\epsilon}\pi i\theta \epsilon r \sigma v$ is the word edded by way of ornament to the diction; the adjective, from adjectivum, is the word added to the noun as its appendage, and made subservient to it in all its inflections. When we are word added to the norm as its aspendage, and made subservient to it in all its infections. When we are estimating the merits of any one's style or composition, we should speak of the cylikets he uses; when we are talking of words, their dependencies, and relations, we should speak of adjectives an epithet is either gentle or harsh, an adjective is either a noun or a pronoun adjective.

All adjectives are epithets, but all epithets are not adjectives; thus in Virgil's Pater Æneas, the pater is an epithet, but not an adjective.

TO ABSTRACT, SEPARATE, DISTINGUISH

Abstract, v. Absent; separate, in Latin separatus, participle of separo, is compounded of se and paro to dispose apart, signifying to put things asunder, o. at 2 distance from each other; distinguish, in French distinguer, Latin distinguo, is compounded of the says and time to three or colour, significant properties when the properties of the present of the colour significant properties of the properties rative preposition dis and tingo to tinge or colour, sig

nifying to give different marks by which they may be of separating the people from their government.'-

known from each other.

Abstract is used in the moral sense only; separate mostly in a physical sense; distinguish either in a moral or physical sense: we abstract what we wish to regard particularly and individually; we separate what we wish not to be united; we distinguish what we wish not to confound. The mind performs the office of abstraction for itself; separating and distinguishing are exerted on external objects.* Arrangement, place, time, and circumstances serve to separate; the ideas formed of things, the outward marks attached to them, the qualities attributed to them, serve to distinouish.

By the operation of abstraction the mind creates for itself a multitude of new ideas: in the act of separa-tion bodies are removed from each other by distance of place: in the act of distinguishing objects are discovered to be similar or dissimilar. Qualities are abstracted from the subjects in which they are inherent: countries are separated by mountains or seas: their inhabitants are distinguished by their dress, language, The mind is never less abstracted from or manners. one's friends than when separated from them by immense oceans: it requires a keen eye to distinguish objects that bear a great resemblance to each other. Volatile persons easily abstract their minds from the most solemn scenes to fix them on trifling objects that pass before them; 'We ought to abstract our minds from the observation of an excellence in those we converse with, till we have received some good informa-tion of the disposition of their minds.'—STEELE. An unsocial temper leads some men to separate themselves from all their companions; 'It is an eminent instance of Newton's superiority to the rest of mankind that he was able to separate knowledge from those weaknesses by which knowledge is generally disgraced."

JOHNSON. An absurd ambition leads others to distinguish themselves by their eccentricities; 'Fontenelle, in his panegyrick on Sir Isaac Newton, closes a long enumeration of that philosopher's virtues and attainments with an observation that he was not distinguished from other men by any singularity either natural or affected.'—JOHNSON.

TO DEDUCT, SUBTRACT.

Deduct, from the Latin deductus participle of deduco, and subtract, som subtractum participle of sub-traho, have both the sense of taking from, but the former is used in a general, and the latter in a technical sense. He who makes an estimate is obliged to deduct; he who makes a calculation is obliged to subtract

The tradesman deducts what has been paid from what remains due; 'The popish clergy took to them-selves the whole residue of the intestate's estate, after the two-thirds of the wife and children were deducted.

-Blackstone. The accountant subtracts small sums from the gross amount; 'A codicil is a supplement to a will, being for its explanation or alteration, or to make some addition to or else some subtraction from the former dispositions of the testator. '-Blackstone.

TO SEPARATE, SEVER, DISJOIN, DETACH.

Whatever is united or joined in any way may be separated (v. To subtract), be the junction natural or artificial; 'Can a body be inflammable from which it would puzzle a chymist to separate an inflammable ingredient ?'-BOYLE. To sever, which is but a variation of the verb to separate, is a mode of separating natural bodies, or bodies naturally joined: 'To men tion only that species of shell-fish that grow to the surface of several rocks, and immediately die upon their being severed from the place where they grow.'— Addison. We may separate in part or entirely; we sever entirely: we separate with or without violence; we sever with violence only: we may separate papers which have been pasted together, or fruits which have grown together; but the head is severed from the body, or a branch from the trunk. There is the same distinction between these terms in their moral application; 'They (the French republicans) never have abandoned, and never will abandon, their old steady maxim BURKE.

Better I were distract:

So should my thoughts be sever'd from my griefs. SHAKSPEARE.

To separate may be said of things which are only remotely connected; disjoin, which signifies to destroy a junction, is said of things which are so intimately connected that they might be joined; 'In times and renected that they might be joined; 'In times and regions, so disjoined from each other that there can
scarcely be imagined any communication of sentiments, has prevailed a general and uniform expectation
of propitiating God by corporeal austerities.'—Johnson. We separate as convenience requires; we may
separate in a right or a wrong manner: we mostly disjoin things which ought to remain joined: join things which ought to tentain joined. We separate syllables in order to distinguish them, but they are sometimes disjoined in writing by an accidental erasure. To detach, which signifies to destroy a contract, has an intermediate sense between separate and disjoin, applying to bodies which are neither so loosely connected as the former, nor so closely as the latter: we separate things that directly meet in no point; we disjoin those which meet in every point; we detach those things which meet in one point only; 'The several parts of it are detached one from the other, and yet join again, one cannot tell how.'—Pope. Sometimes the word detach has a moral application, as to detach persons, that is, the minds of persons, from their party; so likewise detached, in distinction from a connected piece of composition; 'As for the detached rhapsodies which Lycurgus in more early times brought with him out of Asia, they must have been exceedingly imperfect.'—Cumberland.

TO DISJOINT, DISMEMBER.

Disjoint signifies to separate at the joint; dismemoer

signifies to separate the members.

The terms here spoken of derive their distinct meaning and application from the signification of the words joint and member. A limb of the body may be disjointed if it be so put out of the joint that it cannot act; but the body itself is dismembered when the different limbs or parts are separated from each other. So in the metaphorical sense our ideas are said to be disjointed when they are so thrown out of their order that they do not fall in with one another; and king doms are said to be dismembered where any part or parts are separated from the rest;

Along the woods, along the moorish fens, Sighs the sad genius of the coming storm, And up among the loose disjointed cliffs.

THOMSON.

Where shall I find his corpse! What earth sustains His trunk dismembered and his cold remains? DRYDEN.

And yet, deluded man, A scene of crude disjointed visions past, And broken slumbers, rises still resolv'd With new flush'd hopes to run the giddy round. THOMSON.

'The kingdom of East Saxony was dismembered from that of Kent.'-HUME.

TO ADDICT, DEVOTE, APPLY.

Addict, in Latin addictus, participle of addice, com-pounded of ad and dice, signifies to speak or declare in favour of a thing, to exert one's self in its favour, devote, in Latin devotus, participle of devoveo, signi fies to vow or make resolutions for a thing; apply, in French appliquer, Latin applico, is compounded of ap or ad and plico, signifying to knit or join one's self to a thing.

To addict is to indulge one's self in any particular practice; to devote is to direct one's powers and means to any particular pursuit; to apply is to employ one's time or attention about any object. Men are addicted to vices: they devote their talents to the acquirement of any art or science: they apply their minds to the investigation of a subject.

Children begin early to addict themselves to lying when they have any thing to conceal. People who are devoted to their appetites are burdensome to them-

^{*} Vide Abbe Girard: "Distinguer, separer."

selves, and to all with whom they are connected. Whoever applies his mind to the contemplation of nature, and the works of creation, will feel himself impressed with sublime and reverential ideas of the

Creator.

Creator.

We are addicted to a thing from an irresistible passion or propensity: 'As the pleasures of luxnry are very expensive, they put those who are addicted to them upon raising fresh supplies of money by all the methods of rapaciousness and corruption.'—Addison. We are devoted to a thing from a strong but settled attachment to it; 'Persons who have devoted themelves to God are venerable to all who fear him.'—Berkeley. We apply to a thing from a sense of its utility; 'Tully has observed that a lamb no sooner falls from its mother, but immediately, and of its own accord, it applies itself to the teat.'—Addison. We addict ourselves to study by yielding to our passion for it; we devote ourselves to the service of our king and we devote ourselves to the service of our king and country by employing all our powers to their benefit: we apply to business by giving it all the time and attention that it requires.

Addict is seldomer used in a good than in a bad sense; devote is mostly employed in a good sense; apply in an indifferent sense.

TO ADDRESS, APPLY.

Address is compounded of ad and dress, in Spanish derecar, Latin direxi, preterit of dirigo to direct, signifying to direct one's self to an object; apply, v. To @ddict

An address is immediately directed from one party to another, either personally or by writing; an application may be made through the medium of a third person. An address may be made for an indifferent purpose or without any express object; but an application is always occasioned by some serious circum-

We address those to whom we speak or write; 'Many are the inconveniences which happen from the improper manner of address, in common speech, between persons of the same or different quality.'-STEELE. We apply to those to whom we wish to communicate some object of personal interest; 'Thus all the words of lordship, honour, and grace, are only repetitions to a man that the king has ordered him to be called so, but no evidences that there is any thing in himself that would give the man, who applies to him, those ideas without the creation of his master.'—
STEELE. An address therefore may be made without an application; and an application may be made by means of an address

It is a privilege of the British Constitution, that the subject may address the monarch, and apply for a redress of grievances. We cannot pass through the streets of the metropolis without being continually addressed by beggars, who apply for the relief of artificial more than for real wants. Men in power are always exposed to be publickly addressed by persons who wish to obtude their opinions upon them, and to have perpetual applications from those who solicit

favours.

An address may be rude or civil, an application may be frequent or urgent. It is impertment to address any one with whom we are not acquainted, unless we have any reason for making an application to them.

TO ATTEND TO, MIND, REGARD, HEED, NOTICE.

Attend, in French attendre, Latin attendo, compounded of at or ad and tendo to stretch, signifies to stretch or bend the mind to a thing; mind, from the noun mind, signifies to have in the mind; regard, in French regarder, compounded of re and garder, comes from the German wahren to see or look at, signifying to look upon again or with attention; heed, in German hathen, in all probability comes from vito, and the Latin video to see or pay attention to; notice, from the Latin notitia knowledge, signifies to get the knowledge of or have in one's mind.

The idea of fixing the mind on an object is common to all these terms. As this is the characteristick of attention, attend is the generick, the rest are specifick terms. We attend in minding, regarding, heeding, and noticing, and also in many cases in which these

words are not employed. To mind is to attend to a thing, so that it may not be forgotten; to regard is to look on a thing as of importance; to heed is to attend to a thing from a principle of caution; to notice is to think on that which strikes the senses. We attend to a speaker when we hear and under stand his words; 'Conversation will naturally furnish

us with hints which we did not attend to, and make us enjoy other men's parts and reflections as well as our own.'-Appison. We mind what is said when we

bear it in mind;

Cease to request me, let us mind our way, Another song requires another day.—DRYDEN.

We regard what is said by dwelling and reflecting on it; 'The voice of reason is more to be regarded than the bent of any present inclination.'—Addison. Heed is given to whatever awakens a sense of danger;

Ah! why was ruin so attractive made, Or why fond man so easily betray'd?
Why heed we not, while mad we haste along,
The gentle voice of peace or pleasure's song?

Notice is taken of what passes outwardly; 'I believe that the knowledge of Dryden was gleaned from accidental intelligence and various conversation, by vigi-Johnson. Children should always attend when spoken to, and mind what is said to them; they should regard the coursels of their parents, so as to make them the rule of their conduct, and heed their warnings so as to avoid the evil; they should notice what passes before them so as to apply it to some useful purpose. It is a part of politicuess to attend to every minute circum-stance which affects the comfort and convenience of those with whom we associate: men who are actuated by any passion seldom pay any regard to the dictates of conscience; nor heed the unfavourable impressions which their conduct makes on others; for in fact they seldom think what is said of them to be worth their

TO ATTEND, HEARKEN, LISTEN.

Attend, v. To attend to; hearken, in German horchen, is an intensive of hören to hear; listen probably comes from the German lüsten to lust after, because listening

springs from an eager desire to hear.

Attend is a mental action; hearken both corporeal and mental; listen simply corporeal. To attend is to have the mind engaged on what we hear; to hearken and listen are to strive to hear. People attend when they are addressed;

Hush'd winds the topmost branches scarcely bend, As if thy tuneful song they did attend.-DRYDEN

They hearken to what is said by others; 'What a deluge of lust, and fraud, and violence would in a little time overflow the whole nation, if these wise advocates for morality (the freethinkers) were universally heark-ened to.'--Berkeley. Men listen to what passes be tween others;

While Chaos hush'd stands listening to the noise, And wonders at confusion not his own.-Dennis.

It is always proper to attend, and mostly of importance to hearken, but frequently improper to listen. The mind that is occupied with another object cannot attend: we are not disposed to hearken when the thing does not appear interesting: curiosity often impels to listening to what does not concern the listener.

Listen is sometimes used figuratively for hearing, so as to attend: it is necessary at all times to listen to the dictates of reason. It is of great importance for a learner to attend to the rules that are laid down: it is essential for young people in general to hearken to the counsels of their elders, and to listen to the admonitions of conscience.

TO HEAR, HEARKEN, OVERHEAR.

To hear is properly the act of the ear; it is sometimes totally abstracted from the mind, when we hear and do not understand;

I look'd, I listen'd, dreadful sounds I hear, And the dire forms of hostile gods app

DRYDEN.

Fo hearken is an act of the ear, and the mind in conjunction; it implies an effort to hear, a tendency of the ear:

But aged Nereus hearkens to his love .- DRYDEN.

To overhear is to hear clandestinely, or unknown to the person who is heard, whether designedly or not;

If he fail of that

He will have other means to cut you off;

I overheard him and his practices.—Shakspeare. We hear sounds: we hearken for the sense; we overhear the words: a quick ear hears the smallest sound; a willing mind hearkens to what is said: a prying curiosity leads to overhearing.

ATTENTION, APPLICATION, STUDY.

These terms indicate a direction of the thoughts to an object, but differing in the degree of steadiness and force.

Attention (v. To attend to) marks the simple bending of the mind; application (v. To address) marks an envelopment or engagement of the powers; a bringing them into a state of close contact; study, from the Latin stude to desire eagerly, marks a degree of application that arises from a strong desire of attaining the object.

Attention is the first requisite for making a progress in the acquirement of knowledge; it may be given in various degrees, and it rewards according to the proportion in which it is given; a divided attention is however more hutful than otherwise; it retards the progress of the learner while it injures his mind by improper exercise; 'Those whom sorrow incapacitates to enjoy the pleasures of contemplation, may properly apply to such diversions, provided they are innocent as lay strong hold on the attention. Johnson. Application is requisite for the attainment of perfection in any pursuit; it cannot be partial or variable, like attention; it must be the constant exercise of power or the regular and uniform use of means for the attainment of an end; youth is the period for application, when the powers of body and mind are in full vigour no degree of it in after-life will supply its deficiency in younger years; 'I could heartly wish there was the same application and endeavours to cultivate and improve our church musick as have been lately bestowed upon that of the stage."—Addison. Study is that species of application which is most purely intellectual in its nature; it is the exercise of the mind for itself and in itself, its native effort to arrive at maturity; it embraces both attention and application. The student attends to all he hears and sees; applies what he has learned to the acquirement of what he wishes to learn, and digests the whole by the exercise of reflection: as nothing is thoroughly understood or properly reduced to practice without study, the professional man must choose this road in order to reach the summit of excellence; 'Other things may be seized with might, or purchased with money, but knowledge is to be gained only with study.'-Johnson.

TO DISREGARD, NEGLECT, SLIGHT.

To disregard signifies properly not to regard; neglect, in Latin neglectus, participle of negligo, compounded of nec and lego, signifies not to choose; slight, from light, signifies to make light of or set light by.

light by.

We disregard the wamings, the words, or opinions of another; we neglect their injunctions or their precepts. To disregard results from the settled purpose of the mind; to neglect from a temporary forgetfulness or oversight. What is disregarded is seen and passed over; what is neglected is generally not thought of at the time required. What is disregarded does not strike the mind at all; what is neglected enters the mind only when it is before the eye: the former is an action employed on present objects; the latter on that which is past: what we disregard is not esteemed; 'The new notion that has prevailed of late years that the Christian religion is little more than a good system of morality, must in course draw on a disregard to spiritual exercise.'—Gibson. What we neglect is often esteemed, but not sufficiently to be remembered or practised;

Beauty 's a charm, but soon the charm will pass; As lilies lie neglected on the plain, While dusky hyacinths for use remain.—DRYDEN.

A child disregards the prudent counsels of a parent; he neglects to use the remedies which have been prescribed to him.

Disregard and neglect are frequently not personal acts; they respect the thing more than the person; stight is altogether an intentional act towards an individual. We disregard or neglect things often from a heedlessness of temper; the consequence either of youth or habit: we slight a person from feelings of dislike or contempt. Young people should disregard nothing that is said to them by their superiours; nor neglect any thing which they are enjoined to do; nor slight any one to whom they owe personal attention; 'You cannot expect your son should have any regard for one whom he sees you slight.'—LOCKE. Slight is also sometimes applied to moral objects in the same sense; 'When once devotion fancies herself under the influence of a divine impulse, it is no wonder she slights human ordinances.'—Applison.

INADVERTENCY, INATTENTION, OVERSIGHT.

Inadvertency, from advert to turn the mind to, is allied to inattention (v. Attentive), when the act of the mind is signified in general terms; and to over-sight when any particular instance of inadvertency signt when any particular instance of indavertency occurs. Inadvertency never designates a habit, but inattention does; the former term, therefore, is unqualified by the reproachful sense which attaches to the latter: any one may be guilty of inadvertencies, since the mind that is occupied with many subjects equally serious may be turned so steadily towards some that others may escape notice; 'Ignorance or inadvertency will admit of some extenuation.'—South. Inattenticn, which designates a direct want of atten-tion, is always a fault, and belongs only to the young. or such as are thoughtless, either by nature or circumstances; 'The expense of attending (the Scottish Parliament), the inattention of the age to any legal or regular system of government, but above all, the exorbitant authority of the nobles, made this privilege of so little value as to be almost neglected.'-ROBERT-Since inadvertency is an occasional act, it must not be too often repeated, or it becomes inattention An oversight is properly a species of inadvertency which arises from looking over, or passing by, a thing Inadvertency seems to refer rather to the cause of the mistake, namely, the particular abstraction of the mind from the object; the term oversight seems to refer to the mistake itself, namely, the missing something which ought to have been taken: it is an inadvertency in a person to omit speaking to one of the company; it is an oversight in a tradesman who omits to include certain articles in his reckoning: we pardon an inadvertency in another, since the consequences are never serious; we must be guarded against oversights in business, as their consequences may be serious; 'The ancient criticks discover beauties which escape the observation of the vulgar, and very often find reasons for palliating such little slips and oversights in the writings of eminent authors.'-Addison.

TO NEGLECT, OMIT.

Neglect, v. To disregard; omit, in Latin omitto, or ob and mitto, signifies to put aside.

The idea of letting pass or slip, or of not using, is comprehended in the signification of both these terms; the former is, however, a culpable, the latter an indifferent, action. What we neglect ought not to be neglected:

Heaven,

Where honour due and reverence none neglect.
MILTON.

What we omit may be omitted or otherwise, as convenience requires; 'These personal comparisons I omit, because I would say nothing that may savour of a spirit of flattery.'—Bacon. In indifferent matters they may sometimes be applied indifferently; 'It is the great excellence of learning, that it borrows very little from time or place; but this quality which constitutes much of its value is one occasion of neglect. Wha

may be done at all times with equal propriety is deferred from day to day, till the mind is gradually reconciled to the *omission*. —Johnson. These terms differ, however, in the objects to which they are applied: that is neglected which is practicable or serves for action; that is omitted which serves for intellectual purposes: we neglect an opportunity, we neglect the means, the time, the use, and the like; we omit a word, a sentence, a figure, a stroke, a circumstance, and the like.

NEGLIGENT, REMISS, CARELESS, THOUGHT-LESS, HEEDLESS, INATTENTIVE.

Negligent (v. To disregard) and remiss respect the outward action: careless, heedless, thoughtless, and inattentive respect the state of the mind.

Negligence and remissness consist in not doing what ought to be done; carelessness and the other mental defects may show themselves in doing wrong, as well as in not doing at all; negligence and remissness are therefore, to carelessness and the others, as the effect to the cause; for no one is so apt to be negligent and remiss as he who is careless, although at the same time negligence and remissions arise from other causes. and carelessness, thoughtlessness, &c. produce like-wise other effects. Negligent is a stronger term than remiss: one is negligent in neglecting the thing that is expressly before one's eyes; one is remiss in forgetting that which was enjoined some time previously: the want of will renders a person negligent; the want of interest renders a person remiss: one is negligent in regard to business, and the performance of bodily labour; one is remiss in duty, or in such things as respect mental exertion. Servants are commonly negligent in what concerns their master's interest; teachers are remiss in not correcting the faults of their pupils. Negligence is therefore the fault of persons of all descriptions, but particularly those in low condition;
The two classes most apt to be negligent of this duty (religious retirement) are the men of pleasure, and the men of business.'—BLAIR. Remissness is a fault peculiar to those in a more elevated station;

My gen'rous brother is of gentle kind,

He seems remiss, but bears a valiant mind .- Pork.

A clerk in an office is negligent in not making proper memorandums; a magistrate, or the head of an institution, is remiss in the exercise of his authority by not checking irregularities.

Careless denotes the want of care (v. Care) in the of thought or reflection about things; thoughtless denotes the want of thought or reflection about things; headless denotes the want of heeding (v. To attend) or regarding things; inattentive denotes the want of attention to things (v.

To attend to)

One is careless only in trivial matters of behaviour; one is thoughtless in matters of greater moment, in what respects the conduct. Carelessness leads children to make mistakes in their exercises, or in whatever they commit to memory or to paper; thoughtless-ness leads many who are not children into serious errours of conduct, when they do not think of or bear in mind the consequences of their actions. Carelessness is occasional, thoughtlessness is permanent; the former is inseparable from a state of childhood, the latter is a constitutional defect, and sometimes attends a man to his grave. Carelessness as well as thoughtlessness betrays itself not only in the thing that immediately employs the mind, but thoughtlessness respects that which is past, and carelessness lies in that which regards futurity; 'If the parts of time were not variously coloured, we should never discern their departure and succession, but should live thoughtless of the past, and careless of the future.'-Johnson. may not only be careless in not doing the thing well that we are about, but we may be careless in neglecting to do it at all, or careless about the event, or care less about our future interest; it still differs, however, from thoughtless in this, that it bespeaks a want of interest or desire for the thing; but thoughtless be-speaks the want of thinking or reflecting upon it: the careless person abstains from using the means, be-cause he does not care about the end; the thoughtless person cannot act, because he does not think: the careless person sees the thing, but does not try to obtain it; the thoughtless person has not the thought of it in his mind.

Careless is applied to such things as require permanent care ; thoughtless to such as require permanent thought; heedless and inattentive are applied to pass ing objects that engage the senses or the thoughts of the moment. One is careless in business, thoughtless in conduct, heedless in walking or running, inattentive in listening: careless and thoughtless persons neglect the necessary use of their powers; the heedless and inattentive neglect the use of their senses. Careless people are unfit to be employed in the management of any concerns; thoughtless people are unfit to have the management of themselves; heedless children are unfit to go by themselves; inattentive children are unfit to be led by others. One is careless and inattentive in providing for his good; one is thoughtless and heedless in not guarding against evil: a careless person does not trouble himself about advancement; an inattentive person does not concern himself about improvement; a thoughtless person brings himself into distress; a heedless person exposes himself to accidents.

Hecdless and inattentive are, for the most part, applied to particular circumstances, and in that case they are not taken in a bad sense. We may be heedless of a thing of which it is not needful to take any

There in the ruin, hecdless of the dead, The shelter-seeking peasant builds his shed.

GOLDSMITH

Or inattentive if the thing does not demand attention; In the midst of his glory the Almighty is not inattentive to the meanest of his subjects."—BLAIR.

THOUGHTFUL, CONSIDERATE, DELIBERATE.

Thoughtful, or full of thinking (v. To think, reflect), considerate, or ready to consider (v. To consider, reflect), and deliberate, ready to deliberate (v. To consult), rise upon each other in their signification; he who is thoughtful does not forget his duty; he who is considerate pauses, and considers properly what is his duty; he who deliberates considers deliberately. It is a recommendation to a subordinate person to be thoughtful in doing what is wished of him; 'Men's minds are in general inclined to levity, much more than to thoughtful melancholy. —Blar. It is the recommendation of a confidential person to be considerate, as he has often to judge according to his own discre tion; 'Some things will not bear much zeal; and the more earnest we are about them, the less we recommend ourselves to the approbation of sober and considerate men.'-Tillotson. It is the recommendation of a person who is acting for himself in critical matters to be deliberate; 'There is a vast difference between sins of infirmity and those of presumption, as vast as between inadvertency and deliberation.'—
South. There is this farther distinction in the word deliberate, that it may be used in the bad sense to mark a settled intention to do evil; young people may some-times plead in extenuation of their guilt, that their misdeeds do not arise from deliberate malice.

ATTENTIVE, CAREFUL.

Attentive marks a readiness to attend (v. To attend to); careful signifies full of care (v. Care, solicitude).
These epithets denote a fixedness of mind: we are attentive in order to understand and improve; we are careful to avoid mistakes. An attentive scholar profits by what is told him in learning his task; a careful

scholar performs his exercise correctly.

Attention respects matters of judgement; care relates to mechanical or ordinary actions: we listen attentively; we read or write carefully. A servant must be attentive to the orders that are given him, and careful not to injure his master's property. A translator must be attentive; a transcriber careful. A tradesman ought to be attentive to the wishes of his customers, and careful in keeping his accounts. In an extended and moral application of these terms they preserve a similar distinction; 'The use of the passions is to stir up the soul, to awaken the understanding, and to make the whole man more vigorous and and to make the whole man hore vigorous and attentive in the prosecution of his designs.'—Addison. 'We should be as careful of our words as our actions, and as far from speaking as doing ill.'—STEELE.

CARE, SOLICITUDE, ANXIETY.

Care, in Latin cura, comes probably from the Greek κυρος power, because whoever has power has a weight care; solicitude, in French solicitude, Latin sollicitudo from sollicito to disquiet, compounded of solum and cito to put altogether in commotion, signifies a complete state of restless commotion; anxiety, in French anxieté, Latin anxietas, from anxieus and ango, Greek ἄγχω, Hebrew הגק to hang, suffocate, torment, signifies a state of extreme suffering.

These terms express mental pain in different degrees; care less than solucitude, and this less than anxiety. Care consists of thought and feeting; solucitude and anxiety of feeting only. Care respects the past, present, and future; solicitude and anxiety regard the present and future. Care is directed towards the present and absent, near or at a distance; solicitude and anxiety are employed about that which is absent and

at a certain distance.

We are careful about the means; solicitous and anxious about the end; we are solicitous to obtain a good; we are anxious to avoid an evil. The cares of a parent exceed every other in their weight. He has an unceasing solicitude for the welfare of his children. and experiences many an anxious thought lest all his

care should be lost upon them.

Care, though in some respects an infirmity of our nature, is a consequence of our limited knowledge, which we cannot altogether remove; as it respects the present, it is a bounden duty; but when it extends to futurity, it must be kept within the limits of pious resignation:

Deep scars of thunder had intrench'd, and care

Sat on his faded cheek .- MILTON.

Solicitude and anxiety, as habits of the mind, are irreconcilable with the faith of a Christian, which teaches him to take no thought for the morrow; 'Can your solicitude alter the course, or unravel the intricacy, of human events?"—BLAIR. 'The story of a man who grew gray in the space of one night's anxiety is very famous."-Spectator.

CARE, CONCERN, REGARD.

Care, in Latin cura, comes probably from the Greek $\kappa \dot{\nu} \rho o \varsigma$ authority because the weight of care rests with those in authority; concern, from the Latin con-cerno, compounded of con and cerno, signifies the look-ing thoroughly into a thing; regard, in French regarder, compounded of re and garder to look, signifies looking back upon a thing

Care and concern consist both of thought and feeling, but the latter has less of thought than feeling: regard consists of thought only. We care for a thing which is the object of our exertions and wishes;

His trust was equal with the Deity to be deem'd, Equal in strength, and rather than be less $Car^{2}d$ not to be at all.—Milton.

We concern ourselves about a thing when it engages our attention;

Our country's welfare is our first concern .- HAVARD. We have regard for a thing on which we set some value and bestow some reflection;

Stander meets no regard from noble minds: Only the base believe what the base only utter.

Care is altogether an active principle: the careful man leaves no means untried in the pursuit of his object; care actuates him to personal endeavours; it is opposed to negligence. Concern is not so active in its nature: the person who is concerned will be contented to see exertions made by others; it is opposed to indifference. Regard is only a sentiment of the mind; it may lead to action, but of itself extends no farther than reflection

The business of life is the subject of care;

Well, on my terms thou wilt not be my heir: If thou car'st little, less shall be my care. - DRYDEN. Religion is the grand object of concern. 'The more the authority of any station in society is extended, the more it concerns publick happiness that it be committed to men fearing God.'-ROGERS. The esteem of others]

is an object of regard; 'He has rendered himself worthy of their most favourable regards.'—SMITH.

No one ought to expect to be exempt from care;

the provision of a family, and the education of children, are objects for which we ought to take some care, or at least have some concern, inasmuch as we have a regard for our own welfare, and the well-being of society.

CARE, CHARGE, MANAGEMENT.

Care, v. Care, solicitude; charge, in French charge a burden, in Armorick and Bretan carg, which is pro-bably connected with cargo and carry, is figuratively employed in the sense of a burden; a management,

employed in the sense of a burden; a management, in French ménagement, from ménager and mêner to lead, and the Latin manus a hand, signifies direction.

Care (v. Care, concern) includes generally both charge and management; but in the strict sense, it comprehends personal labour: charge involves responsibility: management (v. To conduct) includes regulation and order.

tion and order.

A gardener has the care of a garden; a nurse has the charge of children; a steward has the management of a farm: we must always act in order to take care; we must look in order to take charge; we must always think in order to manage.

Care is employed in the ordinary affairs of life; charge in matters of trust and confidence; management in matters of business and experience: the female has the care of the house, and the man that of providing for his family;

Care's a father's right—a pleasing right, In which he labours with a home-felt joy.—Shirley,

An instructer has the charge of youth; 'I can never believe that the repugnance with which Tiberius took the charge of the government upon him was wholly feigned. —Cumberland. A clerk has the management of a business; 'The woman, to whom her husband left the whole management of her lodgings, and who persisted in her purpose, soon found an opportunity to put it into execution.'—HAWKESWORTH.

CAREFUL, CAUTIOUS, PROVIDENT.

Careful signifies full of care (v. Care, solicitude); cautious is in Latin cautus, participle of caveo, which comes from cavus hollow, or a cave, which was ori-ginally a place of security; hence the epithet cautious in the sense of seeking security; provident, in Latin, providens, signifies foreseeing or looking to beforeliand,

from pro and video.

We are careful to avoid mistakes; cautious to avoid danger; provident to avoid straits and difficulties: care is exercised in saving and retaining what we have: caution must be used in guarding against the evils that may be; providence must be employed in supplying the good, or guarding against the contingent evils of the future. Providence is a determinate and extended kind of caution.

Care consists in the use of means, in the exercise of the faculties for the attainment of an end; a careful person omits nothing;

To cure their mad ambition they were sent

To rule a distant province, each alone; What could a careful father have done more? DRYDEN.

Caution consists rather in abstaining from action; a cautious person will not act where he ought not:

Flush'd by the spirit of the genial year, Be greatly cautious of your sliding hearts.

THOMSON.

Providence respects the use of things; it is both care and caution in the management of property: a pro-vident person acts for the future by abstaining for the present:

Biest above men if he perceives and feels The blessings he is heir to: he! to whom His provident forefathers have bequeathed In this fair district of their native isle A free inheritance.—Cumberland.

CAUTIOUS, WARY, CIRCUMSPECT.

Cautious, v. Careful: wary, from the same as aware (v. To be aware of), signifies ready to look out; cir-

cumspect, in Latin circumspectus, participle of circumspicio to look about, signifies ready to look on all sides. l'hese epithets denote a peculiar care to avoid evil;

but cautious expresses less than the other two, it is necessary to be cautious at all times; to be wary in cases of peculiar danger; to be circumspect in matters of peculiar deficacy and difficulty.

Caution is the effect of fear; wariness of danger; circumspection of experience and reflection. The cautious man reckons on contingencies; he guards against the evils that may be, by pausing before he acts;

The strong report of Arthur's death has worse Effect on them, than on the common sort; The yulgar only shake their cautious heads.

Or whisper in the ear wisely suspicious.-CIBBER.

The wary man looks for the danger which he suspects to be impending, and seeks to avoid it; ' Let not that to be impending, and seeks to avoid it; 'Let not that vary caution, which is the fruit of experience, degenerate into craft.'-Blair. The coreumspect man weights and deliberates; he looks around and calculates on possibilities and probabilities; he seeks to attain his end by the safest means; 'No pious man can be so cir-cumspect in the care of his conscience, as the covetous man is in that of his pocket.'-STEELE. A tradesman must be cautious in his dealings with all men; he must be wary in his intercourse with designing men; he must be circumspect when transacting business of particular importance and intricacy. The traveller must be cautious when going a road not familiar to him; he must be wary when passing over slippery and dangerous places; he must be circumspect when going through obscure, uncertain, and winding passages

A person ought to be cautious not to give offence; he ought to be wary not to entangle himself in ruinous litigations; he ought to be circumspect not to engage in what is above his abilities to complete. sary to be cautious not to disclose our sentiments too freely before strangers; to be wary in one's speech before busy bodies and calumniators; to be circumspect whenever we speak on publick matters, respecting either politicks or religion.

MINDFUL, REGARDFUL, OBSERVANT.

Mindful, signifies full of minding, or thinking on that which is past; it mostly regards matters of prudence, or the counsel we receive from others;

Be mindful, when thou hast entomb'd the shoot, With store of earth around to feed the root .- DRYDEN.

Regardful respects that which in itself demands regard or serious thought;

No, there is none; no ruler of the stars Regardful of my miseries .- HILL.

Observant respects that which has been imposed upon us, or become a matter of obligation;

Observant of the right, religious of his word.

DRYDEN.

A child should always be mindful of its parents' instructions; they should never be forgotten: every one should be regardful of his several duties and obligations; they never ought to be neglected: one ought to be observant of the religious duties which one' to be observant of the rengious duties which one's profession enjoins upon him; they cannot with propriety be passed over. By being mindful of what one hears from the wise and good, one learns to be wise and good; by being regardful of what is due to one's self, and to society at large, one learns to pass through the world with satisfaction to one's own mind and esteem from others; by being observant of all rule and order, we afford to others a salutary example for their imi-

AWARE, ON ONE'S GUARD, APPRIZED, CONSCIOUS.

Aware, compounded of a or on and ware, signifies to be on the look out, from the Saxon waer, German, &c. wahren, Greek dodge to see: guard, in French garder, is connected with ward, in Saxon waerd, German, &c. gewahrt, participle of wahren; apprized, in French appress, from apprendire to apprehend, learn, or understand; conscious, in Latin conscius, of con and scius knowing, signifies knowing within one's self. The idea of having the expectation or knowledge of

a thing is common to all these terms. We are aware of a thing when we calculate upon it; 'The first steps in the breach of a man's integrity are more important than men are aware of.'—STEELE. We are on our guard against an evil when we are prepared for it What establishment of religion more friendly to publick happiness could be desired or framed (than our How zealous ought we to be for its preservation; how much on our guard against every danger which threatens to trouble it."—BLAIR. We are apprized of that of which we have had an intimation, or have been informed of; 'In play the chance of loss and gain ought always to be equal, at least each party should be apprized of the force employed against him.' -Steele. We are conscious of that in which we have ourselves been concerned; 'I know nothing so hard for a generous mind to get over as calumny and reproach, and cannot find any method of quieting the soul under them, besides this single one, of our being conscious to ourselves that we do not deserve them. ADDISON.

To be aware, and on one's guard, respect the future; to be apprized, either the past or present; to be conscious, only the past. Experience enables a man to be scrous, only the past. Experience and caution dictate to him the necessity of being on his guard against evils. Whoever is fully aware of the precarious tenure by which he holds all his goods in this world, will be on his guard to prevent any calamities, as far as the use of means in his control.

We are apprized of events, or what passes outwardly, through the medium of external circumstances; we are conscious only through the medium of ourselves, of what passes within. We are apprized of what has hap-pened from indications that attract our notice; we are conscious of our guilt from the recollection of what we have done. A commander who is not aware of all the contingencies that influence the fate of a battle, who is not on his guard against the stratagems of the enemy, who is not fully apprized of their intentions, and conscious of his own strength to frustrate them, has no grounds to expect a victory; the chances of defeat are greatly against him.

HEED, CARE, ATTENTION

Heed, which through the medium of the German huthen probably comes from the Latin vito to avoid, and video to see, applies to matters of importance to one's moral conduct; care (v. Care, concern) applies to matters of minor import: a man is required to take heed; a child is required to take care: the former exercises his understanding in taking heed; the latter exercises his thoughts and his senses in taking care: the former looks to the remote and probable consequences of his actions, and endeavours to prevent the quencies of ms actions, and enteravours to prevent the evil that may bappen; the latter sees principally to the thing that is immediately before him. When a young man enters the world, he must take heed lest he be not ensnared by his companions into vicious practices:

Next you, my servants, heed my strict command, Without the walls a ruin'd temple stands.

In a slippery path we must take care that we do not fall; 'I believe the hiatus should be avoided with more

care in poetry than in oratory.'—Pope.

Heed has moreover the sense of thinking on what is proposed to our notice, in which it agrees with atten-tion, which from the Latin attendo, or at and tendo to stretch, signifies a tension or stretching the mind towards an object; hence we speak of giving heed and paying attention: but the former is applied only to that which is conveyed to us by another, in the shape of a direction, a caution, or an instruction; but the latter is said of every thing which we are set to perform. A good child gives heed to his parents when they caution him against any dangerous or false step; he pays attention to the lesson which is set him to He who gives no heed to the counsels of others is made to repent his folly by bitter experience; 'It is a way of calling a man a fool, when no heed is given to what he says.'—L'ESTRANGE. He who fails in paying attention to the instruction of others cannot expect to grow wiser; 'He perceived nothing but silence,

and signs of attention to what he would further say.' -BACON.

All were attentive to the godlike man .- DRYDEN.

ESTEEM, RESPECT, REGARD.

Esteem, from the Latin æstimo, signifies literally to set a value upon; respect, from the Latin respicio, signifies to look back upon, to look upon with attention; regard, v. To attend to.

A favourable sentiment towards particular objects is included in the meaning of all these terms.

Esteem and respect flow from the understanding; regard springs from the heart, as well as the head: esteem is produced by intrinsick worth; respect by extrinsick qualities; regard is affection blended with esteem; it is in the power of every man, independently of all collateral circumstances, to acquire the esteem of others; but respect and regard are within the reach of a limited number only: the high and the low, the rich and the poor, the equal and the unequal, are each, in their turn, the objects of esteem; 'How great honour and esteem will men declare for one whom perhaps they never saw before'—"Tillorson. Those only are objects of respect who have some mark of distinction, or superiority either of birth, talent, acquirements, or the like;

Then for what common good my thoughts inspire, Attend, and in the son respect the sire.—Pope.

Regard subsists only between friends, or those who stand in close connexion with each other; industry and sobriety excite our esteem for one man, charity and benevolence our esteem for another; superiour learning or abilities excite our respect for another; a long acquaintance, or a reciprocity of kind offices, excite a mutual regard; 'He has rendered himself worthy of their most favourable regards.'—SMITH. This latter term is also used figuratively, and in a moral application; 'Cheerfulness bears the same friendly regard to the mind as to the body.'—Applison.

TO HONOUR, REVERENCE, RESPECT.

These terms agree in expressing the act of an inferiour towards his superiour; but honour (v. Glory) expresses less than reverence (v. To adore), and more than respect (v. To esteem).

To honour, as applied to persons, is mostly an outward act; to reverence is either an act of the mind, or the outward expression of a sentiment; to respect is only an act of the mind. We honour God by adoration and worship, as well as by the performance of his will; we honour our parents by obeying them and giving them our personal service: we reverence our Maker by cherishing in our minds a dread of offending him, and making a fearful use of his holy name and word; we reverence our parents by holding a similar sentiment in a less degree; 'This is a duty in the fifth commandment required towards our prince and our parent, a respect which in the notion of it implies a mixture of love and fear, and in the object equally supposes goodness and power.'—Rockrs. 'The foundation of every proper disposition towards God must be laid in reverence, that is, admiration mixed with awe.'—Blair. We respect the wise and good; 'Establish your character on the respect of the wise, not on the flattery of dependants.'—Blair.

To honour and respect are extended to other objects besides our Maker and our parents; but reverence is confined to objects of a religious description; "We honour the king and all that are put in authority under him," by rendering to them the tribute that is due to their station; we respect all who possess superiour qualities: the former is an act of duty, it flows out of the constitution of civil society; the latter is a voluntary act flowing out of the temper of the mind towards others. To respect, as I have before observed, signifies merely to feel respect; but to show respect, or a mark of respect, supposes an outward action which brings it still nearer to honour. It is a mark of honour in subjects to keep the birth-day of their sovereign; it is a mark of respect to any individual to give him the upper seat in a room or at a table. Divine honours were formerly paid by the Romans to some of their emperours respect is always paid to age in all Christian

countries; among the heathens it differed according to the temper of the people.

To honour when applied to things is also used in the sense of holding in honour, in which case it expresses a stronger sentiment than respect, which solely implies regard to; 'Of learning, as of virtue, it may be affirmed that it is at once honoured and neglected.'—JOHNSON.

The bless'd gods do not love Ungodly actions; but respect the right And in the works of pious men delight.—CHAPMAN.

HONESTY, HONOUR.

These terms both respect the principle which actuates men in the adjustment of their rights with each other. The words are both derived from the same source, namely, the Hebrew substance or wealth (v. Ho nesty), which, being the primitive source of esteem among men, became at length put for the measure or among men, became at length put the manner standard of esteem, namely, what is good. Hence honesty and honour are both founded upon what is estimable; with this difference, that honesty is confined to the first principles or laws upon which civil society is founded, and honour is an independent principle that extends to every thing which by usage has been admitted as estimable or entitled to esteem; 'Honesty, in the language of the Romans, as well as in French, rather signifies a composition of those qualities which generally acquire honour and esteem to those who possess them.'—TEMPLE. 'If by honour be meant any thing distinct from conscience, 't is no more than a regard to the censure and esteem of the world.'—Rockes. An honest action, therefore, can never reflect so much credit on the agent as an honourable action; since in credit on the agent as an nonvarious action, since in the performance of the one he may be guided by motives comparatively low, whereas in the other case he is actuated solely by a fair regard for the honour or the esteem of others. To a breach of honesty is attached esteem of others. To a breach of honesty is attached punishment and personal inconvenience in various forms; but to a breach of honour is annexed only disgrace or the ill opinion of others; he, therefore, who sets more value or interest on the gratification of his passions, than on the esteem of the world, may gain his petty purpose with the sacrifice of his honour he who strives to be dishonest is thwarted in his purpose by the intervention of the laws, which deprive him of his unworthy gains: consequently, men are compelled to be honest whether they will or not, but they are entirely free in the choice of being honourable.

On the other hand, since honesty is founded on the very first principles of human society, and honour on the incidental principles which have been annexed to them in the progress of time and culture; the former is positive and definite, and he who is actuated by this principle can never err; but the latter is indefinite and variable, and as it depends upon opinion it will easily mislead. We cannot have a false honesty, but we may have false honour. Honesty always keeps a man within the line of his duty; but a mistaken notion of what is honourable may carry a man very far from what, is right, and may even lead him to run counter to common honesty.

HONESTY UPRIGHTNESS, INTEGRITY, PROBITY,

Honesty, v. Fair; uprightness, from upright, in German aufrichtig or aufgerichtet, from aufrichten to set up, signifies in a straight direction, not deviating nor turning aside.

Honest is the most familiar and universal term, it is applied alike to actions and principles, to a mode of conduct or a temper of mind: npright is applied to the conduct, but always with reference to the moving principle. As it respects the conduct, honesty is a much more homely virtue than nprightness: a man is said to be honest who in his dealings with others does not violate the laws; thus a servant is honest who does not take any of the property of his master, or suffer it to be taken; a tradesman is honest who does not sell bad articles; and people in general are denominated honest who pay what they owe, and do not adopt any methods of defrauding others; honesty in this sense, therefore, consists in negatives; but up-

rightness is positive, and extends to all matters which I are above the reach of the law, and comprehends not only every thing which is known to be hurtful, but also whatever may chance to be hurtful. To be honest requires nothing but a knowledge of the first principles of civil society; it is learned, and may be practised, by the youngest and most ignorant: but to be upropht supposes a superiority of understanding or information, which qualifies a person to discriminate between that which may or may not injure another. An honest man is contented with not overcharging another for that which he sells to him; but an upright man seeks to provide him with that which shall fully answer his purpose: a man will not think himself dis honest who leaves another to find out defects which it is possible may escape his notice; but an upright man will rather suffer a loss himself than expose another to an errour which may be detrimental to his interests. From this difference between honesty and uprightness arises another, namely, that the honest man may be honest only for his own convenience, out of regard to his character, or a fear of the laws; but the upright man is always upright, from his sense of what is right, and his concern for others.

Honest, in its extended sense, as it is applied to principles, or to the general character of a man, is of a higher cast than the common kind of honesty above mentioned; uprightness, however, in this case, still preserves its superiority. An honest principle is the first and most universally applicable principle, which the mind forms of what is right and wrong; and the honest man, who is so denominated on account of his having this principle is backed when with respect in having this principle, is looked upon with respect, in-asmuch as he possesses the foundation of all moral virtue in his dealings with others. Honest is here the generick, and uprightness the specifick term; the former does not exclude the latter, but the latter includes the former. There may be many honest men and honest minds; but there are not so many upright men nor upright minds. The honest man is rather contrasted with the rogue, and an honest principle is opposed to the selfish or artful principle; but the upright man or the upright mind can be compared or contrasted with nothing but itself. An honest man will do no harm if he know it; but an upright man is careful not to do to another what he would not have another do to him.

Honesty is a feeling that actuates and directs by a spontaneous impulse; uprightness is a principle that regulates or puts every thing into an even course. be dispensed with in no case; but up Honesty can rightness is called into exercise only in certain cases. We characterize a servant or the lowest person as honest: but we do not entitle any one in so low a capacity as upright, since uprightness is exercised in matters of higher moment, and rests upon the evidence of a man's own mind: a judge, however, may with propriety be denominated upright, who scrupulously adheres to the dictates of an unbiassed conscience in

the administration of justice.

Uprightness is applicable only to principles and actions; integrity (from the Latin integer whole) is applicable to the whole man or his character; and probity (from probus or prohibus restraining, that is, restraining from evil) is in like manner used only in the comprehensive sense. Uprightness is the straightness of rule by which actions and conduct in certain cases is measured; integrity is the wholeness or unbrokenness of a man's character throughout life in his various or a man's character integrious file is the excellence and purity of a man's character in his various relations. When we call a man upright, we consider him in the detail; we bear in mind the uniformity and fixedness of the principle by which he is actuated: when we call him a man of integrity, we view him in the gross, not in this nor that circumstance of life, but in every circumstance in which the rights and interests of others are concerned. Uprightness may therefore be looked upon in some measure as a part of integrity; with this difference, that the acting principle is in the one case only kept in view, whereas in the other case the conduct and principle are both included. The distinction between these terms is farther evident by observing their different application. We do not talk of a man's uprightness being shaken, or of his preserving his uprightness; but of his integrity being shaken, and his preserving his integrity. We may however,

ascribe the particular conduct of any individual as properly to the integrity of his principles or mind, as to the uprightness of his principles. A man's uprightness displays itself in his dealings, be they ever so trifling; but the *integrity* of his character is seen in the most important concerns of life. A judge shows his *uprightness* in his daily administration of justice, when he remains uninfluenced by any partial motive; he shows his integrity when he resists the most power ful motives of personal interest and advantage out of respect to right and justice.

Integrity and probity are both general and abstract terms; but the former is relative, the latter is positive: integrity refers to the external injuries by which it may be assailed or destroyed; it is goodness tried and preserved: probity is goodness existing of itself, without reference to any thing else. There is no integrity where private interest is not in question; there is no probity wherever the interests of others are injured: integrity therefore includes probity, but probity does not necessarily suppose integrity. Probity is a free not necessarily suppose integrity. Probity is a free principle, that acts without any force; integrity is a defensive principle, that is obliged to maintain itself against external force. Probity excludes all injustice; integrity excludes in a particular manner that injustice which would favour one's self. Probity respects the rights of every man, and seeks to render to every one what is his due; it does not wait to be asked, it does what is instance; it does not wait to be asked, it does not require any compulsion; it voluntarily enters into all the circumstances and conditions of men, and measures out to each his portion: probity therefore forbids a man being malignant, hard, cruel, ungenerous, unfair, or any thing else which may press unequally and unjustly on his neighbour: integrity is disinterested; it sacrifices every personal consideration to the maintenance of what is right: a man of integrity will not be contented to abstain from selling himself for gold; he will keep himself aloof from all private partialities or resentments, all party cabals or intrigue, which are apt to violate the integrity of his mind. We look for honesty and uprightness in citizens; it sets every question at rest between man and man: we look for integrity and probity in states-men, or such as have to adjust the rights of many; they contribute to the publick as often as to the private good.

Were I to take an estimate of the comparative value of these four terms, I should denominate honesty a current coin which must be in every man's hands; cannot dispense with it for his daily use: uprightness is fine silver: probity fine gold without any alloy: and integrity gold tried and purified: all which are in the hands of but comparatively few, yet carry a value with them independently of the use which is made of them.

RECTITUDE, UPRIGHTNESS.

Rectitude is properly rightness, which is expressed Rectitude is properly rightness, which is expressed in a stronger manner by uprightness; we speak of the rectitude of the judgement; but of the uprightness of the mind, or of the moral character, which must be something more than straight, for it must be elevated above every thing mean or devious; 'We are told by Cumberland that rectitude is merely metaphorical, and that as a right line describes the shortest passage from point to point, so a right action effects a good design by the fewest means.'—Johnson.

Who to the fraudulent impostor foul, In his uprightness, answer thus return'd. MILTON.

FAIR, HONEST, EQUITABLE, REASONABLE.

Fair, in Saxon fagar, comes probably from the Latin pulcher beautiful; honest, in Latin honestus, comes from honos honour; equitable signifies having equity, or according to equity; reasonable, having reason, or according to reason.

Fair is said of persons or things; honest mostly characterizes the person, either as to his conduct or his principle. When fair and honest are both applied ans principle. When fair and nonest are bout applied to the external conduct, the former expresses more than the latter; a man may be honest without being fair; he cannot be fair without being honest. Fairness enters into every minute circumstance connected with the interests of the parties, and weighs them alike for both; honesty is contented with a literal conformity to

the law, it consults the interest of one party: the fair dealer looks to his neighbour as well as himself, he wishes only for an equal share of advantage; a man may be an honest dealer while he looks to no one's advantage but his own; the fair man always acts from a principle of right; the honest man may be so from a

motive of fear.

When these epithets are employed to characterize the man generally, fairness expresses less than honesty. Fairness is employed only in regard to commercial transactions or minor personal concerns; 'If the worldling prefer those means which are the fairest, it is not because they are fair, but because they seem to him most likely to prove successful. BLAIR. Honesty him most likely to prove successful.'-Blair. ranks among the first moral virtues, and elevates a man high above his fellow-creatures:

An honest man's the noblest work of God .- POPE. Should he at length, so truly good and great, Prevail, and rule with honest views the state, Then must he toil for an ungrateful race,

Submit to clamour, libels, and disgrace.

A man is fair who is ready to allow his competitor the same advantages as he enjoys himself in every matter or he is honest in all his looks, words however trivial; and actions: neither his tongue nor his countenance ever belie his heart. A fair man makes himself ac-

ceptable.

When fair is employed as an epithet to qualify things, or to designate their nature, it approaches very mags, or to designate their nature, it approaches very near in signification to equitable and reasonable; they are all opposed to what is unjust: fair and equitable suppose two objects put in collision; reasonable is emsuppose two opers but in control, reasonante is employed abstractedly; what is fair and equitable is so in relation to all circumstances; what is reasonable is so of itself. An estimate is fair in which profit and loss, merit and demerit, with every collateral circumstance, is duly weighed; a judgement is equitable which decides without and educatements for both narties: decides suitably and advantageously for both parties; a price is reasonable which does not exceed the limits of reason or propriety. A decision may be either fair or equitable; but the former is said mostly in regard to trifling matters, even in our games and amusements, and the latter in regard to the important rights of mankind. It is the business of the umpire to decide fairly between the combatants or the competitors for a prize; it is the business of the judge to decide equitably be tween men whose property is at issue; 'A man is very unlikely to judge equitably when his passions are agitated by a sense of wrong."—Johnson.

A demand, a charge, a proposition, or an offer may be said to be either fair or reasonable: but the former

term always bears a relation to what is right between man and man; the latter to what is right in itself, ac cording to circumstances; 'The reasonableness of a test is not hard to be proved.'—Johnson.

HONOUR, DIGNITY.

Honour (v. Honour) may be taken either for that which intrinsically belongs to a person, or for that which is conferred on him; dignity, from the Latin dignus worthy, signifying worthiness, may be equally applied to what is intrinsick or extrinsick of a man.

In the first case honour has a reference to what is steemed by others; dignity to that which is esteemed by ourselves: a sense of honour impels a man to do that which is esteemed honourable among men; a sense of dignity to do that which is consistent with the worth and greatness of his nature: the former strives to elevate himself as an individual; the latter to raise himself to the standard of his species: the former may lead a person astray; but the latter is an unerring guide. It is honour which sometimes makes a man first insult his friend, then draw his sword upon him whom he has insulted: it is dignity which makes him despise every paltry affront from others, and apologize for every apparent affront on his own part. This distinction between the terms is kept up in their application to what is extraneous of a man: the konour is that which is conferred on him by others:

When a proud aspiring man meets with honours and preferments, these are the things which are ready to lay hold of his heart and affections.'-South. The dignity is the worth or value which is added to his

condition;

Him Tullus next in dignity succeeds .- DRYDEN.

Hence we always speak of honcurs as conferred or received; but dignities as possessed or maintained.

Honours may sometimes be casual; but dignities are always permanent an act of condescension from the sovereign is an honour; but the dignity lies in the elevation of the office. Hence it is that honours are mostly civil or political; dignities ecclesiastical.

GLORY, HONOUR.

Glory is something dazzling and widely diffused. The Latin word gloria, anciently written glosia, is in all probability connected with our words gloss, glaze, glitter, glow, through the medium of the northern words gleissen, glotzen, glänzen, glünen, all which come from the Hebrew ja live coal. That the moral idea of glory is best represented by light is evident from the glory which is painted round the head of our Saviour; honour is something less splendid, but more solid (v. Honour).

Glory impels to extraordinary efforts and to great

undertakings;

Hence is our love of fame; a love so strong, We think no dangers great nor labours long, By which we hope our beings to extend, And to remotest times in glory to descend.

Honour induces to a discharge of one's duty; 'As virtue is the most reasonable and genuine source of honour, we generally find in titles an intimation of some particular merit that should recommend men to the high stations which they possess."—Addison. Ex-cellence in the attainment, and success in the exploit, bring glory; a faithful exercise of one's talents reflects honour. Glory is connected with every thing which honour. Glory is connected with every thing which has a peculiar publick interest; honour is more properly obtained within a private circle. Glory is not confined to the nation or life of the individual by whom it is sought; it spreads over all the earth, and descends to the latest posterity: honour is limited to those who are connected with the subject of it, and eye-winesses to his actions. Glory is attainable but by few, and to ms actions. Giver is attainance but by lew, and may be an object of indifference to any one; homour is more or less within the reach of all, and must be discipant by no one. A general at the head of an army goes in pursuit of glory; the humble citizen who acts his part in society so as to obtain the approbation of his fellow-cifizens is in the road for honour. A nation acquires glory by the splendour of its victories, nation acquires glory by the splendour of its victories, and its superiority in arts as well as arms; it obtains honour by its strict adherence to equity and good faith in all its dealings with other nations. Our own nation has acquired glory by the help of its brave warriours; it has gained honour by the justice and generosity of its government. The military career of Alexander was glorious; his humane treatment of the Persian privesses who were bis prisoners was at princesses who were his prisoners was an honourable trait in his character. The abolition of the slave trade by the English government was a glorious triumph of Christianity over the worst principles of human nature; the national conduct of England during the revolutionary period reflects honour on the English

Glory is a sentiment, selfish in its nature, but salutary or pernicious in its effect, according as it is di rected:

If glory cannot move a mind so mean, Nor future praise from fading pleasures wean, Yet why should he defraud his son of fame, And grudge the Romans their immortal name? DRYDEN

Honour is a principle disinterested in its nature, and beneficial in its operations; 'Sir Francis Bacon, for greatness of genius and compass of knowledge, honour to his age and country.—Addition. A thirst for glory is seldom indulged but at the expense of others, as it is not attainable in the plain path of duty; there are but few opportunities of acquiring it by ele vated acts of goodness, and still fewer who have the virtue to embrace the opportunities that offer: a love of honour can never be indulged but to the advantage of others; it is restricted by fixed laws; it requires a

sacrifice of every selfish consideration, and a due regard to the rights of others; it is associated with nothing but virtue.

DISHONEST, KNAVISH.

Dishonest marks the contrary to honest; knavish

marks the likeness to a knave.

Dishonest characterizes simply the mode of action; knavish characterizes the agent as well as the action what is dishonest violates the established laws of man; what is knavish supposes peculiar art and design in the accomplishment. It is dishonest to take any thing from another which does not belong to one; it is knavish to get it by fraud or artifice, or by imposing on the confidence of another. We may prevent dishonest practices by ordinary means of security; but we must not trust ourselves in the company of knavish people if we do not wish to be overreached; 'Gaming is too unreasonable and dishonest for a gentleman to addict himself to it."—LORD LYTTLETON. 'Not to laugh when nature prompts is but a knavish, hypocritical way of making a mask of one's face."—Pope.

RIGHT, JUST, PROPER.

Right, in German recht, Latin rectus, signifies up-Right in German recat, Latin rectus, signines upright, not learning to one side or the other, standing as it ought; just, in Latin justus, from jus law, signifies according to a rule of right; fit, v. Fit; proper, in Latin proprius, signifies belonging to a given rule. Right is here the general term; the others express modes of right. The right and wrong are defined by the written will of God, or are written in our hearts

according to the original constitutions of our nature; the just and unjust are determined by the written laws of men; the fit and proper are determined by the established principles of civil society.

Between the right and the wrong there are no gradations: a thing cannot be more right or more wrong; whatever is right is not wrong, and whatever is wrong is not right: the just and unjust, proper and improper, fit and unfit, on the contrary, have various shades and degrees that are not so easily definable by any forms of speech or written rules.

The right and wrong depend upon no circumstance; what is once right or wrong is always right or wrong what is once right of whome is an ways right of whome-but the just or unjust, proper or improper, are relatively so according to the circumstances of the case: it is a just rule for every man to have that which is his own; but what is just to the individual may be unjust to society. It is proper for every man to take charge of his own concerns; hat it would be improper for a man in an unsound state of mind to undertake such a

charge.

The right and the wrong are often beyond the reach of our faculties to discern; but the just, fit, and proper are always to be distinguished sufficiently to be observed. Right is applicable to all matters, important served. Right is applicable to all matters, important or otherwise; just is employed only in matters of essential interest; proper is rather applicable to the minor concerns of life. Every thing that is done may be characterized as right or wrong: every thing done to others may be measured by the rule of just or unjust: in our social intercourse, as well as in our private just: In our social intercourse, as we as in our private transactions, fitness and propriety must always be consulted. As Christians, we desire to do that which is right in the sight of God and man; as members of civil society, we wish to be just in our dealings; as rational and intelligent beings, we wish to do what is fit and proper in every action, however trivial;

Hear then my argument—confess we must A God there is supremely wise and just. If so, however things affect our sight, As sings our bard, whatever is is right. JENYNS.

"There is a great difference between good pleading and just composition."—Melmoth (Letters of Pliny).

'Visiters are no proper companions in the chamber of sickness."—Johnson.

STRAIGHT, RIGHT, DIRECT.

Straight, from the Latin strictus, participle of strings to tighten or bind, signifies confined, that is, turning neither to the right nor left. Straight is ap-

plied, therefore, in its proper sense, to corporeal ob jects; a path which is straight is kept within a shorter space than if it were curved; 'Truth is the shortest and nearest way to our end, carrying us thither in a straight line.'—Tillorson. Right and direct, from the Latin rectus, regulated or made as it ought, are said of that which is made by the force of the under standing, or by an actual effort, what one wishes it to be: hence, the mathematician speaks of a right line, as the line which lies most justly between two points and has been made the basis of mathematical figures; and the moralist speaks of the right opinion, as that which has been formed by the best rule of the understanding;

Then from pole to pole He views in breadth, and without longer pause, Down right into the world's first region throws His flight precipitant .- MILTON.

On the same ground, we speak of a direct answer, as that which has been framed so as a treet answer, as that which has been framed so as to bring soonest and easiest to the point desired; 'There be, that are in nature faithful and sincere, and plain and direct, not crafty and involved.'—Bacon.

CANDID, OPEN, SINCERE.

Candid, in French candide, Latin candidus, from candeo to shine, signifies to be pure as truth itself; open is in Saxon open, French nuvert, German offen, from the preposition vp, German auf, Dutch op, &c., because erectness is a characteristick of truth and openness; sincere, French sincère, Latin sincerus, probably from the Greek oby and xho the heart, signifying dictated by or point with the heart. ing dictated by or going with the heart.

Candour arises from a conscious purity of intention; openness from a warmth of feeling and love of com-munication; sincerity from a love of truth.

Candour obliges us to acknowledge whatever may make against ourselves; it is disinterested:

Self-conviction is the path to virtue, An honourable candour thus adorns Ingenuous minds.—C. Johnson.

Openness impels us to utter whatever passes in the mind; it is unguarded; 'The fondest and firmest friendships are dissolved by such openness and since-rity as interrupt our enjoyment of our own approba-Sincerity prevents us from speaking tion.'-Johnson. what we do not think; it is positive;

His words are bonds, his oaths are oracles, His love sincere, his thoughts immaculate.

A candid man will have no reserve when openness is necessary: an open man cannot maintain a reserve at any time; a sincere man will maintain a reserve only as far as it is consistent with truth.

Candour wins much upon those who come in con-nexion with it; it removes misunderstandings and obviates differences; the want of it occasions suspicion and discontent. Openness gains as many enemies as friends; it requires to be well regulated not to be offensive; there is no mind so pure and disciplined that all the thoughts and feelings which it gives birth to, may or ought to be made publick. Sincerity is an indispensa-ble virtue; the want of it is always mischievous and frequently fatal.

SINCERE, HONEST, TRUE, PLAIN.

Sincere (v. Candid) is here the most comprehensive term; honest (v. Honesty), true, and plain (v. Even) are but modes of sincerity.

Sincerity is a fundamental characteristick of the person; a man is sincere from the conviction of his mind: honesty is the expression of the feeling; it is the dictate of the heart: we look for a sincere friend, and an honest companion;

Rustick mirth goes round, The simple joke that takes the shepherd's heart, Easily pleas'd, the long, loud laugh sincere.

'This book of the Sybils was afterward interpolated by some Christian, who was more zealous than either honest or wise therein.'—PRIDEAUX. Truth is a characteristick of sincerity; for a sincere friend is a true friend: but sincerity is a permanent quality in the character; and truth may be an occasional one; we cannot be sincere without being true, but we may be true without being sincere; 'Poetical ornaments destroy that character of truth and plainness which ought to characterize history.'—Reynolds.

Fear not my truth; the moral of my wit Is plain and true.—Shakspeare.

In like manner a sincere man must be plain: since plainess consists in an unvarnished style, the sincere man will always adopt that mode of speech which expresses his sentiments most forcibly; but it is possible for a person to be occasionally plain who does not act

presses his sentiments most forcibly; but it is possible for a person to be occasionally plain who does not act from any principle of sincerity.

It is plain, therefore, that sincerity is the habitual principle of communicating our real sentiments; and that the honest, true, and plain are only the modes which it adopts in making the communication; sincerity is therefore altogether a personal quality, but the other terms are applied also to the acts, as an honest confession, a true acknowledgment, and a plain speech.

FRANK, CANDID, INGENUOUS, FREE, OPEN, PLAIN.

Frank, in French franc, German, &c. frank, is connected with the word frech bold, and frei free; candid and open, v. Candid, in genuous comes from the Latin ingenuus, which signifies literally free-born, as distinguished from the liberti, who were afterward made free: hence the term has been employed by a figure of speech to denote nobleness of birth or character. According to Girard, ingenu in French is taken in a bad sense; and Dr. Trusler, in translating his article Sincerité, franchise, naweté, ingénuité, has erroneously assigned the same office to our word inginuous; but this, however, in its use has kept true to the original, by being always an epithet of commendation; free is to be found in most of the northern languages under different forms, and is supposed by Adelung to be connected with the preposition from, which denotes a separation or enlargement; plain, v. Apparent, also Evident.

All these terms convey the idea of a readiness to communicate and be communicated with; they are all opposed to concealment, but under different circumstances. The frank man is under no restraint; his thoughts and feelings are both set at ease, and his lips are ever ready to give utterance to the dictates of his heart; he has no reserve: the candid man has nothing to conceal; he speaks without regard to self-interest or any partial motive; he speaks nothing but the truth: the ingenuous man throws off all disquise; he seoms all artifice, and brings every thing to light; he speaks the whole truth. Frankness is acceptable in the general transactions of society; it inspires confidence, and invites communication: candour is of peculiar use in matters of dispute; it serves the purposes of equity, and invites to conciliation: ingrenuousness is most wanted when there is most to conceal; it courts favour and kindness by an acknowledgment of that which is against tiself.

Frankness is associated with unpolished manners, and frequently appears in men of no rank or education; sailors have commonly a deal of frankness about them: candour is the companion of uprightness; it must be accompanied with some refinement, as it acts in cases where nice discriminations are made: ingenuousness is the companion of a noble and elevated spirit; it exists most frequently in the unsophisticated period of youth.

Frankness displays itself in the outward behaviour; Wespeak of a frank air and frank manner: candour displays itself in the language which we adopt, and the sentiments we express: we speak of a caudid statement, a candid reply: ingenuousness shows itself in all the words, looks, or actions: we speak of an ingenuous countenance, an ingenuous acknowledgment, an ingenuous answer. Frankness and candour may be either habitual or occasional; ingenuousness is a permanent character: a disposition may be frank, or an air of frankness and candour may be assumed for the time; but an ingenuous character remains one and the same

Frankness is a voluntary effusion of the mind be-

tween equals; a man frankly confesses to his friend the state of his affections or circumstances; 'My own private opinion with regard to such recreations (as poetry and musick) I have given with all the frankness imaginable.'-STEELE. Candour is a debt paid to justice from one independent being to another; he who is candid is so from the necessity of the case, when a candid man feels himself to have been in an errour which affects another, he is impelled to make the only reparation in his power by acknowledging it; 'If you have made any better remarks of your own, communicate them with candour; if not, make use of those I present you with. —Addison. Ingenuousness is the offering of an uncorrupted mind at the shrine of truth; it presupposes an inferiority in outward circumstances, and a motive, if not a direct necessity, for communication; the lad who does not wish to screen himself from punishment by a lie will ingenuously confess his offence; he who does not wish to obtain false applause will ingenuously disclaim his share in the performance which has obtained the applause; 'We see an ingenu-ous kind of behaviour not only make up for faults committed, but in a manner expiate them in the very commission.'—Steele.

Free, open, and plain have not so high an office as

Free, open, and plain have not so high an office as the first three: free and open may be taken either in a good, bad, or indifferent sense; but seldomer in the first than in the two last senses.

The frank, free, and open man all speak without constraint; but the frank man is not impertinent like the free man, nor indiscreet like the open man. The frank man speaks only of what concerns himself; the free man speaks of what concerns others: a frank man may confess his own faults or inadvertencies; the free man corrects those which he sees in another: the frank man opens his heart from the warmth of his nature; the free man opens his mind from the conceit of his temper; and the open man says all he knows and thinks, from the inconsiderate levity of his temper.

A frank man is not frank to all, nor on all occa sions; he is frank to his filends, or he is frank in his dealings with others; but the open man lets himself out like a running stream to all who choose to listen, and communicates trivial or important matters with equal eagerness; on the other hand, it is sometimes becoming in one to be free where counsel can be given with advantage and pleasure to the receiver; and it is pleasant to see an open behaviour, particularly in young persons, when contrasted with the odious trait of cunning and reserve;

We cheer the youth to make his own defence, And freely tell us what he was and whence.

'If I have abused your goodness by too much freedom, I hope you will attribute it to the openness of my temper. —Pope.

Plainness, the last quality to be here noticed, is a virtue which, though of the humbler order, is not to be despised: it is sometimes employed like freedom in the task of giving counsel; but it does not not you the idea of any thing unauthorized either in matter or manner. A free counsellor is more ready to display his own superiority, than to direct the wanderer in his way; he rather aggravates faults, than instructs how to amend them; he seems more like a superclifous enemy than a friendly monitor: the plain man is free from these faults: he speaks plainty but truly; he gives no false colouring to his speech; it is not calculated to offend, and it may serve for improvement: it is the part of a true friend to be plain with another whom he sees in imminent danger. A free speaker is in danger of being hated; a plain dealer must at least be respected; 'Pope hardly drank tea without a stratagem; if at the house of his friends he wanted any accommodation, he was not willing to ask for it in plain terms, but would mention it remotely as something convenient.'—JOHNSON.

HEARTY, WARM, SINCERE, CORDIAL.

Hearty, which signifies having the heart in a thing, and warm (v. Fire), express a stronger feeling than sincere; cordial, from cor, signifying according to the heart, is a mixture of the warm and sincere. There are cases in which it may be peculiarly proper to be

hearty, as when we are supporting the cause of religion and virtue; there are other cases in which it is peculiarly proper to be narm, as when the affections ought to be roused in favour of our friends; in all cases we ought to be sincere, when we express either a sentiment or a feeling; and it is peculiarly happy to be on terms of cordial regard with those who stand in any close relation to us. The man himself should be hearty; the heart should be warm; the professions sincere; and the reception cordial. It is also possible to speak of a hearty reception, but this conveys the idea of less refinement than cordial;

Yet should some neighbour feel a pain Just in the parts where I complain, How many a message would he send, What hearty prayers that I should mend.—Swift.

What nearey prayers that I should ment. Swift a Youth is the season of warm and generous emotions."

—BLAIR.

I have not since we parted been at peace, Nor known one joy sincere.—Rowe.

⁴ With a gratitude the most cordial, a good man looks up to that Almighty Benefactor, who aims at no end but the happiness of those whom he blesses. —Blair.

INGENUOUS, INGENIOUS.

It would not have been necessary to point out the distinction between these two words, if they had not been confounded in writing, as well as in speaking. Ingenuous, in Latin ingenuous, and ingenious, in Latin ingenious, and ingenious, in Latin ingenious, in between the ingenious, and ingenious, in Latin ingenious, and ingenious, in Latin ingenious, and ingenious, but the former respects the freedom of the station, and consequent nobleness of the character which is inborn; the latter respects the genius or mental powers which are inborn. Truth is coupled with freedom or nobility of birth; the ingenious, therefore, bespeaks the inborn freedom, by asserting the noblest right, and following the noblest impulse, of human nature, namely, that of speaking the truth: genius is altogether a natural endowment, that is born with us, independent of external circumstances; the ingenious man, therefore, displays his powers as occasion may offer. We love the ingenious character, on account of the qualities of his heart; we admire the ingenious man on account of the endowments of his mind. One is ingenious as a man; or ingenious as an author: a man confesses an action ingeniously; he defends it ingeniously; 'Compare the ingenious plableness to virtuous counsels which is in youth, to the confirmed obstinacy in an old sinner.'—South.

Ingenious to their ruin, every age
Improves the arts and instruments of rage.
WALLER.

TO APPRAISE, OR APPRECIATE, ESTIMATE, ESTEEM.

Appraise, appreciate, from apprecia and appreciatus, participle of apprecio, compounded of ap or ad
and pretium a price, signify to set a price or value on
a thing; estimate comes from estimatus, participle of
estima to value; to esteem is a variation of estimate.

Appraise and appreciate are used in precisely the

Appraise and appreciate are used in precisely the same sense for setting a value on any thing according to relative circumstances; but the one is used in the proper, and the other in the figurative sense; a sworn appraiser appraises goods according to the condition of the article and its saleable property; the characters of men are appreciated by others when their good and bad qualities are justly put in a balance; 'To the finishing of his course, let every one direct his eye; and let him now appreciate life according to the value it will be found to have when summed up at the close.' —BLAIR. To estimate a thing is to get the sum of its value by calculation; to esteem any thing is to judge its actual and intrinsict value.

Reaction and intensity water.

Estimate is used either in a proper or a figurative acceptation; esteem only in a moral sense: the expense of an undertaking, losses by fire, gains by trade, are estimated at a certain sum; the estimate may be too high or too low; 'The extent of the trade of the Greeks, how highly soever it may have been estimated in ancient times, was in proportion to the low condition of their marine.'—ROBERTSON The moral worth

of men is often estimated above or below the reality according to the particular bias of the estimator; but there are individuals of such an unquestionable worth that they need only be known in order to be esteemed; 'If a lawyer were to be esteemed only as he uses his parts in contending for justice, and were immediately despicable when he appeared in a cause which he could not but know was an unjust one, how honourable would his character be.'—STEELE.

TO ESTIMATE, COMPUTE, RATE.

Estimate has the same signification as in the preceding article; compute, in Latin compute, or con and pute to think, signifies to put together in one's mind; rate, in Latin ratus, participle of reor to think, signifies to weigh in the mind.

All these terms mark the mental operation by which the sum, amount, or value of things is obtained: to estimate is to obtain the aggregate sum In one's mind, either by an immediate or a progressive act; to compute is to obtain the sum by the gradual process of putting together items; to rate is to fix the relative value in one's mind by deduction and comparison: a builder estimates the expense of building a house on a given plan; a proprietor of houses computes the probable diminution in the value of his property in consequence of wear and tear; the surveyor rates the pre-

sent value of lands or houses.

In the moral acceptation they bear the same analogy to each other: some men are apt to estimate the adventitious privileges of birth or rank too high; 'Too those who have skill to estimate the excellence and difficulty of this great work (Pope's translation of Homer) it must be very desirable to know how it was performed.'—Johnson. It would be a useful occupation for men to compute the loss they sustain by the idle waste of time on the one hand, and its necessarily unprofitable consumption on the other; 'From the age of sixteen the life of Pope, as an author, may be computed.'—Johnson. He who rates his abilities too high is in danger of despising the means which are essential to secure success; and he who rates them too low is apt to neglect the means, from despair of success;

Sooner we learn and seldomer forget What criticks scorn, than what they highly rate. HUGHES.

TO CALCULATE, COMPUTE, RECKON, COUNT, OR ACCOUNT, NUMBER.

Calculate, in Latin calculatus, participle of calculo comes from calculus, Greek $\chi d\lambda t$ a pebble; because the Greeks gave their votes, and the Romans made out their accounts, by little stones; hence it denotes the action itself of reckoning; compute signifies the same as in the preceding article; reckon, in Saxon reccan, Dutch rekenen, German rechnen, is not improbably derived from row, in Dutch reck, because stringing of things in a row was formerly, as it is now sometimes, the ordinary mode of reekoning; count, in French computer, but a contraction of computer, but signifies a forming into an account, or setting down in an account; to number signifies literally to put into a number.

These words indicate the means by which we arrive at a certain result in regard to quantity.

To calculate is the generick term, the rest are specifick: *computation and reckning are branches of calculation, or an application of those operations to the objects of which a result is sought: to calculate comprehends arithmetical operations in general, or particular applications of the science of numbers, in order to obtain a certain point of knowledge: to compute is to dombine certain given numbers in order to learn the grand result: to reckon is to enumerate and set down things in the detail: to count is to add up the individual items contained in many different parts, in order to determine the quantity.

Calculation particularly respects the operation itself, compute respects the gross sum; reckon and count refer to the details. To calculate denotes any numerical operation in general, but in its limited sense; it is the

^{*} Vide Roubaud: "Calculer, supputer, compter"

abstract science of figures used by mathematicians and philosophers; computation is a numerical esti-mate, a simple species of calculation used by histo-rians, chronologists, and financial speculators, in drawing great results from complex sources: reckon and count are still simpler species of calculation, applicable to the ordinary business of life, and employed by tradesmen, mechanicks, and people in general; reck-wing and counting were the first efforts made by men in acquiring a knowledge of number, quantity, or degree.

The astronomer calculates the return of the stars: the geometrician makes algebraick calculations. The Banians, Indian makes prodigious calcu-Banians, Indian m ants, make prodigious calculations in an instar on their thumb nails, doubtless after the manner of algebra, by signs, which the calculator employs as he pleases. The chronologist computes the times of particular events, by comparing them with those of other known events. Many persons have attempted from the prophecies to make a computation as to the probable time of the millennium: financiers compute the produce of a tax according to the measure and circumstances of its imposition. At every new consulate the Romans used to drive a nail into the wall of the Capitol, by which they reckoned the length of time that their state had been erected: trades men reckon their profits and losses. Children begin by

counting on their fingers, one, two, three.

An almanack is made by calculation, computation, and reckoning. The rising and setting of the heavenly and reckoning. The rising and setting of the heavenly hodies are calculated; from given astronomical tables is computed the moment on which any celestial phenomenon may return; and by reckoning are determined the days on which holydays, or other periodical

events fall.

Buffon, in his moral arithmetick, has calculated tables as guides to direct our judgements in different situations, where we have only vague probability, on which to draw our conclusions. By this we have only to compute what the fairest gain may cost us; how much we must lose in advance from the most favourable lottery; how much our hopes impose upon us, our cupidity cheats us, and our habits injure us.

Calculate and reckon are employed in a figurative sense; compute and count in an extended application

of the same sense.

Calculate, reckon, and count respect mostly the

future; compute the past.

Calculate is rather a conjectural deduction from what is, as to what may be; computation is a rational estimate of what has been, from what is; reckoning is a conclusive conviction, a complacent assurance that a thing will happen; counting indicates an expectation. We calculate on a gain; compute any loss sustained, or the amount of any mischief done; we reckon on a promised pleasure; we count the hours and minutes until the time of enjoyment arrives.

A spirit of calculation arises from the cupidity ea-gendered by trade; it narrows the mind to the mere prospect of accumulation and self-interest; 'In this of fame, by an exact calculation, and the rules of political arithmetick, I have allotted ten hundred thousand shares; five hundred thousand of which is the due of the general; two hundred thousand I assign to the general officers; and two hundred thousand more to all the commissioned officers, from the colonels to ensigns; the remaining hundred thousand must be distributed among the non-commissioned officers and private men: according to which computation, I fir geant Hall is to have one share and a fraction or twofifths.'-Steele. Computations are inaccurate that are not founded upon exact numerical calculations; The time we live ought not to be computed number of years, but by the use that has been made it.'-Appison. Inconsiderate people are apt to reckon on things that are very uncertain, and then lay up to themselves a store of disappointments; 'Men reckon themselves possessed of what their genius inclines them to, and so bend all their ambition to excel in what is out of their reach."—SPECTATOR. Children who are uneasy at school count the hours, minutes. and moments for their return home;

The vicious count their years, virtuous their acts.

JONSON.

Those who have experienced the instability of human affairs, will never calculate on an hour's enjoyment beyond the moment of existence. It is difficult to compute the loss which an army sustains upon being defeated, especially if it be obliged to make a long retreat. Those who know the human heart will never reckon on the assistance of professed friends in the hour of adversity. A mind that is ill at ease seeks a resource and amusement in counting the moments as they fly; but this is often an unhappy delusion that only adds to the bitterness of sorrow.

To reckon, count or account, and number are very nearly allied to each other in the sense of esteeming or giving to any object a place in one's account or reck oning; they differ mostly in the application, reckoning being applied to more familiar objects than the others, which are only empled in the grave style; 'Reckoning themselves all olved by Mary's attachment to Bothwell from the engagements which they had come under when she yielded herself a prisoner, they carried her next evening, under a strong guard, to the castle of Decline the eventual guider a strong guard, to the castle of Lochleven.—Robertson. 'A pplause and admiration are by no means to be counted among the necessaries of life.'—JOHNSON. 'There is no bishop of the Church of England but accounts it his interest, as well as his duty, to comply with this precept of the Apostle Paul to Titus, "These things teach and exhort." '—Sourm. He whose mind never pauses from the remembrance of his own sufferings, may justly be numbered among the most miserable of human beings.'—Johnson.

ACCOUNT, RECKONING, BILL.

Account, compounded of ac or ad and count, signifies to count to a person, or for a thing; an account is the to counted: reckoning, from the verb to reckon, signifies the thing reckoned up: bill, in Saxon bill, in all probability comes from the Swedish byla, to build, signifying a written contract for building vessels, which in German is still called a beilbrief; hence it has been employed to express various kinds of written documents. These words, which are very similar in signification, may frequently be substituted for one an other.

Account is the generick, the others the specifick terms: a reckoning and bill is an account, though not always vice versa: account expresses the details, with the sum of them counted up; reckoning implies the register and rotation of the things to be reckoned up; bill denotes the details, with their particular charges. An account should be correct, containing neither more nor less than is proper; a reckning should be explicit, leaving nothing unnoticed as to dates and names; a bill should be fair.

We speak of keeping an account, of coming to a reckoning, of sending in a bill. Customers have an account with their tradespeople; masters have a reckoning with their workpeople; tradesmen send in their

bills at stated periods.

Account, from the extensive use of the term, is applicable to every thing that is noted down; the particulars of which are considered worthy of notice individually or collectively: merchants keep their accounts; an account is taken at the Custom House of all that goes in and out of the kingdom; an account is taken of all transactions, of the weather, of natural phenomena, and whatever is remarkable;

At many times I brought in my accounts. Laid them before you; you would throw them off. And say you found them in my honesty. SHAKSPEARE.

Reckoning, as a particular term, is more partial in its use: it is mostly confined to the dealings of men with one another; in which sense it is superseded by the preceding term, and now serves to express only an explanatory enumeration, which may be either verbal or written; 'Merchant with some rudeness demanded a room, and was told that there was a good fire in the next parlour, which the company were about to leave, being then paying their reckoning."—Johnson. Bill, as implying something charged or engaged, is used not as implying sometiming charged or engaged, is used not only in a mercantile but a legal sense: hence we speak of a bill of lading; a bill of parcels; a bill of exchange; a bill of indictment, or a bill in parliament; 'Ordinary expense ought to be limited by a man's estate, and ordered to the best, that the bills may be less than the estimation abroad.'-BACON.

CALENDAR, ALMANACK, EPHEMERIS.

Calendar comes from calendar, the Roman name for the first days of every month; almanack, that is al and mana, signifies properly the reckoning or thing reckoned, from the Arabick mana and Hebrew 717 to reckon; ephemeris, in Greek εφημερίς, from επι and nese terms denote a date-book; but the calendar These terms denote a date-book; but the causman is a book which registers events under every month; the almanax is a book which registers times, or the divisions of the year; and an ephemerus is a book which registers the planetary movements every day. An almanack may be a calendar, and an ephemeris may be both an almanack and a calendar; but every almanack is not a calendar, nor every calendar an almanack. The Gandener's calendar is not an almanack, and sheet almanacks are seldom calendars: Mack, all the nautical epheneris may serve as an almanack, although not as a calendar; 'He was sitting upon the ground upon a little straw, in the farthest Corner of his dungeon, which was alternately his chair and bed; a little calendar of small sticks were laid at the head, notified all over with the dismal nights and days he had passed there. Sterne. When the reformers were purging the calendar of legions of vi-Sionary saints, they took due care to defend the niches They preserved the of real martyrs from profanation. holy festivals which had been consecrated for many ages to the great luminaries of the church, and at once paid proper observance to the memory of the good, and fell in with the proper humour of the vulgar, which loves to rejoice and mourn at the discretion of the almanack.'—WALPOLE. 'That two or three suns or moons appear in any man's life or reign, it is not worth the wonder; but that the same should fall out at a remarkable time or point of some decisive action, that those two should make but one line in the book fare, and stand together in the great ephemerides of God, besides the philosophical assignment of the cause, it may admit a Christian apprehension in the signality. —Brown's Vulgar Errors.

COUPLE, BRACE, PAIR.

Couple, in French couple, comes from the Latin copulo to join or tie together, copula, in Hebrew a rope or a shackle, signifying things tied together; and as two things are with most convenience bound together, it has by custom been confined to this number: brace, from the French bras arm, signifies things locked together after the manner of the folded arms, which on that account are confined to the number of two: pair, in French paire, Latin par equal, signifies things that are equal, which can with propriety be said only of two things with regard to each other.

From the above illustration of these terms, it is clear that the number of two, which is included in all them, is, with regard to the first, entirely arbitrary; of that with recard to the second, it arises from the nature of the junction; and with regard to the third, it arises altogether from the nature of the objects: couples and braces are made by coupling and bracing; pairs are either so of themselves, or are made so by others: couples and braces always require a junction in order to make them complete; pairs require similarity only to make them what they are: couples are joined by a foreign tie; braces are produced by a peculiar mode of junction with the objects themselves.

Comple and pair are said of persons or things; brace in particular cases only of animals or things, except in the burlesque style, where it may be applied to persons. When used for persons, the word pair to the association or the moral union: the former term is therefore more appropriate when speaking of those who are soon to be married, or have just entered that state; the latter when speaking of those who are already fixed in that state: most couples that are joined together are equally happy in prospect, but not so in the completion of their wishes: it is the lot of comparatively very few to claim the title of the happy pair; 'Scarce any couple comes together, but their nuptials are declared in the newspaper with encomiums on each party '—Johnson.

Your fortune, happy pair, already made, Leaves you no farther wish. - DRYDEN.

The term pair may be used in the burlesque style for any two persons allied to each other by similarity of sentiment or otherwise;

Dear Sheridan! a gentle pair Of Gaulstown lads (for such they are), Besides a brace of grave divines, Adore the smoothness of your lines.—Swift.

When used for things, couple is promiscuously employed in familiar discourse for any two things put together; 'In the midst of these sorrows which I had in my heart, methought there passed by me a couple of coaches with purple liveries.'—Addison. Brace is used by sportsmen for birds which are shot, and supposed to be locked together; by sailors for a part of their tackling, which is folded crosswise; as also in common life for an article of convenience crossed in a singular way, which serves to keep the dress of men in its proper place;

First hunter then, pursu'd a gentle brace, Goodliest of all the forest, hart and hind.—Milton. Pair is of course restricted in its application to such objects only as are really paired;

Six wings he wore, to shade His lineaments divine; the pair that clad Each shoulder broad came mantling o'er his breast With regal ornament.—Milton.

RATE, PROPORTION, RATIO.

Rate signifies the thing rated, or the measure at which it is rated; ratio has the same original meaning as rate; proportion, v. Proportionate.

Rate and ratio are in sense species of proportions, that is, they are supposed or estimated proportions, in distinction from proportions that lie in the nature of things. The first term, rate, is employed in ordinary concerns; a person receives a certain sum weekly at the rate of a certain sum yearly; 'At Ephesus and Athens, Anthony lived at his sual rate in all manner of luxury.'—Prideaux. Ratio is applied only to numbers and calculations; as two is to four, so is four to eight, and eight to sixteen; the ratio in this case being double; 'The rate of interest (to lenders) is generally in a compound ratio formed out of the inconvenience and the hazard:—Blackstonk. Proportion is employed in matters of science, and in all cases where the two more specifick terms are not admissible; the beauty of an edifice depends upon observing the doctrine of proportions, in the disposing of soldiers a certain regard must be had to proportion in the height and size of the men; 'Repentance cannot be effectual but as it bears some proportion to sin.'—South.

PROPORTIONATE, COMMENSURATE, ADEQUATE.

Proportionate, from the Latin proportio, compounded of pro and portio, signifies having a portion with able to, or in agreement with, some other object; commensurate, from the Latin commensus or commeties signifies measuring in accordance with some other thing, being suitable in measure to something else; adequate, in Latin adequatus, participle of adequation, signifies made level with some other body.

Proportionate is here a term of general use; the are particular terms, employed in a similar sense, in regard to particular objects: that is proportionate which rises as a thing rises, and falls as a thing falls; that is commensurate which is made to rise to the same measure or degree; that is adequate which is made to come up to the height of another thing, Proportionate is employed either in the proper or im proper sense; in all recipes and prescriptions of every kind, proportionate quantities must always be taken; when the task increases in difficulty and complication, a proportionate degree of labour and talent must be employed upon it; 'All envy is proportionate to de-sire.'—Jourson. Commensurate and adequate are em ployed only in the moral sense; the former in regard to matters of distribution, the latter in regard to the equalizing of powers: a person's recompense should in some measure be commensurate with his labour and deserts; 'Where the matter is not commensurate to the words, all speaking is but tautology.'-South. person's resources should be adequate to the work he is engaged in; Outward actions are not adequate ex- path is rendered uneven by high and low ground, so the pressions of our virtues.'-Applson.

DISPARITY, INEQUALITY.

Disparity, from dis and par, in Greek mapa with or by, signifies an unitness of objects to be by one another; inequality, from the Latin æquus even, signifies having no regularity.

Disparity applies to two or more objects which should meet or stand in coalition with each other; inequality is applicable to objects that are compared with each other: the disparity of age, situation, and circumstances, is to be considered with regard to persons entering into a matrimonial connexion; the inequality in the portion of labour which is to be performed by two persons, is a ground for the inequality of their recompense: there is a great inequality in the chance of success, where there is a disparity of acquirements in rival candidates: the disparity between David and Goliah was such as to render the success of the former more strikingly miraculous; 'Between Elihu and the rest of Job's familiars, the greatest disparity was but in years."—HOOKER. The inequality in the conditions of men is not attended with a corresponding inequality in their happiness; 'Inequality of behaviour, either in prosperity or adversity, are alike ungraceful in man that is born to die.'—Steele.

SYMMETRY, PROPORTION.

Symmetry, in Latin symmetria, Greek συμμετρία, from σὺν and μέτρου, signifies a measure that accords; proportion, in Latin proportio, compounded of pro and portio, signifies every portion or part according with the

other, or with the whole.

The signification of these terms is obviously the same, namely, a due admeasurement of the parts to each other and to the whole: but symmetry seems to convey the idea of a beautiful adaptation; and proportion is applied in general to every thing which admits of dimensions and an adaptation of the parts; hence we speak of symmetry of feature, or symmetry abstractedly

She by whose lines proportion should be Examin'd, measure of all symmetry:
Whom had that ancient seen, who thought souls

Of harmony, he would at next have said

That harmony was she .- DONNE.

But we say proportion of limbs, the proportion of the head to the body; 'The inventors of stuffed hips had a better eye for due proportion than to add to a redundancy, because in some cases it was convenient to fill up a vacuum.'—Cumberland.

EQUAL, EVEN, EQUABLE, LIKE, OR ALIKE, UNIFORM.

Equal, in Latin equalis, comes from equus, and Egial, in Latin æqualis, comes from æquis, and probably the Greek clobs, similis, like; even is in Saxon efen, German eben, Sweden efven, jafn, or aem, Greek olog like; equable, in Latin equabilis, signifies susceptible of equality; like, in Dutch lik, Saxon gelig, German gleich, Gothick tholick, Latin talis, Greek raplicos such as; uniform, compounded of unus one and forma form, bespeaks its own meaning.

All these epithets are opposed to difference. All these epithets are opposed to difference. Equal is said of degree, quantity, number, and dimensions, as equal in years, of an equal age, an equal height: even is said of the surface and position of bodies; a board is made even with another board; the floor or the ground is even: like is said of accidental qualities in things, as alke in colour or in feature: uniform is said of things only as to their fitness to correspond; those which are unlike in colour, shape, or make, or not uniform, cannot be made to match as pairs: equable is used only in the moral acceptation, in which

all the others are likewise employed.

As moral qualities admit of degree, they admit of equality; justice is dealt out in equal portions to the rich and the poor; God looks with an equal eye on all mankind. Some men are equal to others in external circumstances; ' Equality is the life of conversa-tion, and he is as much out who assumes to himself any part above another, as he who considers himself below the rest of society.'—STEELE. As the natural path is rendered uneven by high and low ground, so the evenness of the temper, in the figurative sense, is destroyed by changes of humour, by elevations and depressions of the spirits; 'Good-nature is insufficient (in the marriage state) unless it be steady and uniform, and accompanied with an exemess of temper,'—SPECTATOR. The equability of the mind is hurt by the vicissitudes of life, from prosperous to adverse; 'There is also moderation in toleration of fortune which of Tully is called equabilitie.'—SIR T. ELYOT. This term may also be applied to motion, as the execution. which of Tully is called equabititie."—Sir T. Elyor. This term may also be applied to motion, as the equable motion of the planets; and figuratively to the style; 'In Swift's works is found an equable tenour of easy language, which rather trickles than flows!—Johnson. Even and equable are applied to the same mind in relation to itself; like or alike is used to the minds of two or more: hence we say they are alike in disposition, in sentiment, in wishes, &c.

E'en now as familiar as in life he came; Alas! how diff'rent, yet how like the same .- POPE.

Uniform is applied to the temper, habits, character, or conduct; hence a man is said to preserve a uni-formity of behaviour towards those whom he com-The term may also be applied to the modes which may be adopted by men in society; 'The only doubt is about the manner of their unity, how far churches are bound to be uniform in their ceremonies, and what way they ought to take for that purpose.'—
HOOKER. Friendship requires that the parties be equal in station, alike in mind, and uniform in their conduct: wisdom points out to us an even tenour of life, from which we cannot depart either to the right or to the left, without disturbing our peace; it is one of her maxims that we should not lose the equability

of our temper under the most trying circumstances. FLAT, LEVEL.

Flat, in German flach, is connected with platt broad, and that with the Latin latus, and Greek $\pi \lambda a \tau b s$; level, in all probability from libella and libra a balance, signifies the evenness of a balance.

Flat is said of a thing with regard to itself; it is opposed to the round or protuberant; level as it respects another; the former is opposed to the unever: a country is flat which has no elevation; a wall is level with the roof of a house when it rises to the height of the roof; 'A flat can hardly look well on paper.'—Country ESS OF HERTFORD.

At that black hour, which gen'ral horrour sheds On the low level of the inglorious throng .- Young

EVEN, SMOOTH, LEVEL, PLAIN.

Even (v. Equal) and smooth, which is in all probability connected with smear, are both opposed to roughness: but that which is even is free only from great roughnesses or irregularities; that which is great roughnesses or irregularines; that which is smooth is free from every degree of roughness, however small: a board is even which has no knots or holes; it is not smooth unless its surface be an entire plane: the ground is said to be even, but not smooth; the sky is smooth, but not even; 'When we look at a naker, wall, from the evenness of the object the eyo runs along its whole space, and arrives quickly at its 'The effects of a rugged and termination.'—Burke. broken surface seem stronger than where it is smooth and polished."—BURKE.

Even is to level (v. Flat), when applied to the ground, what smooth is to even: the even is free from prouberances and depressions on its exteriour surface; the level is free from rises or falls: a path is said to be even; a meadow is level: ice may be level, though it is not even; a walk up the side of a hill may be even, although the hill itself is the reverse of a level; the even is said of that which unites and forms one uninterrupted surface; but the level is said of things which are at a distance from each other, and are discovered by the eye to be in a parallel line: hence the floor of a room is even with regard to itself; it is level with that of another room;

The top is level, an offensive seat Of war.-DRYDEN.

A blind man would never be able to imagine how the several prominences and depressions of a human body

on it no unevenness.'—Addison.

Evenness respects the surface of bodies; plainness

respects the direction of bodies and their freedom from external obstructions: a path is even which has no indentures or footmarks; a path is plain which is not stopped up or interrupted by wood, water, or any

other thing intervening.

When applied figuratively, these words preserve their analogy: an even temper is secured from all violent changes of humour; a smooth speech is divested of every thing which can ruffle the temper. of others: but the former is always taken in a good sense; the latter mostly in a bad sense, as evincing an illicit design or a purpose to deceive; 'A man who lives in a state of vice and impenitence can have no title to that evenness and tranquillity of mind which is the health of the soul.'—Addison.

This smooth discourse and mild behaviour oft Conceal a traitor .- Addison.

A plain speech, on the other hand, is divested of every thing obscure or figurative, and is consequently a speech free from disguise and easy to be understood;

Express thyself in plain, not doubtful, words, That ground for quarrels or disputes affords.

DENHAM.

Even and level are applied to conduct or condition; the former as regards ourselves; the latter as regards others: he who adopts an even course of conduct is in no danger of putting himself upon a level with those who are otherwise his inferiours; 'Falsehood turns all above us into tyranny and barbarity; and all of the same level with us into discord.'-SOUTH.

ODD, UNEVEN.

Odd, probably a variation from add, seems to be a mode of the uneven; both are opposed to the even, but odd is only said of that which has no fellow; the uneven is said of that which does not square or come to an even point: of numbers we say that they are either odd or uneven; but of gloves, shoes, and every thing which is made to correspond, we say that they are odd, when they are single; but that they are uneven when they are not exactly alike: in like manuer a plank is uneven which has an unequal surface, or dis-proportionate dimensions; but a piece of wood is odd which will not match nor suit with any other piece.

VALUE, WORTH, RATE, PRICE.

Value, from the Latin valeo to be strong, respects Value, from the Latin value to be strong, respects those essential qualities of a thing which constitute its strength; worth, in German werth, from währen to perceive, signifies that good which is experienced or felt to exist in a thing; rate signifies the same as under the article Rate, proportion; price, in Latin pretium, from the Greek πράσσω to sell, signifies what a thing is sold for.

Value is a general and indefinite term applied to whatever is really good or conceived as such in a thing: the worth is that good only which is conceived or known as such. The value therefore of a thing is as variable as the humours and circumstances of men; it may be nothing or something very great in the same object at the same time in the eyes of different men;

Life has no value as an end, but means: An end deplorable! A means divine.—Young.

The worth is however that value which is acknow ledged; it is therefore something more fixed and per-manent: we speak of the calue of external objects which are determined by taste; but the worth of things as determined by rule. The value of a book that is out of print is fluctuating and uncertain; but its real worth may not be more than what it would fetch for waste paper;

No moment, but in purchase of its worth; And what its worth ask death-beds .- Young.

The rate and price are the measures of that value or worth; the former in a general, the latter in a particular application to mercantile transactions. Whatever we Whatever we give in exchange for another thing, whether according to a definite or an indefinite estimation, that is said to be

could be shown on a plain piece of canvass that has | done at a certain rate; thus we purchase pleasure at a dear rate, when it is at the expense of our health, 'If you will take my humour as it runs, you shall have hearty thanks into the bargain, for taking it off at such arate. Earl of Shaftesbury. Price is the rate of exchange estimated by coin or any other medium; hence price is a fixed rate, and may be figuratively applied in that sense to moral objects; as when health is expressly sacrificed to pleasure, it may be termed the price of pleasure;

The soul's high price Is writ in all the conduct of the skies .- Young.

TO VALUE, PRIZE, ESTEEM.

To value is in the literal sense to fix the real value of a thing; to prize, signifying to fix a price, and esteem (v. Esteem), are both modes of valuing. In the extended sense, to value may mean to ascertain the relative or supposed value of a thing: in this sense men value gold above silver, or an appraiser values goods. To value may either be applied to material or spiritual subjects, to corporeal or mental actions: prize and esteem are taken only as mental actions; the former in reference to sensible or moral objects, the latter only to moral objects: we may value books according to their market price, or we may value them according to their contents; we prize books only for their contents, in which sense prize is a much stronger term than value; we also prize men for their usefulness to society;

The prize, the beauteous prize, I will resign, So dearly valu'd, and so justly mine.—Pope.

We esteem men for their moral characters; 'Nothing makes women esteemed by the opposite sex more than chastity; whether it be that we always prize those most who are hardest to come at, or that nothing besides chastity, with its collateral attendants, fidelity and constancy, gives a man a property in the person he loves.'-Addison.

COST, EXPENSE, PRICE, CHARGE.

Cost, in German kost or kosten, from the Latin gustare to taste, signifies originally support, and by an extended sense what is given for support; expense is compounded of ex and pense, in Latin pensus participle of pendo to pay, signifying the thing paid or given out; price, from the Latin pretium, and the Greek πράσσω to sell, signifies the thing given for what is bought; charge, from to charge, signifies the thing laid on as a charge.

The cost is what a thing costs or occasions to be laid out; the expense is that which is actually laid out; the price is that which a thing may fetch or cause to be laid out; the charge is that which is required to be laid As a cost commonly comprehends an expense, the terms are on various occasions used indifferently for each other: we speak of counting the cost or counting the expense of doing any thing; at a great cost or a a great expense; on the other hand, of venturing to do a thing to one's cost, of growing wise at other people's

expense.

The cost and the price have respect to the thing and its supposed value; the expense and the charge depend on the option of the persons. The cost of a thing must precede the price, and the expense must succeed the charge; we can never set a price on any thing until we have ascertained what it has cost us; nor can we know or defeat the expense until the charge he made know or defray the expense until the charge be made. There may, however, frequently be a price where there There may, however, irequantly be a price where there is no cost, and vice versa; there may also be an expense where there is no charge; but there cannot be a charge without an expense; 'Would a man build for eternity, that is, in other words, would be be saved, let him consider with himself what charges he is willing to be at that he may be so.'—SorTH. Costs in suit often exceed in value and amount the thing contended for: the price of things depends on their relative value in the price of infigure upon the treative value in the eyes of others; what costs nothing sometimes fetches a high price; and other things cannot obtain a price equal to the first cost. Expenses vary with modes of living and men's desires; whoever wants much, or wants that which is not easily obtained, will have many expenses to defray; when the charges are

exorbitant the expenses must necessarily bear a pro-

Between the epithets costly and expensive there is the same distinction. Whatever is costly is naturally expensive, but not rice errsa. Articles of furniture, of luxury, or indulgence, are costly, either from their variety or their intrinsick value; every thing is expensive which is attended with much expense, whether of little or great value. Jewels are costly; travelling is expensive. The costly treasures of the East are imported into Europe for the gratification of those who cannot be contented with the produce of their native soil; those who indulge themselves in expensive pleasures often lay up it store for themselves much sorrow and repentance in the time to come.

In the moral acceptation, the attainment of an object is said to cost much pains;

The real patriot bears his private wrongs, Rather than right them at the publick cost,

A thing is persisted in at the expense of health, of honour, or of life; 'If ease and politeness be only attainable at the expense of sincerily in the men, and chastity in the women, I flatter myself there are few of my readers who would not think the purchase made at too high a price.'—ABERCROMBY.

UNWORTHY, WORTHLESS.

Unworthy is a term of less reproach than worthless, for the former signifies not to be worthy of praise or honour; the latter signifies to be without any worth, and consequently in the fullest sense bad. It may be a mark of modesty or humility to say that I am an unworthy partaker of your kindness; but it would be folly and extravagance to say, that I am a worthless partaker of your kindness. There are many unworthly members in every religious community; but every society that is conducted upon proper principles will take care to exclude worthless members. In regard to one another we are often unworthy of the distinctions or privileges we enjoy; in regard to our Maker we are all unworthy of his goodness, for we are all worthless in his eves:

Since in dark sorrow I my days did spend, Till now disdaining his unworthy end.

DENHAM.

"The school of Socrates was at one time deserted by every hody, except Æschines the parasite of the tyrant Dionysius, and the most worthless man living."—CUMBERLAND.

VALUABLE, PRECIOUS, COSTLY.

Valuable signifies fit to be valued; precious, having a high price; costly, costing much money. Valuable expresses directly the idea of value; precious and costly express the same idea indirectly: on the other hand, that which is valuable is only said to be fit or deserving of value; but precious and costly denote that which is highly valuable, according to the ordinary measure of valuing objects, that is, by the price they bear: hence, the two latter express the idea much more strongly than the former. A book is valuable according to its contents, or according to the estimate which men set upon it, either individually or collectively; 'What an absurd thing it is to pass over all the valuable parts of a man, and fix our attention on his infimities.'—Addition. The Bible is the only precious book in the world that has intrinsick value, that is, set above all price; 'It is no improper comparison that a thankful heart is like a box of precious oinment.'—Howell. There are many costly things, which are only valuable to the individuals who are disposed to expend money upon them; 'Christ is sometimes pleased to make the profession of himself costly.'—South.

INTRINSICK, REAL, GENUINE, NATIVE.

Intrinsick, in Latin intrinsecus, signifies on the inside, that is, lying in the thing itself; real, from the Latin res, signifies belonging to the very thing: genuine, in Latin genuinus from geno or gigun to bring forth, signifies actually brought forth, or springing out of a

thing; native, in Latin nativus and natus born, signifies actually born, or arising from a thing.

The value of a thing is either intrinsick or real: but the intrinsick value is said in regard to its extrinsich value; the real value in regard to the artificial: the intrinsick value of a book is that which it will fetch when sold in a regular way, in opposition to the extrinsick value, as being the gift of a triend, a particular redition, or a particular type: the real value of a book the proper sense, lies in the fineness of the paper, and the costliness of its binding; and, in the improper sense, it lies in the excellence of its contents, in opposition to the artificial value which it acquires in the minds of bibliomaniacks from being a scarce edition; Men, however distinguished by external accidents or intrinsical qualities, have all the same wants, the same pains, and, as far as the senses are consulted, the same pleasures.'—Johnson. 'You have settled, by an economy as perverted as the policy, two establishments of government, one real, the other fictitious.'—Burks.

The worth of a man is either genuine or native: the genuine worth of a man lies in the excellence of his moral character, as opposed to his adventitious worth, which he acquires from the possession of wealth, power, and dignity; his native worth is that which is inborn in him, and natural, in opposition to the meretricious and borrowed worth which he may derive from his situation, his talent, or his efforts to please;

His genuine and less guilty wealth t' explore. Search not his bottom, but survey his shore.

DENHAM.

'How lovely does the human mind appear in its native purity.'—Earl of Chatham.

An accurate observer will always discriminate between the intrinsick and extrinsick value of every thing; a wise man will always appreciate things according to their real value; the most deprayed man will sometimes be sensible of genuine worth when it displays itself; it is always pleasant to meet with those unsophisticated characters whose native excel lence shines forth in all their words, looks, and actions.

EXTRANEOUS, EXTRINSICK, FOREIGN.

Extraneous, compounded of exterraneus, or ex and terra, signifies out of the land, not belonging to it; extrinsick, in Latin extrinsecus, compounded of extra and secus, signifies outward, external; foreign, from the Latin feris out of doors, signifies not belonging to the family, tribe, or people.

The extraneous is that which forms no necessary or natural part of any thing: the extrinsick is that which forms a part or has a connexion, but only in an indirect form; it is not an inherent or component part: the foreign is that which forms no part whatever, and has no kind of connexion. A work is said to contain extraneous matter, which contains much matter not necessarily belonging to, or illustrative of the subject. a work is said to have extrinsick merit when it borrows its value from local circumstances, in distinction from the intrinsick merit, or that which lies in the contents.

Extraneous and extrinsick have a general and abstract sense; but foreign has a particular signification; they always pass over to some object either expressed or understood. hence we say extraneous ideas, or extrinsick worth; but that a particular mode of acting is foreign to the general plan pursued. Anecdotes of private individuals would be extraneous mater in a general history; 'That which makes me believe is something extraneous to the thing that I believe.'—Lucke. The respect and credit which men gain from their fellow-citizens by an adherence to rectitude is the extrinsick advantage of virtue, in distinction from the peace of a good conscience and the favour of God, which are its intrinsick advantages; 'Affluence and power are advantages extrinsick and aventitious,'—Johnson. It is foreign to the purpose of one who is making an abridgment of a work, to enter into details in any particular part;

For loveliness Needs not the aid of foreign ornaments; But is when unadorn'd adorn'd the most.

DESERT, MERIT, WORTH.

Desert, from deserve, in Latin deservio, signifies to do service or be serviceable; merit, in Latin meritus, participle of mereor, comes from the Greek μείοω to distribute, because merit serves as a rule for distributing or apportioning; worth, in German werth, is connected with warde dignity, and barde a builden, because one bears worth as a thing attached to the

Desert is taken for that which is good or bad; merit for that which is good only. We deserve praise or blame: we merit a reward. The desert consists in the action, work, or service performed; the merit has regard to the character of the agent or the nature of The person does not deserve the recomthe action. The person does not deserve the recom-pense until he has performed the service; he does not merit approbation if he has not done his part well. Deserve is a term of ordinary import; merit applies to objects of greater moment: the former includes mat-

ters of personal and physical gratification; the latter are always acting so as to deserve either reproof or

commendation, reward or punishment;

The beauteous champion views with marks of fear, Smit with a conscious sense, retires behind,

And shuns the fate he well deserv'd to find .- Pope. Candidates for publick applause or honours conceive they have frequent occasion to complain that they are not treated according to their merits;

Praise from a friend or censure from a foe Are lost on hearers that our merits know .- Pope.

Criminals cannot always be punished according to their descrts; a noble mind is not contented with barely obtaining, it seeks to merit what it obtains.

The idea of value, which is prominent in the signification of the term merit, renders it closely allied to that of worth. The man of merit looks to the advantages which shall accrue to himself; the man of worth contented with the consciousness of what he posconsensed with the consciousness of what he pos-sesses in himself: merit respects the attainments or qualifications of a man; worth respects his moral qua-lities only. It is possible therefore for a man to have great merit and little or no worth. He who has great powers, and uses them for the advantage of himself or others is a nearly formal.

or others, is a man of merit; She valued nothing less Than titles, figures, shape, and dress; That merit should be chiefly plac'd

In judgement, knowledge, wit, and taste.-Swift. He only who does good from a good motive is a man of worth;

> To birth or office no respect be paid, Let worth determine here .- POPE.

We look for merit among men in the discharge of their several offices or duties; we look for worth in their social capacities.

From these words are derived the epithets deserved and merited, in relation to what we receive from others; and deserving, meritorious, worthy, and worth, in regard to what we possess in ourselves: a treatment is deserved or undeserved; reproofs are merited or unmerited: the harsh treatment of a master is easier to be borne when it is undeserved than when it is deserved; the reproaches of a friend are very severe when unmerited

A person is deserving on account of his industry or perseverance; 'A man has frequent opportunities of perseverance. A man as requent opportunities of mitigating the fierceness of a party; or doing justice to the character of a deserving man.'—ADDISON. An artist is meritorious on account of his professional abilities, or a statesman in the discharge of his duties; He carried himself meritoriously in foreign employ ments in time of the interdict, which held up his credit among the patriots.—WALTON. But for the most part actions, services, &c. are said to be meritorious; 'Pilgrimages to Rome were represented as the most meritorious acts of devotion.—Hums. A citizen is worthy on account of his benevolence and uprightness;

Then the last worthies of declining Greece, Fate call'd to glory, in unequal times, Pensive appear.—Thomson.

a third is worthy of confidence and esteem from all men. Between worthy and worth there is this difference, that the former is said of the intrinsick and moral qualities, the latter of extrinsick qualities: a worthy man possesses that which calls for the esteem of others but a man is worth the property which he can call his own: so in like manner a subject may be worthy the attention of a writer, or a thing may not be worth the while to consider.

COMPENSATION, SATISFACTION, AM REMUNERATION, RECOMPENSE, REQUITAL, REWARD. AMENDS.

The first three of these terms are employed to express a return for some evil; remuneration, recompense, and requital, a return for some good; reward, a return

for either good or evil.

Compensation, Latin compensatio, compounded of com and pensatio, pensus and pendo to pay, signifies the paying what has become due; satisfaction, from satisfy, signifies the thing that satisfies, or makes up in return; amends, from the word to amend, signifies the thing that makes good what has been bad; remuneration, from remunerate, Latin remuneratus or remunero, compounded of re and munus an office or service, signifies what is given in return for a service; recompense, compounded of re and compense, signifies the thing paid back as an equivalent; requital, compounded of re and quital, or quital, from quit, signifies the making one's self clear by a return; reward is probably connected with regard, implying to take cognizance of the deserts of any one.

A compensation is something real; it is made for some positive injury sustained; justice requires that it should be equal in value, if not like in kind, to that which is lost or injured;

All other debts may compensation find, But love is strict, and will be paid in kind.

A satisfaction may be imaginary, both as to the injury and the return; it is given for personal injuries, and depends on the disposition of the person to be satisfied: amends is real, but not always made so much for injuries done to others, as for offences committed by ourselves. Sufferers ought to have a compensation for the injuries they have sustained through our means, but there are injuries, particularly those which wound the feelings, for which there can be no compensation: tenacious and quarrelsome people demand satisfaction; their offended pride is not satisfied without the humiliation of their adversary: an amends is honour-able which serves to repair a fault; the best amends which an offending person can make is to acknowledge his errour, and avoid a repetition: Christianity enjoins upon its followers to do good, even to its enemies; but there is a thing called honour, which impels some men after they have insulted their friends to give them the satisfaction of shedding their blood; this is termed an satisfaction of sireduning intermediate honourable amends; but will the survivors find any compensation in such an amends for the loss of a husband, a father, or a brother? Not to offer any compensation to the utmost of our power, for any injury done to another, evinces a gross meanness of character, and selfishness of disposition: satisfaction can seldom be demanded with any propriety for any personal affront; although the true Christian will refuse no satisfaction which is not inconsistent with the laws of God and man. As respects the offence of man towards his Maker, nothing but the atonement of our Saviour could be a satisfaction ;

Die he or justice must; unless for him Some other able, and as willing, pay The rigid satisfaction, death for death .-

Compensation often denotes a return for services done, in which sense it approaches still nearer to remuneration, recompense, and requited: but the first two are obligatory; the latter are gratuitous. Compensation is an act of justice: the service performed protection of the control of the cont involves a debt; the omission of paying it becomes an injury to the performer: the labourer is worthy of his the time and strength of a poor man ought not Pensive appear.—Thomson.

One person descrives to be well paid and encouraged; Remuneration is a higher species of compensation; another merits the applause which is bestowed on him; it is a matter of equity dependent upon a principle of

honour in those who make it; it differs from the ordinary compensation, both in the nature of the service, and of the return. Compensation is made for bodily labour and menial offices; remuneration for mental exertiens, for literary, civil, or political offices: compensation is made to inferiours, or subordinate persons; remuneration to equals, and even superiours in education and birth, though not in wealth: a compensation is prescribed by a certain ratio; remuneration depends on collateral circumstances; Remuneration depends on collateral circumstances; Remuneration difficulty of performances.—Johnson. A recompense is voluntary, both as to the service and the return; it is an act of generosity; it is not founded on the value of the service so much as on the intention of the server; it is not received as a matter of right, but of courtesy: there are a thousand acts of civility performed by others which are entitled to some recompense, though not to any specifick compensation;

Patriots have toiled, and in their country's cause Bled nobly, and their deeds, as they deserve, Receive proud recompense.—Cowpers.

Requital is a return for a kindness; the making it is an act of gratitude; the omission of it wounds the feelings: it sometimes happens that the only requital which our kind action obtains, is the animosity of the person served; 'As the world is unjust in its judgements, so it is ungrateful in its requitals.'—BLAIR.

It belongs to the wealthy to make compensation for

It belongs to the wealthy to make compensation for the trouble they give: it is scarcely possible to estimate too high what is done for ourselves, nor too low what we do for others. It is a hardship not to obtain the remuneration which we expect, but it is folly to expect that which we do not deserve. He wno will not serve another, until he is sure of a recompense, is not worthy of a recompense. Those who befriend the wicked must expect to be ill requited.

Revard conveys no idea of obligation; whoever rewards acts altogether optionally; the conduct of the agent produces the reward. In this sense, it is comparable with compensation, amends, and recompense; but not with satisfaction, remuneration, or reguital; things, as well as persons, may compensate, make amends, recompense, and reward; but persons only can

give satisfaction, remuneration, and reguital.

Reward respects the merit of the action; but compensate and the other words simply refer to the connexion between the actions and their results; what accrues to a man as the just consequence of his conduct, be it good or bad, is the reward. Rewards and punishments do always presuppose something willingly done, well or ill; without which respect, though we may sometimes receive good, yet then it is only a benefit and not a reward. Compensation and amends serve to supply the loss or absence of any thing; recompense and reward follow from particular exertions. It is but a poor compensation for the loss of peace and health to have one's coffers filled with gold;

Now goes the nightly thief prowling abroad For plunder, much solicitous how best He may compensate for a day of sloth, By works of darkness and nocturnal wrongs.

A social intercourse by letter will make amends for the absence of those who are dear; 'Nature has obscurely fitted the mole with eyes. But for amends, what she is capable of for her defence, and warning of danger, she has very eminently conferred upon her, for she is very quick of hearing.'—Addison. It is a mark of folly to do any thing, however trifling, without the prospect of a recompense, and yet we see this daily realized in persons who give themselves much trouble to no purpose;

Thou 'rt so far before, That swiftest wing of recompense is slow To overtake thee.—Shakspeare.

The reward of industry is ease and content: when a deceiver is caught in his own snare, he meets with the reward which should always attend deceit; 'There are no honorary rewards among us which are more esteened by the person who receives them, and are cheaper to the prince, than the giving of medals.'—Addison.

What can compensate for the loss of honour?

What can make amends to a frivolous mind for the want of company? What recompenses so sweet as the consciousness of having served a friend? When reward of a good conscience?

RESTORATION RESTITUTION, REPARA-TION, AMENDS.

Restoration is employed in the ordinary application of the verb restore: restitution, from the same verb, is employed simply in the sense of making good that which has been unjustly taken. Restoration of property may be made by any one, whether the person taking it or not: restitution is supposed to be made by him who has been guilty of the injustice. The dethronement of a king may be the work of one set of men, and his restoration that of another; 'All men (during the usurpation) longed for the restoration of the liberties and laws.'—Hums. But it is the bounded duty of every individual who has committed any sort of injustice to another to make restitution to the unost of his power; 'The justices may, if they think it reasonable, direct restitution of a ratable share of the money given with an apprentice (upon his discharge).'—Blackstows.

Restitution and reparation are both employed in the sense of undoing that which has been done to the injury of another; but the former respects only injuries that affect the property, and reparation those which affect a person in various ways. He who is guilty of theft, or fraud, must make restitution by either restoring the stolen article or its full value: he who robs another of his good name, or does any injury to his person, has it not in his power so easily to make reparation; 'Justice requires that all injuries should be repaired.'—Johnson.

Reparation and amends (v. Compensation) are both employed in cases where some mischief or loss is sustained; but the reparation comprehends the idea of the act of repairing, as well as the thing by which we repair; amends is employed only for the thing that will amend or make better: hence we speak of the reparation of an injury; but of the amends by itself The reparation comprehends all kinds of injuries, particularly those of a serious nature; the amends is applied only to matters of inferiour inportance.

It is impossible to make reparation for taking away the life of another: 'The king should be able, when he had cleared himself, to make him reparation.'—BACOM. It is easy to make amends to any one for the loss of a day's pleasure; 'We went to the cabin of the French, who, to make amends for their three weeks' silence, were talking and disputing with greater rapidity and confusion than I ever heard in an assembly even of that nation.'—MAMPRYLLE.

RESTORE, RETURN, REPAY.

Restore, in Latin restauro, from the Greek savpôs a pale, signifies properly to new pale, that is, to repair by a new paling, and, in an extended application, to make good what has been injured or lost; return signifies properly to turn again, or to send back; and repay to pay back.

The common idea of all these terms is that of giving back. What we restore to another may or may not be the same as what we have taken; justice requires that it should be an equivalent in value, so as to prevent the individual from being in any degree a sufferer: what we return and repay must be precisely the same as we have received; the former in application to general objects, the latter in application only to pecuniary matters. We restore upon a principle of equity; we return upon a principle of undeniable right. We cannot always claim that which ought to be restored; but we can not only claim but enforce the claim in regard to what is to be returned or repaid: an honest man will be scrupulous not to take any thing from another without restoring to him its full value. Whatever we have berrowed we ought to return; and when it is money which we have obtained, we ought or return to repay it with punctuality. We restore to many as well as to one, to communities as well as to individuals: we restore a king to his crown; or one natior restores a territory to another;

When both the chiefs are sunder'd from the fight, Then to the lawful king restore his right.

DRYDEN.

We return and repny not only individually, but personally and particularly: we return a book to its owner:

The swain Receives his easy food from Nature's hand,

And just returns of cultivated land .- DRYDEN. We repay a sum of money to him from whom it was borrowed

Restore and return may be employed in their improper application, as respects the moral state of persons and things; as a king restores a courtier to his fayour, or a physician restores his patient to health: we return a favour; we return an answer or a compliment;

When answer none return'd, I set me down. MILTON.

Repay may be figuratively employed in regard to moral objects, as an ungrateful person repays kindnesses with reproaches;

Cæsar, whom, fraught with eastern spoils, Our heav'n, the just reward of human toils, Securely shall repay with rights divine. - DRYDEN.

RETALIATION, REPRISAL.

Retaliation, from retaliate, in Latin retaliatum, participle of retalio, compounded of re and talis such, signifies such again, or like for like; reprisal, in French reprisal, from repris and reprendre, in Latin reprehends to take again, signifies to take in return for what has been taken. The idea of making another suffer in return for the suffering he has occasioned is common to these terms; but the former is employed in ordinary cases; the latter mostly in regard to a state of warfare, or to active hostilities. A trick practised upon another in return for a trick is a retailation; but a reprisal always extends to the capture of something from another, in return for what has been taken. When neighbours fall out, the incivilities and spite of the one are too often retainated by like acts of incivility and spite on the part of the other: when one nation commences hostilities against another by taking any thing away violently, it produces reprisals on the part of the other. Retaliation is very frequently employed in the good sense for what passes innocently between reprisal has always an unfavourable sense. Goldsmith's poem, entitled the Retaliation, was written for the purpose of retaliating on his friends the humour they had practised upon him; 'Therefore, I pray, let me enjoy your friendship in that fair proportion, that I desire to return unto you by way of correspondence and retaliation.'—Howell. When the quarrels of individuals break through the restraints of the law, and lead to acts of violence on each other's property, reprisals are made alternately by both parties;

Go publish o'er the plain, How mighty a proselyte you gain! How noble a reprisal on the great!--Swift.

RETRIBUTION, REQUITAL.

Retribution, from tribuo to bestow, signifies a bestowing back or giving in return; requital, v. Reward.
Retribution is a particular term; requital is general: the retribution comes from Providence; requited is the act of man: retribution is by way of punishment; 'Christ substituted his own body in our room, to receive the whole stroke of that dreadful retribution inflicted by the hand of an angry Omnipotence.'-South. Requi tal is mostly by way of reward; 'Leander was indeed a conquest to boast of, for he had long and obstinately defended his heart, and for a time made as many requitals upon the tender passions of her sex as she had raised contributions upon his."—Cumberland, Retribution is not always dealt out to every man according to his deeds; it is a poor requital for one who has done a kindness, to be abused.

TO RECOVER, RETRIEVE, REPAIR, RECRUIT.

Recover is to get again under one's cover or protection; retrieve, from the French trouver to find, is to the terms Gratuitous, Voluntary.

get again that which has been lost: repair, in French reparer, Latin repare, from pare to get, signifies like-wise to get again, or make good as it was before; recruit, in French recru, from cru, and the Latin cresco to grow, signifies to grow again, or come fresh again.

Recover is the most general term, and applies to objects in general; retrieve, repair, and the others, are only partial applications: we recover thing either by our own means or by casualties; we retrieve and repair by our own efforts only: we recover that which has been taken, or that which has been any way lost; we retrieve that which we have lost; we repair that which has been injured; we recruit that which has been diminished: we recover property from those who wish to deprive us of it; or we recover our principles, &cc.; 'The serious and impartial retrospect of our conduct is indisputably necessary to the confirmation or recovery of our virtue.'—Johnson. We retrieve our misfortunes, or our lost reputation;

Why may not the soul receive New organs, since ev'n art can these retrieve?

We repair the mischief which has been done to our property;

Your men shall be received, your fleet repaired.

We recruit the strength which has been exhausted; With greens and flowers recruit their empty hives.

We do not seek after that which we think irrecoverable; we give that up which is irretrievable; we la-ment over that which is irreparable; our power of recruiting depends upon circumstances; he who makes a moderate use of his resources may in general easily recruit himself when they are gone.

RECOVERY, RESTORATION.

Recovery is one's own act; restoration is the act of another; we recover the thing we have lost, when it comes again into our possession; but it is restored to comes again motor possession; but it is restored to us by another; 'Let us study to improve the assistance which this revelation affords for the restoration of our nature, and the recovery of our felicity.'—Blair. A king recovers his crown by force of arms from the hands of a usurper; his crown is restored to him by the will of his people: the recovery of property is good

fortune; the restoration of property an act of justice.

Both are employed likewise in regard to one's health; but the former simply designates the regaining of health; the latter refers to the instrument by which it is brought about: the recovery of one's health is an object of the first importance to every man; the restoration of one's health seldomer depends upon the efficacy of medicine, than the benignant operations of nature.

TO REDEEM, RANSOM.

Redeem, in Latin redimo, is compounded of re and emo to buy off, or back to one's self; ransom is in all probability a variation of redeem.

Redcem is a term of general application; ransom Redeem is a term of general application; ransom is emp-oyed only on particular occasions: we redeem persons as well as things; we ransom persons only: we may redeem by labour, or any thing which supplies as an equivalent to money; we ransom properly with money only: we redeem a watch, or whatever has been given in pawn; we ransom a captive: redeem is employed in the improper application; ransom only in the proper sense: we may redeem our character, redeem our life, or redeem our honour; and in this sense our Saviour redeems repentant sinners;

Thus in her crime her confidence she plac'd, And with new treasons would redeem the past. DRYDEN.

But those who are ransomed only recover their bodily liberty; 'A third tax was paid by vassals to the king. to ransom him if he should happen to be taken pri soner.'-Robertson.

GRATUITY, RECOMPENSE.

The distinction between these terms is very similar

imply a gift, and a gift by way of return for some supposed service: but the gratuity is independent of all expectation as well as right; the recompense is founded upon some admissible claim. Those who wish to confer a favour in a delicate manner, will sometimes do it under the shape of a gratuity; If there be one or two scholars more, that will be no great addition to his trouble, considering that, perhaps, their parents may recompense him by their gratuities:—Moundeux. Those who overrate their services will in all probability be disappointed in the recompense they receive;

What could be less than to afford him praise, The easiest recompense.—MILTON.

GRATUITOUS, VOLUNTARY.

Gratuitous is opposed to that which is obligatory; roluntary is opposed to that which is compulsory, or involuntary. A gift is gratuitous which flows entirely from the free will of the giver, independent of right: an offer is voluntary which flows from the free will, independent of all external constraint. Gratuitous is therefore to voluntary as a species to the genus. What is gratuitous is voluntary, although what is voluntary is not always gratuitous. The gratuitous is properly the voluntary in regard to the disposal of one's property; 'The heroick band of cashierers of monarchs were in haste to make a generous diffusion of the knowledge which they had thus gratuitously received.'—BURKE. The voluntary is applicable to subjects in general; 'Their privileges relative to contribution were voluntarily surrendered.'—BURKE.

THANKFULNESS, GRATITUDE.

Thankfulness or a fulness of thanks, is the outward expression of a grateful feeling; gratitude, from the Latin gratitude, is the feeling itself. Our thankfulness is measured by the number of our words; our gratitude is measured by the nature of our actions. A person appears very thankful at the time, who afterward proves very ungrateful. Thankfulness is the beginning of gratitude: gratitude is the completion of thankfulness.

TO AFFIRM, ASSEVERATE, ASSURE, VOUCH, AVER, PROTEST.

Affirm, in French offermer, Latin affirmo, compounded of af or ad and firmo to strengthen, signifies to give strength to what has been said; asseverate, in Latin asseveratus, participie of assevero, compounded of as or ad and severus, signifies to make strong and positive; assure, in French assurer, is compounded of the intensive syllable as or ad and sure, signifying to make sure; vouch is probably changed from vow; aver, in French averer, is compounded of the intensive syllable ao rad and verus true, signifying to bear testimony to the truth; protest, in French protester, Latin protesto, is compounded of pro and testor to call to witness, signifying to call others to witness as to what we think about a thing.

All these terms indicate an expression of a personte.

All these terms indicate an expression of a person's conviction.

In one sense, to affirm is to declare that a thing is in opposition to denying or declaring that it is not; in the sense here chosen, it signifies to declare a thing as a fact on our credit. To asseverate is to declare it with confidence. To rowch is to rest the truth of another's declaration on our own responsibility. To aver is to express the truth of a declaration unequivocally. To protest is to declare a thing solemnly, and with strong marks of sincerity.

Affirmations are made of the past and present; a person affirms what he has seen and what he sees;

An infidel, and fear!
Fear what? a dream? a fable?—How thy dread,
Unwilling evidence, and therefore strong,
Affords my cause an undesigned support!
How disbelief affirms what it denies!—Young.

Asseverations are strong affirmations, made in cases of doubt to remove every impression disadvantageous to one's sucerity: 'I judge in this case as Charles the Second victualled his navy, with the bread which one of his dogs chose of several pieces thrown before him, tather than trust to the asseverations of the victual-

lets.—Steele. Assurances are made of the past, present, and future; they mark the conviction of the speaker as to what has been, or is, and his intentions as to what shall be; they are appeals to the estimation which another has in one's word; 'My learned friend assured me that the earth had lately received a shock from a comet that crossed its vortex.—Strele. Vouching is an act for another; it is the supporting of another's assurance by our own; 'All the great writers of the Augustan age, for whom singly we have so great an esteen, stand up together as vouchers for one another's reputation.—Addition. Addition. Additionally defended in matters of fact; we aver as to the accuracy of details; we aver on positive knowledge that sets aside all question; 'Among ladies, he positively averred that nonsense was the most prevailing part of eloquence, and had so little complaisance as to say, "a woman is never taken by her reason but always by her passion."—Steele. Protestations are stronger than either asseverations or assurances; they are accompanied with every act, look, or gesture that can tend to impress conviction on another; 'I have long loved her, and I protest to you, bestowed much on her, followed her with a doting observance.'—Shake-Peare.

Affirmations are employed in giving evidence, whether accompanied with an oath or not; it is deal much in asseverations and protestations. People asseverate in order to produce a conviction of their veracity; they protest in order to obtain a belief of their innocence; they aver where they expect to be believed. Assurances are altogether personal; they are always made to satisfy some one of what they wish to know and believe. We ought to be sparing of our assurances of regard for another, as we ought to be suspictious of such assurances when made to ourselves. Whenever we affirm any thing on the authority of another, we ought to be particularly cautious not to vouch for its veracity, if it be not unquestionable.

TO AFFIRM, ASSERT.

Affirm, v. To affirm, asseverate; assert, in Latin assertus, participle of assero, compounded of as or ad and sero to connect, signifies to connect words into a proposition.

To affirm is said of facts; to assert, of opinions: we affirm what we know; we assert what we believe: whoever affirms what he does not know to be true is guilty of falsehood; 'That this man, wise and virtuous as he was, passed always unentangled through the snares of life, it would be prejudice and tenerity to affirm:'—Johnson (Life of Collins). Whoever asserts what he cannot prove to be true is guilty of folly; 'It is asserted by a tragick poet, that "est miser nemo nisi comparatus,"—"no man is miserable, but as he is compared with others happier than himself." This position is not strictly and philosophically true.'—Johnson. We contradict an affirmation; we confute an assertion.

TO ASSERT, MAINTAIN, VINDICATE

To assert, v. To affirm, assert; maintain, in French maintenir, from the Latin manus and tenco, signifies to hold by the hand, that is, closely and firmly; vindicate, in Latin vindicatus, participle of vindico, compounded of vim and dico, signifies to pronounce a violent or positive sentence.

To assert is to declare a thing as our own; to maintain is to abide by what we have so declared; to windicate is to stand up for that which concerns ourselves or others. We assert any thing to be true; 'Sophoeles also, in a fragment of one of his tragedies, asserts the unity of the Supreme Being.'-CI MEER-LAND. We maintain an opinion by adducing proofs, facts, or arguments; 'I am willing to believe that Dryden wanted rather skill to discover the right, than virtue to maintain it.'-Johnson. We windicate our own conduct or that of another when it is called in question; 'This is no vindication of her conduct. She still acts a mean part, and through fear becomes an accomplice in endeavouring to betray the Greeks,'-Broome. We assert bioldy or impudently, we maintain steadily or obstinately; we randicate resolutely or insolently. A right or claim is asserted which is avowed to belong to any one.

When the great soul buoys up to this high point, Leaving gross Nature's sediments below, Then, and then only, Adam's offspring quits The sage and hero of the fields and woods, Asserts his rank, and rises into man .- Young.

A right is maintained when attempts are made to prove its justice, or regain its possession; the cause of the assertor or maintainer is vindicated by another;

'T is just that I should vindicate alone, The broken truce, or for the breach atone. DRYDEN.

Innocence is asserted by a positive declaration; it is maintained by repeated assertions and the support of testimony; it is vindicated through the interference of another.

The most guilty persons do not hesitate to assert their innocence with the hope of inspiring credit; and some will persist in maintaining it, even after their guilt has been pronounced; but the really innocent man will never want a friend to vindicate him when his honour or his reputation is at stake. Assertions which are made hastily and inconsiderately are seldom long maintained without exposing a person to ridicule those who attempt to vindicate a bad cause expose themselves to as much reproach as if the cause were their own.

TO ACKNOWLEDGE, OWN, CONFESS, AVOW.

Acknowledge, compounded of ac or ad and know ledge, implies to bring to knowledge, to make known; own is a familiar figure, signifying to take to one's self, to make one's own: it is a common substitute for confess; confess, in French confesser, Latin confessus, participle of confiteer, compounded of con and fateer, signifies to impart to any one; avow, in French avouer,

Latin advoveo, signifies to vow, or protest to any one.

Acknowledging is a simple declaration; confessing or owning is a specifick private communication; avowal is a publick declaration. We acknowledge facts; con-

fess our own faults; avow motives, opinions, &c.
We acknowledge in consequence of a question; we confess in consequence of an accusation; we own in confess in consequence of an accusation; we con in consequence of a charge; we arow voluntarily. We acknowledge having been concerned in a transaction; we confess our guilt; we com that a thing is wrong; but we are ashamed to arow our motives. Candour leads to an acknowledgment; repentance produces a confession; the desire of forgiveness leads to owning; generosity or pride occasions an avowal.

An acknowledgment of what is not demanded may be either politick or impolitick, according to circumstances; 'I must acknowledge, for my own part, that I take greater pleasure in considering the works of the creation in their immessive than in their misuscept. creation in their immensity, than in their minuteness."

-Additional A confession dictated merely by fear is of avail only in the sight of man;

Spite of herself e'en Envy must confess, That I the friendship of the great posses

FRANCIS.

Those who are most ready to own themselves in an errour are not always the first to amend; 'And now, my dear, cried she to me, I will fairly own, that it was I that instructed my girls to encourage our landlord's addresses.'--Goldsmith. An anowal of the principles which actuate the conduct is often the greatest aggravation of guilt; 'Whether by their settled and anowed scorn of thoughtless talkers, the Persians were able to diffuse to any great extent the virtue of taciturinty, we are hindered by the distance of those times from being able to discover."—Johnson.

RECOGNISE, ACKNOWLEDGE.

Recognise, in Latin recognoscere, is to take the knowledge of, or bring to one's own knowledge; acknowledge, v To acknowledge.

To recognise is to take cognizance of that which comes again before our notice; to acknowledge is to admit to one's knowledge whatever comes fresh under We recognise a person whom we have our notice. known before; we recognise him either in his former character or in some newly assumed character; we acknowledge either former favours, or those which

have been just received. Princes recognise certain principles which have been admitted by previous consent; they acknowledge the justice of claims which are preferred before them; 'When conscience threatens punishment to secret crimes, it manifestly recognises a Supreme Governour from whom nothing is hidden." State, "I call it atheism by establishment, when any state, as such, shall not acknowledge the existence of God, as the moral governour of the world."—BURKE.

TO PROFESS, DECLARE.

Profess, in Latin professus, participle of profiteor, compounded of pro and fateor to speak, signifies to set forth, or present to publick view; declare, v. To declare.

An exposure of one's thoughts or opinions is the common idea in the signification of these terms; but they differ in the manner of the action, as well as the they differ in the manner of the action, as wen as the object: one professes by words or by actions; one declares only by words: a man professes to believe that on which he acts; but he declares his belief of it either with his lips or in his writings. The profession may be general and partial; it may amount to little more than an intimation: the declaration is positive and explicit; it leaves no one in doubt: a profession may, therefore, sometimes be hypocritical; he who professes may wish to imply that which is not real; 'A naked profession may have credit where. professes may wish to imply that which is not real; 'A naked profession may have credit, where no other evidence can be given.'—Swift. A declaration must be either directly true or false; he who declares expressly commits himself upon his veracity; 'We are a considerable body, who, upon a proper occasion, would not fail to declare ourselves.'—Addison. One professes either as respects single actions, or a regular course of conduct. lar course of conduct; one declares either passing thoughts or settled principles. A person professes to have walked to a certain distance; to have taken a certain route, and the like: a Christian professes to follow the doctrine and precepts of Christianity; a person declares that the thing is true or false, or he declares his firm belief in a thing.

To profess is employed only for what concerns one's self: to declare is likewise employed for what concerns others: one professes the motives and principles by which one is guided; one declares facts and circumstances with which one is acquainted: one professes nothing but what one thinks may be creditable and fit to be known, or what may be convenient for one's

purpose;

Pretending first

Wise to fly pain, professing next the spy, Argues no leader.—MILTON.

One declares whatever may have fallen under one's notice, or passed through one's mind, as the case re-'It is too common to find the aged at declared enmity with the whole system of present customs and manners.'-BLAIR. There is always a particular and private motive for profession; there are frequently publick grounds for making a declaration. A general profession of Christianity, according to established forms, is the bounden duty of every one born in the Christian persuasion; but a particular profession, ac cording to a singular and extraordinary form, is seldom adopted by any who do not deceive themselves, or wish to deceive others: no one should be ashamed of making a declaration of his opinions, when the cause of truth is thereby supported; every one should be ready to declare what he knows, when the purposes of justice are forwarded by the declaration; There are no where so plain and full declarations of mercy and love to the sons of men, as are made in the Gospel' TILLOTSON.

TO DECLARE, PUBLISH, PROCLAIM.

The idea of making known is common to all these terms: this is simply the signification of declare (v. To profess); but publisk (v. To announce) and proclaim, in Latin proclamo, compounded of pro and clamo, signifying to cry before or in the ears of others, include accessory ideas.

The word declare does not express any particular mode or circumstance of making known, as is implied by the others: we may declare publickly or privately; we zublish and proclaim only in a publick manner.

we may declare by word of mouth, or by writing; we publish or proclaim by any means that will render the thing most generally known.

In declaring, the leading idea is that of speaking out that which passes in the mind; in publishing, the leading idea is that of making publick or common; in proclaiming, the leading idea is that of crying aloud we may therefore often declare by publishing and pro claiming: a declaration is a personal act; it concerns the person declaring, or him to whom it is declared; its truth or falsehood depends upon the veracity of the speaker: a publication is of general interest; the truth or falsehood of it does not always rest with the publisher: a proclamation is altogether a publick act, in which no one's veracity is implicated. Facts and opinions and feelings are declared;

The Greeks in shouts their joint assent declare, The priest to rev'rence and release the fair.

Events and circumstances are published; 'I am surprised that none of the fortune-tellers, or, as the French call them, the Diseurs de bonne avanture, who publish their bills in every quarter of the town, have not turned our lotteries to their advantage.'-Addison. measures of government are proclaimed;

Nine sacred heralds now, proclaiming loud The monarch's will, suspend the list'ning crowd.

It is folly for a man to declare any thing to be true, which he is not certain to be so, and wickedness in him to declare that to be true which he knows to be false: whoever publishes all he hears will be in great danger of publishing many falsehoods; whatever is proclaimed is supposed to be of sufficient importance to deserve the notice of all who may hear or read.

In cases of war or peace, princes are expected to declare themselves on one side or the other; in the political world intelligence is quickly published through the medium of the publick papers, in private life do-mestick occurrences are published with equal celerity through the medium of tale-bearers; a proclamation is the ordinary mode by which a prince makes known the ordinary mode by which a prince makes known his wishes, and issues his commands to his subjects; it is an act of indiscretion very common to young and ardent inquirers to declare their opinions before they are properly matured; the publication of domestick circumstances is oftentimes the source of much disquiet and ill-will in families; ministers of the Gospel are styled messengers, who should proclaim its glad tidings to all people, and in all tongues.

DECREE, EDICT, PROCLAMATION.

Decree, in French decret, Latin decretus, from de cerno to give judgement or pass sentence, signifies the sentence or resolution that is passed; edict, in Latin edictus, from edico to say out, signifies the thing spoken

out or sent forth; proclamation, v. To declare.

A decree is a more solemn and deliberative act than an edict; on the other hand an edict is more authoritative than a decree. A decree is the decision of one or many; an edict speaks the will of an individual: councils and senates, as well as princes, make decrees; despotick rulers issue edicts.

Decrees are passed for the regulation of publick and private matters; they are made known as occasion requires, but are not always publick;

> If you deny me, fie upon your law: There is no force in the decrees of Venice.

SHAKSPEARE.

Edicts and proclamations contain the commands of the sovereign authority, and are directly addressed by the prince to his people. An edict is peculiar to a despotick government; 'This statute or act of parliament is placed among the records of the kingdom, there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was necessary by the civil law with regard to the emperour's edicts.'—BLACKSTONE. A proclamation is common to a monarchical and aristocratick form of government; 'From the same original of the king's being the fountain of justice, we also deduce the prerogative of issuing proclamations, which is vested in the king alone.—BLACKSTONE.

The ukase in Russia is a species of edict, by which the

emperour makes known his will to his people; the king of England communicates to his subjects the determinations of himself and his council by means of a proclamation.

TO ANNOUNCE, PROCLAIM, PUBLISH, ADVERTISE.

Announce, in Latin annuncio, is compounded of an or ad and nuncio to tell to any one in a formal manner proclaim, in Latin proclume, is compounded of pro and clamo to cry before, or cry aloud; publics, in Latin publics, from publics and populus, signifies to make public or known to the people at large; advertise, from the Latin adverto, or ad and verto, signifies to turn the attention to a thing.

The characteristick sense of these words is the making of a thing known to several individuals: a thing is announced to an individual or small commuthing is announced to an individual or small commu-nity; it is proclaimed to a neighbourhood, and pub-lished to the world. An event that is of particular interest is announced; 'We might with as much rea-son doubt whether the sun was intended to enlighten the earth, as whether he who has framed the human mid-invoked to recover interesting to workful. mind intended to announce righteousness to mankind as a law.'-Blair. An event is proclaimed that requires to be known by all the parties interested;

But witness, heralds! and proclaim my vow, Witness to gods above, and men below.—Porg.

That is published which is supposed likely to interest all who know it; 'It very often happens that none are more industrious in publishing the blemishes of an extraordinary reputation, than such as lie open to the same censures in their own character.'-Addison.

Announcements are made verbally, or by some well known signal; proclamations are made verbally, and accompanied by some appointed signal; publications are ordinarily made through the press, or by oral comnunication from one individual to another. The arrival of a distinguished person is announced by the ringing of the bells; the proclamation of peace by a herald is accompanied with certain ceremonies calculated to excite notice; the publication of news is the office of the journalist.

Advertise denotes the means, and publish the end. To advertise is to direct the publick attention to any event or circumstance; 'Every man that advertises his own excellence should write with some consciousness of a character which dares to call the attention of the publick.'-Johnson. To publish is to make known either by an oral or printed communication; The criticisms which I have hitherto published, have been made with an intention rather to discover beauties and excellences in the writers of my own time, than to publish any of their faults and imperfections." ADDISON.

We publish by advertising, but we do not always advertise When we publish. Mercantile and civil transactions are conducted by means of advertisements. Extraordinary circumstances are speedily published in a neighbourhood by circulating from mouth to mouth.

TO PUBLISH, PROMULGATE, DIVULGE, REVEAL, DISCLOSE.

To publish signifies the same as in the preceding article; promulgate, in Latin promulgatus, participle article; promutgue, in Latin promutgatus, participal of promutgo, for provulgo, signifies to make vulgar; divutge, in Latin divutgo, that is, in diversos vulgo, signifies to make vulgar in different parts; reveal, in Latin revelo, from velo to veil, signifies to take off the veil or cover; disclose signifies to make the reverse of

To publish is the most general of these terms, conveying in its extended sense the idea of making known; By the execution of several of his benefactors, Maximin published in characters of blood the indelible history of his baseness and ingratitude.'—GIRBON. Publishing is an indefinite act, whereby we may make to make known to many. We may publish that which is a domestick or a national concern, we promulgate property only that which is of general interest: the affairs of a family or of a nation are published in the newspapers; doctrines, principles, precepts, and the like, are promulgated; 'An absurd theory on one side of a question forms no justification for alleging a false fact or promulgating mischievous maxims on the other.'—BURKE. We may publish things to be known, or things not to be known; we divulge things mostly not to be known; we may publish our own shame, or the shame of another, and we may publish that which is advantageous to another; but we commonly divulge the secrets or the crimes of another;

Tremble, thou wretch,
That hast within thee undivulged crimes.
Shakspeare.

To publish is said of that which was never before known, or never before existed; to reveal and disclose are said of that which has been only concealed or lay hidden: we publish the events of the day; we reveal the secret or the mystery of a transaction; 'In confession, the revealing is not for worldly use, but for the ease of a man's heart.'—Bacon. We disclose the whole of an affair from beginning to end, which has never been properly known or accounted for;

Then earth and ocean various forms disclose.

DRYDEN.

TO UNCOVER, DISCOVER, DISCLOSE.

To uncover, like discover, implies to take off the covering; but the former refers to an artificial material and occasional covering; the latter to a moral, natural, or per nament covering; plants are uncovered that they may receive the benefit of the air; they are discovered to gratify the researches of the botanist. To discover and disclose both signify to lay open, but they differ in the object and manner of the action: that is discovered which is supposed to be covered; and that is disclosed which is discovered, a scene is disclosed;

Go draw aside the curtains, and discover The several caskets to this noble prince.

SHAKSPEARE.

'The shells being broken, struck off, and gone, the stone included in them is thereby disclosed and set at liberty.'—Woodward. A plot is discovered when it becomes known to one's self; a secret is disclosed when it is made known to another; 'He shall never, by any alteration in me, discover my knowledge of his mistake.'—Pope.

If I disclose my passion,
Our friendship's at an end; if I conceal it,
The world will call me false.—Addison.

TO DISCOVER, MANIFEST, DECLARE.

The idea of making known is conveyed by all these terms; but discover, which signifies simply the taking off the covering from any thing, expresses less than manifest, and that than declare: we discover by indirect means or signs more or less doubtful; we manifest by unquestionable marks; we declare by express words: talents and dispositions discover themselves; particular feelings and sentiments manifest themselves; facts, opinions, and sentiments are declared; children early discover a turn for some particular art or science; 'Several brute creatures discover in their actions something like a faint glimmering of reason.'—Additional policy, hereditary monarchy, than at the time of the revolution.'—Burke. A person of an open disposition is apt to declare his sentiments without disguise; 'Langhorne, Boyer, and Powel, presbyterian officers who commanded bodies of troops in Wales, were the first that declared themselves against the parliament.'—Hume

Things are said to discover, persons only manifest or declare in the proper sense; but they may be used figuratively; it is the nature of every thing sublunary to discover symptoms of decay more or less early; it is particularly painful when any one manifests an unfriently disposition from whom we had reason to expect the contrary.

TO PROVE, DEMONSTRATE, EVINCE, MANIFEST.

Prove, in Latin probo, signifies to make good demonstrate, from the Latin demonstro, signifies, by virtue of the intensive syllable de, to show in a specifick manner; evince, v. To argue; manifest signifies to

make manifest.

Prove is here the general and indefinite term, the rest imply different modes of proving; to demonstrate is to prove specifically: we may prove any thing by simple assertion; but we must demonstrate by intellectua efforts: we may prove that we were in a certain place; but we demonstrate some point in science: we may prove by personal influence; but we can demonstrate only by the force of evidence: we prove our own merit by our actions; we demonstrate the existence of a Deity by all that surrounds us;

Why on those shores are they with joy survey'd, Admir'd as heroes, and as gods obey'd, Unless great acts superiour merit prove?—Pope.

'By the very setting apart and consecrating places for the service of God, we demonstrate our acknowledgment of his power and sovereignty over us.'—Beve-

RIDGE.

To prove, evince, and mainfest are the acts either of persons or things; to demonstrate, that of persons only: in regard to persons, we prove either the facts which we know, or the mental endowments which we possess: we evince and manifest a disposition or a state of mind: we evince our sincerity by our actions; it is a work of time; 'We must evince the sincerity of our faith by good works.'—Blair. We manifest a friendly or a hostile disposition by a word or a single action, it is the act of the moment; 'In the life of a man of sense, a short life is sufficient to manifest himself a man of honour and virtue.'—Stelle. All these terms are applied to things, inasmuch as they may tend either to produce conviction, or simply to make a thing known; to prove and evince are employed in the first case; to manifest in the latter case: the beauty and order in the creation prove the wisdom of the Creator; a persistance in a particular course of conduct may either evince great virtue or great folly; the miracles wrought in Egypt manifested the Divine power.

PROOF, EVIDENCE, TESTIMONY.

The proof is that which simply proves; the evidence is that which makes evident, which rises in sense upon the proof; the testimony is a species of evidence by means of witnesses, from testic a witness.

In the legal acceptation of the terms, proofs are commonly denominated evidence, because no proof can be admitted as such which does not tend to make evident; but as the word proof is sometimes taken for the act of proving as well as the thing proved, the terms are not always indifferently used; 'Positive proof is always required, where, from the nature of the case, it appears it might possibly have been had. But next to positive proof, circumstantial evidence, or the doctrine of presumptions, must take place.'—BLACKSTONE.
'Evidence is either written or parol.'—BLACKSTONE.
Testimony is properly parol evidence; hut the term is only used in relation to the person giving the evidence; 'Our law considers that there are many transactions to which only one person is privy, and therefore does not always demand the testimony of two.'—BLACKSTONE.

In an extended application of the words they are taken in the sense of a sign or mark, by which a thing is known to exist; and, with a similar distinction, the proof is the sign which prones; 'Of the fallaciousness of hope, and the uncertainty of schemes, every day gives some new proof.'—Johnson. The evidence is the sign which makes evident; hence we speak of the evidences of the senses; 'Cato Major, who had borne all the great offices, has left us an evidence, under his own hand, how much he was versed in country affairs. —Locke. The testimony is that which is offered a given by persons or things personited in proof of any thing; 'Evidence is said to arise from testimony, when we depend upon the credit and relation of others for the truth or falsehood of any thing.'—Wilkins. Hence a person makes another a present, or performs any other act of kindness, as a testimony of his regard; and

persons or things personified bear testimony in favour i of persons; 'I must bear this testimony to Otway's memory, that the passions are truly touched in his Venice Preserved.'—DRYDEN.

Ye Trojan flames, your testimony bear What I perform'd, and what I suffer'd there.

The proof is employed mostly for facts or physical objects; the evidence is applied to that which is moral or intellectual. All that our Saviour did and said were evidences of his divine character, which might have produced faith in the minds of many, even if they had not such numerous and miraculous proofs of his power. The evidence may be internal, or lie in the thing itself; 'Of Swift's general habits of thinking, if this letters can be supposed to afford any enidence, he was not a man to be either loved or envied. —Johnson.

The proof is always external: 'Men ought not to The proof is always external: 'Men ought not to expect either sensible proof or demonstration for such matters as are not capable of such proofs, supposing them to be true.'—Wilkins. The internal evidences of the truth of Divine Revelation are even more numerous than those which are external; our Saviour's reappearance among his disciples did not satisfy the unbelieving Thomas of his identity, until he had the farther proofs of feeling the holes in his hands and his side.

DEPONENT, EVIDENCE, WITNESS.

Deponent, from the Latin depono, is the one laying down or open what he has heard or seen; evidence, from evident, is the one producing evidence or making evident; witness, from the Saxon witan, Teutonick weissen, Greek είδεω, and Hebrew γ7° to know, is one who knows or makes known.

The deponent always declares upon oath; he serves to give information: the evidence is likewise gene ally bound by an oath; he serves to acquit or condemn: the witness is employed upon oath or otherwise he serves to confirm or invalidate;

The pleader having spoke his best, And witness ready to attest Who fairly could on oath depose When questions on the fact arose, That ev'ry article was true. Nor further these deponents knew .- Swif7

A deponent declares either in writing or by word of mouth; the deposition is preparatory to the trial: an evidence may give evidence either by words or action; whatever serves to clear up the thing, whether a pt. son or an animal, is used as an evidence; the evidence always comes forward on the trial; 'Of the evidence which appeared against him (Savage) the character of the man was not unexceptionable; that of the woman notoriously infamous.'—Johnson. A witness is always a person in the proper sense, but may be applied figuratively to inanimate objects; he declares by word of mouth what he personally knows. Every witness is an evidence at the moment of trial, but every evidence is not a vitness. When a dog is employed as an evidence he cannot be called a witness; In case a woman be forcibly taken away and married, she may be a witness against her husband in order to convict him of felony. —BLACESTONE. 'In every man's heart and conscience, religion has many witnesses to its importance and reality.'- BLAIR.

Evidence on the other hand is confined mostly to judicial matters; and witness extends to all the ordinary concerns of life. One person appears as an evi dence against another on a criminal charge: a witness appears for or against; he corroborates the word of another, and is a security in all dealings or matters of question between man and man.

TO CONVICT, DETECT, DISCOVER.

Convict, from the Latin convictus, participle of convinco to make manifest, signifies to make clear; detect, from the Latin detectus, participle of detego, compounded of the privative de and tego to cover, signifies to uncover or lay open. To detect and discover serve to denote the laying open of crimes or errours. A person is convicted by means of evidence; he is detected

by means of ocular demonstration. One is convicted of having been the perpetrator of some evil deed; 'Advice is offensive, not because it lays us open to un expected regret, or convicts us of any fault which had escaped our notice, but because it shows us that we are known to others as well as ourselves.'-JOHNSON. One is detected in the very act of committing the deed. One is convicted of crimes in a court of judicature; one is detected in various misdemeanours by different casualties; 'Every member of society feels and acknowledges the necessity of detecting crimes.'—Johnson. Punishment necessarily follows the conviction; but in the case of detection, it rests in the breast of the individual against whom the offence is committed.

Detect is always taken in a bad sense : discover (v. Detects is through the transfer in a brace sense of the transfer in an indifferent sense. A person or a thing is discovered that has unintentionally lain concealed. Thieves are detected in picking pockets; a lost child is discovered in a wood, or in some place of security. Detection is the act of the moment; it is effected by the aid of the senses: a discovery is the consequence of efforts, and is brought about by circuitous means, and the aid of the understanding. A plot is detected by any one who communicates what he has seen and heard; many murders have been discovered after a lapse of years by ways the most excraordinary. No-thing is detected but what is actually passing; many things are discovered which have long passed. Wicked men go on in their career of vice with the hope of escaping detection; the discovery of one villany often leads to that of many more; 'Cunning when it is once detected loses its force?'—Addison. 'We are told that the Spartans, though they punished theft in the young men when it was discovered, looked upon it as honour able if it succeeded.'-ADDISON.

TO FIND, FIND OUT, DISCOVER, ESPY, DESCRY.

Find, in German finden, &c. is most probably connected with the Latin venio, signifying to come in the way discover, v. To uncover; espy, in French espier, comes from the Latin espicio, signifying to see a thing out; descry, from the Latin discerno, signifies to distinguish a thing from others.

To find signifies simply to come within sight of a thing, which is the general idea attached to all these terms: they vary, however, either in the mode of the action or in the object. What we find may become visible to us by accident, but what we find out is the result of an effort. We may find any thing as we pass along in the streets; but we find out mistakes in an account by carefully going over it, or we find out the difficulties which we meet with in learning, by redoubling our diligence; 'Socrates, who was a great redoubling our diligence; Sociales, who was a great admirer of Cretan institutions, set his excellent wit to find out some good cause and use of this evil inclina-tion (the love of boys). —WALSH. What is found may have been lost to ourselves, but visible to others:

He finds the fraud, and with a smile demands. On what design the boy had bound his hands.

What is discovered is always remote and unknown, and when discovered is something new; 'Cunning is a kind of short-sightedness that discovers the minutest objects which are near at hand, but is not able to dis-cern things at a distance.'—Apprson. A piece of money may be found lying on the ground; but a mine is disovered under ground. When captain Cook discovered under ground. When Captain Cook discovered the islands in the South Sea, many plants and animals were found. What is not discoverable may be presumed not to exist; but that which is found may be only what has been lost. What has once been dis-covered cannot be discovered again; but what is found may be many times found. Find out and discover differ principally in the application; the former being applied to familiar, and the latter to scientifick objects: scholars find out what they have to learn; men of re-search discover what escapes the notice of others.

To espy is a species of finding out, namely, to find out what is very secluded or retired;

There Agamemnon, Priam here he spies, And fierce Achilles, who both kings defies.

DRYDEN.

distance, or among a number of objects;

Through this we pass, and mount the tower from whence,

With unavailing arms, the Trojans make defence; From this the trembling king had oft descried, The Grecian camp, and saw their navy ride.

An astronomer discovers fresh stars or planets; he finds those on particular occasions which have been alrendy discovered. A person finds out by continued inquiry any place to which he had been wrong directed: he espics an object which lies concealed in a corner or secret place: he descries a horseman coming down a hill.

Find and discover may be employed with regard to objects, either of a corporeal or intellectual kind; espy and descry only with regard to sensible objects of con poreal vision: find, either for those that are external or internal; discover, only for those that are external. The distinction between them is the same as before The distinction between them is the same as before, we find by simple inquiry; we discover by reflection and study; we find or find out the motives which influence a person's conduct; we discover the reasons or causes of things; the finding serves the particular purpose of the finder; the discovery serves the purpose of science, by adding to the stock of general knowledge.

When find is used as a purely intellectual opera-tion, it admits of a new view, in relation both to dis-cover and to invent, as may be seen in the following

article.

TO FIND, FIND OUT, DISCOVER, INVENT.

To find or fid out (v. To find) is said of things which do not exist in the forms in which a person finds them: to discover (v. To uncover) is said of that which exists in an entire state: invent, in Latin inventum, from innenio, signifying to come at or light upon, is said of that which is new made or modelled. The merit of finding or inventing consists in newly applying or modifying the materials which exist sepa rately; the merit of discovering consists in removing the obstacles which prevent us from knowing the real nature of the thing: imagination and industry are requisite of the lung. Imagination an industry are re-quisite for finding or inventing; acuteness and pene-tration for discovering. A person finds reasons for justifying himself; he discovers traits of a bad dis-position in another. Cultivated minds find sources of amusement within themselves, or a prisoner finds means of escape. Many traces of a universal deluge have been discovered: the physician discovers the nature of a particular disorder.

Find is applicable to the operative arts;

Long practice has a sure improvement found, With kindled fires to burn the barren ground

DRYDEN.

Discover is applied to speculative objects; 'Since the harmonick principles were discovered, musick has been a great independent science.'—SEWARD. Invent is applied to the mechanical arts;

The sire of gods and men, with hard decrees, Forbids our plenty to be bought with ease; Himself invented first the shining share, And whetted human industry by care.—DRYDEN.

We speak of finding modes for performing actions, and effecting purposes; of inventing machines, instru-ments, and various matters of use or elegance; of discovering the operations and laws of nature. Many fruitless attempts have been made to find the longitude: men have not been so unsuccessful in finding out various arts for communicating their thoughts. commemorating the exploits of their nations, and sup plying themselves with luxuries; nor have they failed in every species of machine or instrument which can aid their purpose. Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood: Torricell discovered the gravity of the air: by geometry the properties of figures are dis-concred; by chymistry the properties of compound substances: but the geometrician finds by reasoning the solution of any problem; or by investigating, he finds out a clearer method of solving the same problems; or he invents an instrument by which the proof can be deduced from ocular demonstration. Thus

Descry is a species of discovering, or observing at a the astronomer discovers the motions of the heavenly bodies, by means of the telescope which has been in vented.

EMISSARY, SPY.

Emissary, in Latin emissarius, from emitto to sent forth, signifies one sent out; spy, in French espion, from the Latin specio to look into or look about, signi fies one narrowly searched.

Both these words designate a person sent out by a body on some publick concern among their enemies, but they differ in their office according to the etymo-

logy of the words.
The emissary is by distinction sent forth, he is sent so as to mix with the people to whom he goes, to be in all places, and to associate with every one indivi dually as may serve his purpose; the spy, on the other hand, takes his station wherever he can best perceive what is passing; he keeps himself at a distance from all but such as may particularly aid him in the object of his search.

The object of an emissary is by direct communica-tion with the enemy to sow the seeds of dissension, to spread false alarms, and to disseminate false principles; the object of a spy is to get information of an enemy's

plans and movements.

Although the office of emissary and spy are neither of them honourable, yet that of the former is more disgraceful than that of the latter. The emissary is generally employed by those who have some illegitiments. mate object to pursue; 'The Jesuits send over emis-saries with instructions to personate themselves members of the several sects among us '-Swift. Spies on the other hand are employed by all regular governments in a time of warfare; 'He (Henry I.) began with the Earl of Shrewsbury, who was watched for some time by spies and then indicted upon a charge of forty-five articles.'—Hume.

In the time of the Revolution, the French sent their emissaries into every country, civilized or uncivilized, to fan the flame of rebellion against established governments. At Sparta, the trade of a spy was not so vile as it has been generally esteemed; it was considered as a self-devotion for the publick good, and formed a

part of their education.

These terms are both applied in an extended application with a similar distinction; 'What generally makes pain itself, if I may so say, more painful, is that it is considered as the emissary of the king of terrours.'-BURKE.

These wretched spies of wit must soon confess, They take more pains to please themselves the less. DRYDEN.

MARK, PRINT, IMPRESSION, STAMP.

Mark is the same in the northern languages, and in the Persian marz; print and impression, both from the Latin premo to press, signify the visible effect produced by printing or pressing; stamp signifies the effect produced by stamping.

The word mark is the most general in sense: what-

ever alters the external face of an object is a mark; the print is some specifick mark, or a figure drawn upon the surface of an object; the impression is the mark pressed either upon or into a body; the stamp is the mark that is stamped in or upon the body. mark is confined to no size, shape, or form; the print is a mark that represents an object: the mark may consist of a spot, a line, a stain, or a smear; but a print describes a given object, as a house, a man, &c. A mark is either a protuberance or a depression; an impression is always a sinking in of the object: a infinition or a hole are both marks; but the latter is properly the impression; the stamp mostly resembles the impression, unless in the case of a seal, which is stamped upon paper, and occasions an elevation with the wax.

The mark is occasioned by every sort of action, gentle or violent, artificial or natural; by the voluntary act of a person, or the unconscious act of inanimate bodies; by means of compression or friction; by a touch or a blow, and the like: all the others are occasioned by one or more of these modes: 'De la Chambre asserts positively that from the marks on the body,

the configuration of the planets at a nativity may be gathered .- Walsh. The print is occasioned by artificial means of compression, as when the print of letters or pictures is made on paper; or by accidental and natural compression, as when the *print* of the hand is made on the wall, or the *print* of the foot is made on the ground:

From hence Astrea took her flight, and here The prints of her departing steps appear.

The impression is made by means more or less violent, as when an impression is made upon wood by the axe or hammer; or by means gradual and natural, as by the dripping of water on stone. The stamp is made by means of direct pressure with an artificial instru-

Mark is of such universal application that it is confined to no objects whatever, either in the natural or moral world; print is mostly applied to material objects, the face of which undergoes a lasting change, as the printing made on paper or wood; impression is more commonly applied to such natural objects as are particularly solid; stamp is generally applied to paper, or still softer and more yielding bodies. Impression and stamp have both a moral application: events or speeches make an *impression* on the mind: things bear a certain stamp which bespeaks their origin. Where the passions have obtained an ascendancy, the occasional good impressions which are produced by religious observances but too frequently die away No man can offer at the change of the government established, without first gaining new authority, and in some degree debasing the old by appearance and impressions of contrary qualities in those who before enjoyed it."—Temple. The Christian religion carries with itself the stamp of truth;

Adult'rate metals to the sterling stamp Appear not meaner than mere human lines Compar'd with those whose inspiration shines. ROSCOMMON.

MARK, SIGN, NOTE, SYMPTOM, TOKEN, INDICATION.

Mark, v. Mark impression; sign, in Latin signum, Greek stypa from skω to punctuate, signifies the thing that points out: symptom, in Latin symptoma, Greek σύμπτωμα from συαπίπτω to fall out in accordance with any thing, signifies what presents itself to confirm one's opinion; token, through the medium of the northern languages, comes from the Greek τεκμήριον; indication, in Latin indicatio from indico, and the Greek ἐνδείκω to point out, signifies the thing which points out.

The idea of an external object which serves to direct

the observer, is common to all these terms; the difference consists in the objects that are employed. Any thing may serve as a mark, a stroke, a dot, a stick set up, and the like; it serves simply to guide the senses: the sign is something more complex; it consists of a figure or representation of some object, as the twelve signs of the zodiack, or the signs which are affixed to houses of entertainment, or to shops. Marks are arbitrary; every one chooses his mark at pleasure; signs have commonly a connexion with the object that is to be observed: a house, a tree, a letter, or any external object may be chosen as a mark; but a tobacconist chooses the sign of a black man: the innkeeper chooses the head of the reigning prince. Marks serve in general simply to aid the memory in distinguishing the situation of objects, or the particular circumstances of persons or things, as the marks which are set up in the garden to distinguish the ground that is occupied; they may, therefore, be private, and known only to the individual or individuals that make them, as the private marks by which a tradesman distinguishes the prices: they may likewise be changeable and fluctuating, according to the humour and convenience of the maker, as the private marks which are employed by the military on Signs, on the contrary, serve to direct the understanding; they have either a natural or an artificial resemblance to the object to be represented; they are consequently chosen, not by the will of one, but by the universal consent of a body; they are not chosen for the moment, but for a permanency, as in the case of language, either oral or written, in the case of the zo-diacal signs, or the sign of the cross, the algebraical

signs, and the like. It is clear, therefore, that many objects may be both a mark and a sign, according to the above illustration: the cross which is employed in books, by way of reference to notes, is a mark only, because it serves merely to guide the eye, or assist the memory; but the figure of the cross, when employed in reference to the cross of our Saviour, is a sign, inasmuch as it conveys a distinct idea of something else to the mind; so likewise, little strokes over letters, or even letters themselves, may merely be marks, while they only point out a difference between this or that letter, this or that object; but this same stroke becomes a sign, if, as in the first declension of Latin nouns, it points out the ablative case, it is the sign of the abla-tive case; and a single letter affixed to different parcels is merely a mark so long as it simply serves this purpose; but the same letter, suppose it were a word, is a sign when it is used as a sign. It is, moreover, clear from the above, that there are many objects which serve as marks, which are never signs; and on the other hand, although signs are mostly composed, yet there are two sorts of signs which have nothing to do with the mark; namely, those which we obtain by any other sense than that of sight; or those which are only figures in the mind. When words are spoken, and not written, they are signs and not marks; and in like manner the sign of the cross, when made on the forehead of children in baptism, is a sign, but not This illustration of these two words in their a mark. a mark. This illustration of these two bonds in them in strict and proper sense, will serve to explain them in their extended and metaphorical sense. A mark stands for nothing but what is visible; the sign stands for that only which is real. A star on the breast of an officer or nobleman is a mark of distinction or honour, because it distinguishes one person from another, and in a way that is apt to reflect honour; but it is not a sign of honour, because it is not the indubitable test of a man's honourable feelings, since it may be conferred by favour or by mistake, or from some partial circumstance.

The mark and sign may both stand for the appearance of things, and in that case the former shows the cause by the effect, the latter the consequent by the antecedent. When a thing is said to bear the marks of violence, the cause of the mark is judged of by the mark itself; but when we say that a lowering sky is a sign of rain, the future or consequent event is judged of by the present appearance;

So plain the signs, such prophets are the skies. DRYDEN.

So likewise we judge by the marks of a person's foot that some one has been walking in a given place: when mariners meet with birds at sea, they consider them a sign that land is near at hand.

It is here worthy of observation, however, that mark is only used for that which may be seen, bu: that the sign may serve to direct our conclusions, even in that which affects the hearing, feeling, smell, or taste; thus hoarseness is a sign that the person has taste; thus nonrecess a sign that the person has a cold; the effects which it produces on the patient are to himself sensible signs that he labours under such an affection. The smell of fire is a sign that some place is on fire; one of the two travellers, in La Mothe's fable, considered the taste of the wine as a sign that there must be leather in the bottle, and the other that there must be iron; and it proved that they were both right, for a little key with a bit of leather tied to it was found at the bottom.

In this sense of the words they are applied to moral objects with precisely the same distinction; the mark illustrates the spring of the action; the sign shows the state of the mind or sentiments: it is a mark of folly or weakness in a man to yield himself implicitly to the guidance of an interested friend; 'The ceremonial laws of Moses were the marks to distinguish the people of God from the Gentiles.'—BACON. Tears are not always a sign of repentance; 'The sacring of the kings of France (as Loysel says) is the sign of their sovereign priesthood.'—TEMPLE.

A note is rather a sign than a mark; but it is properly the sign which consists of marks, as a note of admiration (;), and likewise a note which consists of many letters and words.

Symptom is rather a mark than a sign; it explains the cause or origin of complaints, by the appearances they assume, and is employed as a technical term only

in the science of medicine: as a foaming at the mouth, and an abhorrence of drink, are symptoms of canine madness; motion and respiration are signs of life. Symptom may likewise be used figuratively in application to moral objects; 'This fall of the French monarchy was far from being preceded by any exteriour symptoms of ducline.' Renew.

symptoms of decline.—Burke.

Token is a species of mark in the moral sense, indication a species of sign; the mark shows what is, the token serves to keep in mind what has been: a gift to a friend is a mark of one's affection and esteem ; it be permanent in its nature it becomes a token . friends who are in close intercourse have perpetual opportunities of showing each other marks of their regard by reciprocal acts of courtesy and kindness; when they separate for any length of time, they commonly leave some token of their tender sentiments in each other's hands, as a pledge of what shall be, as well as an evidence of what has been; 'The famous bull-feasts are an evident token of the Quixotism and romantick taste of the Spaniards.'-Somerville.

Sign, as it respects an indication, is said in abstract and general propositions: indication itself is only employed for some particular individual referred to; it bespeaks the act of the persons: but the sign is only the face or appearance of the thing. When a man does not live consistently with the profession which he holds, it is a sign that his religion is built on a wrong foundation; parents are gratified when they observe the slightest indications of genius or goodness in their children; 'It is certain Virgil's parents gave him a good education, to which they were inclined by the early indications he gave of a sweet disposition and excellent wit.'—Walsh.

MARK, TRACE, VESTIGE, FOOTSTEP, TRACK.

The word mark has already been considered at large in the preceding article, but it will admit of farther illustration when taken in the sense of that which is visible, and serves to show the existing state of things; mark is here, as before, the most general and unquastances or manner of the mark; trace, in Italian treccia, Greek τρέχειν to run, and Hebrew γος way, signifies any continued mark; vestige, in Latin vestigium, not improbably contracted from pedis and stigium or stigma, from ξίω to imprint, signifies a print of the foot; footstep is taken for the place in which the foot has stepped, or the mark made by that step; track, derived from the same source as trace, signifies the way run, or the mark produced by that running.

The mark is said of a fresh and uninterrupted line;

the trace is said of that which is broken by time: a carriage, in driving along the sand leaves marks of the wheels, but in a short time all traces of its having been there will be lost: the mark is produced by the action of bodies on one another in every possible form; the spilling of a liquid may leave a mark on the floor; the blow of a stick leaves a mark on the body;

I have served him In this old body; yet the marks remain Of many wounds.—OTWAY.

The trace is a mark produced only by bodies making a progress or proceeding in a continued course: the ship that cuts the waves, and the bird that cuts the air, leaves no traces of their course behind; so men pass their lives, and after death they leave no traces that they ever were, 'The greatest favours to an ungrateful man are but like the motion of a ship upon the waves: they leave no trace, no sign behind them.'—South. These words are both applied to moral objects, but the mark is produced by objects of inferiour importance; it excites a momentary observation, but does not carry us back to the past; its cause is either too obvious or too minute to awaken attention; a trace is generally a mark of something which we may wish to see. Marks of haste and imbecility in a common writer excite no surprise, and call forth no obseration:

These are the monuments of Helen's love, The shame I bear below, the marks I bore above. DEVDEN.

In a writer of long standing celebrity, we look for traces of his former genius.

The vestige is a species of the mark caused literally by the foot of man, and consequently applied to such places as have been inhabited, where the active industry of man has left visible marks; it is a species of trace, inasmuch as it carries us back to that which was, but is not at present. We discover by marks that things have been; we discover by traces and vestiges what they have been: a hostile army always bestiges what they have been a nostne army aways leaves sufficiently evident marks of its having passed through a country; there are traces of the Roman roads still visible in London and different parts of England: Rome contains many vestiges of its former greatness; 'Both Britain and Ireland had temples for the worship of the gods, the vestiges of which are now remaining.'-PARSONS.

Mineralogists assert that there are many marks of a universal deluge discoverable in the fossils and strata of the earth; philological inquirers imagine that there are traces in the existing languages of the world sufficient to ascertain the progress by which the earth became populated after the deluge; the pyramids are vestiges of antiquity which raise our ideas of human greatness beyond any thing which the modern state of the arts can present. Vestige, like the two former, may be applied to moral as well as natural objects with the same line of distinction. A person betrays marks of levity in his conduct. Wherever we discover traces of the same customs or practices in one country which are prevalent in another, we suppose those countries to have had an intercourse or connexion of some kind with one another at a certain remote period.

Footstep and track are sometimes employed as a mark, but oftener as a road or course: when we talk of following the footsteps of another, it may signify either to follow the marks of his footsteps as a guide for the course we should take, or to walk in the very same steps as he has done: the former is the act of same steps as ne has done: the former is the act of one who is in pursuit of another; the latter is the act of him who follows in a train. Footsteps is employed only for the steps of an individual; the track is made by the steps of many; it is the line which has been beaten out or made by stamping: the term footstep can only be employed for men or brutes; but track is applied to inanimate objects, as the wheel of a carriage. When Cacus took away the oxen of Hercules, he dragged them backward that they might not be traced by their footsteps: a track of blood from the body of a murdered man may sometimes lead to the detection of the murderer.

In the metaphorical application they do not signify a mark, but a course of conduct; the former respects one's moral feelings or mode of dealing; the latter one's mechanical and habitual manner of acting: the former is the consequence of having the same princi-ples; the latter proceeds from immation or constant repetition.

A good son will walk in the footsteps of a good father. In the management of business it is rarely wise in a young man to leave the track which has been marked out for him by his superiours in age and experience;

Virtue alone ennobles humankind, And power should on her glorious footsteps wait. WYNNE.

Though all seems lost, 't is impious to despair, The tracks of Providence like rivers win

MARK, BADGE, STIGMA.

Mark (v. Mark, print) is still the general, and the two other specifick terms; they are employed for whatever externally serves to characterize persons, or hetoken any part either of his character or his circumstances: mark is employed either in a good, bad, or indifferent sense; badge in an indifferent; stigma in a bad sense: a thing may either be a mark of honour, of disgrace, or of simple distinction: a badge is a mark simply of distinction; the stigma is a mark of disgrace. The mark is conferred upon a person for his merits, as medals, stars, and ribands are bestowed by princes upon meritorious officers and soldiers; or the mark attaches to a person, or is affixed to him, in consequence of his demerits; as a low situation in his class is a mark of disgrace to a scholar; or a fool's cap is a mark of ignominy affixed to idlers and dunces; or a brand in the

these revolutionary meetings, every counsel, in proportion as it is during and violent and periidious, is taken for the mark of superiourgenius.'—BURKE. The badge for the mark of superiourgenus."—BURKE. The badge is voluntarily assumed by one's self according to established custom; it consists of dress by which the office, station, and even religion of a particular community is distinguished: as the gown and wig is the badge of gentlemen in the law; the gown and surplice that of clerical men; the uniform of charity children is the badge of their condition; the peculiar habit of the Quakers and Methodists is the badge of their religion; 'The people of England look upon hereditary succes sion as a security for their liberty, not as a badge of servitude.'—BURKE.

The stigma consists not so much in what is openly imposed upon a person as what falls upon him in the judgement of others; it is the black mark which is set upon a person by the publick, and is consequently the strongest of all marks, which every one most dreads, and every good man seeks least to deserve. A simple mark may sometimes be such only in our own imagination; as when one fancies that dress is a mark of superiority, or the contrary; that the courtesies which we receive from a superiour are marks of his personal esteem and regard: but the stigma is not what an individual imagines for himself, but what is conceived to wards him by others; the office of a spy and informer is so odious, that every man of honest feeling holds the very name to be a stigma; although a stigma is in general the consequence of a man's real unworthiness, yet it is possible for particular prejudices and ruling passions to make that a stigma which is not so de-servedly; as in the case of men's religious profession. inasmuch as it is not accompanied with any moral depravity; it is mostly unjust to attach a stigma to a whole body of men for their speculative views; 'The cross, which our Saviour's enemies thought was to stigmatize him with infamy, became the ensign of his renown.'-Blair.

MARK, BUTT.

After all that has been said upon the word mark (n. Mark print), it has this additional meaning in common with the word butt, that it implies an object aimed at: the mark is however literally a mark that is said to be shot at by the marksman with a gun or a bow.

A fluttering dove upon the top they tie, The living mark at which their arrows fly.

Or it is metaphorically employed for the man who by his peculiar characteristicks makes himself the object

of notice; he is the mark at which every one's looks and thoughts are directed; He made the mark For all the people's hate, the prince's curses.

The butt, from the French but the end, is a species of mark in this metaphorical sense; but the former only calls forth general observation, the latter provokes the laughter and jokes of every one. Whoever renders laughter and jokes of every one. Whoever renders himself conspicuous by his eccentricities either in his opinions or his actions, must not complain if he becomes a mark for the derision of the publick; it is a man's misfortune rather than his fault if he become the butt of a company who are rude and unfeeling enough to draw their pleasures from another's pain; 'I mean those honest gentlemen that are pelted by men, women, and children, by friends and foes, and in a word stand as butts in conversation. - Apprson.

TO DERIVE, TRACE, DEDUCE.

Derive, from the Latin de and rivus a river, signifies to drain after the manner of water from its source: trace, in Italian tracciare, Greek τρέχω to run, Hebrew to go, signifies to go by a line drawn out, to follow the line; deduce, in Latin deduce, signifies to bring

The idea of drawing one thing from another is included in all the actions designated by these terms The act of deriving is immediate and direct; that of

forehead is a mark of ignominy for criminals; 'In tracing a gradual process; that of deducing by a these revolutionary meetings, every counsel, in proportional ratiocinative process.

We discover causes and sources by derivation; we discover the course, progress, and commencement of things by tracing; we discover the grounds and reasons of things by deduction. A person derives his name from a given source; he traces his family up to a given period; principles or powers are deduced from circumstances or observations. The Trojans derived the name of their city from Tros, a king of Phrygia; they traced the line of their kings up to Dardanus; 'The kings among the heathens ever derived them selves or their ancestors from some good.'-TEMPLE

Let Newton, pure intelligence! whom God To mortals lent to trace his boundless works, From laws sublimely simple speak thy fame. THOMSON.

Copernicus deduced the principle of the earth's turn-Copernicus aeduced the principle of the earth's turning round from several simple observations, particularly from the apparent and contrary motion of bodies that are really at rest. The English tongue is of such mixed origin that there is scarcely any known language from which sorse one of its words is not derivable; it is an interesting employment to trace the progress of science and civilization in countries which have been involved in improved and havising from the writings of in ignorance and barbarism; from the writings of Locke and other philosophers of an equally loose stamp, have been deduced principles both in morals and politicks that are destructive to the happiness of men in civil society; 'From the discovery of some natural authority may perhaps be deduced a truer original of all governments among men than from any contracts. TEMPLE.

TO IMPLANT, INGRAFT, INCULCATE, INSTIL, INFUSE.

To plant is properly to fix plants in the ground, to implant is properly on the plants in the ground, to implant is, in the improper sense, to fix principles in the mind. Graft is to make one plant grow on the stock of another; to impraft is to make particular principles flourish in the mind, and form a part of the character. Calco is in Latin to tread; and inculcate to stamp into the mind. Stillo, in Latin, is literally to fall dropwise; instillo, to instil, is, in the improper sense, to make sentiments as it were drop into the mind Fundo, in Latin, is literally to pour in a stream; infundo, to infuse, is, in the improper sense, to pour principles or feelings into the mind.

To implant, ingraft, and inculcate are said of ab stract opinions, or rules of right and wrong; instil and infuse of such principles as influence the hear, the affections, and the passions. It is the business of the parent in early life to implant sentiments of virtue in his child:

With various seeds of art deep in the mind Implanted.—Thomson.

is the business of the teacher to ingraft them; The reciprocal attraction in the minds of men is a principle ingrafted in the very first formation of the soul, by the Author of our nature.'-BERKELEY. belief of a Deity, and all the truths of Divine Revelation, ought to he implanted in the mind of the child as soon as it can understand any thing; if it have not en joyed this privilege in its earliest infancy, the task of ingrafting these principles afterward into the mind is attended with considerable difficulty and uncertainty of success. To inculcate is a more immediate act than either to implant or ingraft. It is the business of the preacher to inculcate the doctrines of Christianity from the pulpit; 'To preach practical sermons, as they are called, that is, sermons upon virtues and vices, without inculcating the great Scripture truths of redemption, grace, &c. which alone can enable and incite us to forsake sin and follow after righteousness; what is it, but to put together the wheels and set the hands of a watch, forgetting the spring which is to make them all go?'—Bishop Horne. Instilling is a corresponding act with implanting; we implant belief; we instil the feeling which is connected with this belief. It is not enough to have an abstract belief of a God implanted into the mind: we must likewise have a love and a fear of him, and reverence for his holy name and Word, instilled into the mind.

To instil is a gradual process which is the natural

work of education; to infuse is a more arbitrary and

immediate act. Sentiments are instilled into the mind, not altogether by the personal efforts of any individual, but likewise by collateral endeavours; they are however infused at the express will, and with the express endeavour of some person. By the reading of the Scriptures, an attendance on publick worship, and the arthuence of example, combined with the instructions of a parent, religious sentiments are instilled into the mind; 'The aposite often makes mention of sound doctrine in opposition to the extravagant and corrupt opinions which false teachers, even in those days, instilled into the minds of their ignorant and unwary disciples.'—Beveringe. By the counsel and conversation of an intimate friend, an even current of the feeling becomes infused into the mind;

No sooner grows
The soft infusion prevalent and wide,
Than, all alive, at once their joy o'erflows
In musick unconfin'd.—Thomson.

Instil is applicable only to permanent sentiments; infuse may be said of any partial feeling: hence we speak of infusing a poison into the mind by means of insidious and mischievous publications, or infusing a a jealousy by means of crafty instituations, or infusing an ardour into the minds of soldiers by means of spirited addresses coupled with military successes.

TO IMPRINT, IMPRESS, ENGRAVE.

Print and press are both derived from pressus, participle of premo, signifying in the literal sense to press, or to make a mark by pressing; to impress and imprint are morally enployed in the same sense. Things are impressed on the mind so as to produce a conviction: they are imprinted on it so as to produce recollection. If the truths of Christianity be impressed on the mind, they will show themselves in a corresponding conduct: whatever is imprinted on the mind in early life, or by any particular circumstance, is not readily forgotten;

Whence this disdain of life in ev'ry breast, But from a notion on their minds impress'd! That all who for their country die are bless'd!

'Such a strange, sacred, and inviolable majesty has God imprinted upon this faculty (the conscience), that it can never be deposed.'—South. Emprave, from grave and the German graben to dig, expresses more in the proper sense than either, and the same in its moral application; for we may truly say that if the truths of Christianity be engraven in the minds of youth, they can never be cradicated;

Deep on his front engraven,
Deliberation sat, and publick care.—Milton.

SEAL, STAMP.

Seal is a specifick, stamp a general, term: there cannot be a seal without a stamp; but there may be many stamps where there is no seal. Seal, in Latin signiflum, signifies a signet or little sign, consisting of any one's coat of arms, or any other device; the stamp is, in general, any impression whatever which has been made by stamping, that is, any impression which is not easily to be effaced. In the improper sense, the seal is the authority; thus to set one's seal is the same as to authorize, and the seal of truth is any outward mark which characterizes it;

Therefore, not long in force this charter stood, Wanting that seal, it must be seal'd in blood.

Denham.

In the stamp is the impression by which we distinguish the thing; thus a thing is said to bear the stamp of truth, of sincerity, of veracity, and the like;

Wisdom for parts is madness for the whole, This stamps the paradox, and gives us leave To call the wisest weak.—Young.

PICTURE, PRINT, ENGRAVING.

Picture (v. Painting) is any likeness taken by the hand of the artist; the print is the copy of the painting in a printed state; and the engraving is that which is produced by an engraver: every engraving

is a print; but every print is not an engraving; for the picture may be printed off from something besides an engraving, as in the case of wood cuts. The picture is sometimes taken for any representation of a likeness without regard to the mode by which it is formed: in this case it is employed mostly for the representations of the common kind that are found in books; but the print and engraving are said of the higher specimens of the art. On certain occasions the wood engraving is most appropriate, as to take an engraving of a particular object; on other occasions the word print, as a handsome print or a large print;

The pictures plac'd for ornament and use,
The twelve good rules, the royal game of goose.

GOLDSMITH.

Tim, with surprise and pleasure staring, Ran to the glass, and then comparing His own sweet figure with the print, Distinguish'd every feature in 't.—Swift.

'Since the publick has of late begun to express a relish for engravings, drawings, copyings, and for the original paintings of the chief Italian school, I doubt not that in very few years we shall make an equal progress in this other science.'—Earl of Shaftesbury.

TO MARK, NOTE, NOTICE.

Mark is here taken in the intellectual sense, fixing as it were a mark (v. Mark) upon a thing so as ic keep it in mind, which is in fact to fix one's attention upon it in such a manner as to be able to distinguish it by its characteristic qualities; to mark is therefore altogether an intellectual act: to note has the same end as that of marking, namely, to aid the memory; but one notes a thing by making a written note of it; this is therefore a mechanical act: to notice, on the other hand, is a sensible operation, from notatia knowledge signifying to bring to one's knowledge, perception, or understanding by the use of our senses. We mark and note that which particularly interests us. Marking serves a present purpose. Noting is applied to that which may be of use in future. The impatient lover marks the hours until the time arrives for meeting his mistress; 'Many who mark with such accuracy the course of time appear to have little sensibility of the decline of life.'—Johnson. Travellers note whatever strikes them of importance to be remembered when they return home;

O treach'rous conscience! while she seems to sleep, Unnoted, notes each moment misapply'd.—Young.

To notice may serve either for the present or the future; we may notice things merely by way of amusement, as a child will notice the actions of animals; or we may notice a thing for the sake of bearing it in mind, as a person notices a particular road when he wishes to return; 'An Englishman's notice of the weather is the seasons.'—JOHNSON.

TO NOTICE, REMARK, OBSERVE.

To notice (v. To attend to) is either to take or to give notice: to remark, compounded of re and murk (v. Mark), signifies to reflect or bring back any mark to our own mind, or communicate the same to another: to mark is to mark at thing once, but to remark is to mark is to mark at thing once, but to remark is to mark it again; observe (v. Looker-on) signifies either to keep a thing present before one's own view, or to communicate our view to another.

In the first sense of these words, as the action re-

In the first sense of these words, as the action respects ourselves, to notice and remark require simple attention, to observe requires examination. To notice is a more cursory action than to remark: we may notice a thing by a single glance, or on merely turning one's head; but to remark supposes a reaction of the nind on an object: we notice that a person passes out door on a certain day and at a certain hour; but we remark to others that he goes past every day at the same hour: we notice that the sun sets this evening under a cloud, and we remark that it has done so foi several evenings successively: we notice the state of a person's health or his manners in company, we remar his habits and peculiarities in domestick life. What is noticed and remarked strikes on the senses, and awakens the mind; what is observed is locked after

and sought for. Noticing and remarking are often involuntary acts; we see, hear, and think, because the objects obtrude themselves uncalled for: but observing is intentional as well as voluntary; we see, hear, and think on that which we have watched. We remark things as matters of fact; we observe them in order to judge of, or draw conclusions from, them: we remark that the wind lies for a long time in a certain quarter; we observe that whenever it lies in a certain quarter; the object of the consequently observes their actions, when they think they are not seen, in order to discover the cause of their dissatisfaction: people who have no curiosity are sometimes attracted to notice the stars or planets, when they think they are not seen, in order to discover the cause of their dissatisfaction: people who have no curiosity are sometimes attracted to notice the stars or planets, when they are particularly bright; those who look frequently will remark that the same star does not rise exactly in the same place for two successive nights; but the astronomer goes farther, and observes all the motions of the heavenly bodies, in order to discover the scheme of the universe; 'The depravity of mankind is so easily discoverable, that nothing but the desert or cell can exclude it from notice.'—Johnson. 'The glass that magnifies its objects contracts the sight to a point, and the mind must be fixed upon a single character, to remark its minute peculiarities.'—Johnson. 'The course of time is so visibly marked, that it is observed even by the birds of passage.'—Johnson.

In the latter seuse of these veibs, as respects the communications to others of what passes in our own minds, to notice is to make known our sentiments by various ways; to remark and observe are to make them known only by means of words: to notice is a personal act towards an individual, in which we direct our attention to him, as may happen either by a bow, a nod, a word, or even a look; 'As some do perceive, yea, and like it well, they should be so noticed.'— Howard. To remark and observe are said only of the thoughts which pass in our own minds, and are expressed to others: firends notice cach other when they meet; they remark to others the impression which passing objects make upon their minds; 'He cannot distinguish difficult and noble speculations from trifling and vulgar remarks.'—Collier. The observations which intelligent people make are always entitled to notice from young persons; 'Wherever I have found her notes to be wholly another's, which is the case in some hundreds, I have barely quoted the true proprietor, without observing upon it.'—Poper.

OBSERVATION, OBSERVANCE.

These terms derive their use from the different significations of the verb; observation is the act of observing objects with the view to examine them (v. To notice); observance is the act of observing a thing in the sense of keeping or holding it sacred (v. To keep). From a minute observation of the human body, anatomists have discovered the circulation of the blood, and the source of all the humours; 'The pride which, under the check of publick observation would have been only vented among domesticks, becomes, in a country baronet, the torment of a province.'—Johnson. By a strict observance of truth and justice, a man acquires the title of an upright man; 'You must not fail to behave yourself towards my Lady Clare, your grandmother, with all duty and observance.'—Earl Stafferder.

EXTRAORDINARY, REMARKABLE,

Are epithets both opposed to the ordinary; and in that sense the extraordinary is that which in its own nature is remarkable; but things, however, may be extraordinary which are not remarkable, and the contrary. The extraordinary is that which is out of the ordinary course; but it does not always excite remark, and is not therefore remarkable; as when we speak of an extraordinary lona, an extraordinary neasure of government: on the other hand, when extraordinary conveys the idea of what deserves notice, it expresses much more than remarkable. There are but few extraordinary things; many things are remarkable; the "emarkable is eminent; the extraordinary is supereminent: the extraordinary excites our astonishment; the

remarkable only awakens our interest and attention. The extraordinary is unexpected; the remarkable is sometimes looked for: every instance of sagacity and fidelity in a dog is remarkable, and some extraordinary instances have been related, which would almost stagger our belief; 'The love of praise is a passion deep in the mind of every extraordinary person.'—Huohes 'The heroes of literary history have been no less remarkable for what they have suffered than for what they have achieved.'—Johnson.

REMARK, OBSERVATION, COMMENT, NOTE, ANNOTATION, COMMENTARY,

Remark and observation, v. To notice; comment, in Latin commentum, from comminiscor to call to mind, are either spoken or written; note, annotation, v. Note; and commentary, a variation of comment, are always written. Remark and observation, admitting of the same distinction in both cases, have been sufficiently explained in the article referred to; 'Spence, in his remarks on Pope's Odyssey, produces what he thinks an unconquerable quotation from Dryden's preface to the Æneid, in favour of translating an epick poem into blank verse.'-Johnson. 'If the critick has published nothing but rules and observations on criticism, I then consider whether there be a propriety and elegance in bis thoughts and words."—Addison. Comment is a species of remark which often loses in good-nature what it gains in seriousness; it is mostly applied to particular persons or cases, and more commonly employed as a vehicle of censure than of commendation; publick speakers and publick performers are exposed to all the comments which the vanity, the envy, and illnature of self-constituted critikes can suggest; but when not employed in personal cases, it serves for explana-

Sublime or low, unbended or intense, The sound is still a comment to the sense.

Roscommon.

The other terms are used in this sense only, but with certain modifications: the note is most general, and serves to call the attention to, as well as illustrate, particular passages in the text; 'The history of the notes (to Pope's Homer) has never been traced.'—JOHNSON, Annotations and commentaries are more minute; the former being that which is added by way of appendage, the latter being employed in a general form; as the annotations of the Greek scholasts, and the commentaries on the sacred writings; 'I love a critick who mixes the rules of life with annotations upon writers.'—STEELE. 'Memoirs or memorials are of two kinds whereof the one may be termed commentaries, the other registers.'—BACON.

TO MENTION, NOTICE.

These terms are synonymous only inasmuch as they imply the act of calling things to another person's mind. Mention, from mens mind, signifies here to bring to mind. We mention a thing in direct terms. To notice (v. To mark), signifies to take notice of a thing indirectly or in a casual manner: we mention that which may serve as information; we notice that which may be merely of a personal or incidental nature. One friend mentions to another what has passed at a particular meeting in the course of conversation he notices or calls to the notice of his companion the badness of the road, the wideness of the street, or the like; 'The great critick I have before mentioned, though a heathen, has taken notice of the sublime manner in which the lawgiver of the Jews has described the creation."—Addison.

TO SHOW, POINT OUT, MARK, INDICATE

Show, in German schauen, &c. Greek θεάομαι, comes from the Hebrew Ψυ to look upon; to point out is to fix a point upon a thing.

Show is here the general term, and the others specifick: the common idea included in the signification

Show is here the general term, and the others specifick: the common idea included in the signification of them all is that of making a thing visible to another. To show is an indefinite term; one shows by simply setting a thing hefore the eyes of another: to point out is specifick; it is to show some particular point by a direct and immediate application to it: we show a

person a book, when we put it into his hands; but we p point out the beauties of its contents by making a point upon them, or accompanying the action with some particular movement which shall direct the attention particular movement which shall direct the attention of the observer in a specifick manner. Many things, therefore, may be shown which cannot be pointed out: a person shows himself but he does not point himself eut; towns, houses, gardens, and the like, are shown; but single things of any description are pointed out. To show and point out are personal acts, which are addressed from one individual to another; but to mark to Mark impression, is an indirect means of making

(v. Mark, impression) is an indirect means of making a thing visible or observable: a person may mark something in the absence of others, by which he intends to distinguish it from all others: thus atradesimal marks the prices and names of the articles which he hand; we point out with the finger; we mark with a pen or pencil. To show and mark are the acts either of a conscious or an unconscious agent; to point out is the act of a conscious agent only, unless taken figuratively

His faculties unfolded, pointed out Where lavish nature the directing hand Of art demanded .- Thomson.

To indicate (v. Mark, sign) that of an unconscious agent only: persons or things show, persons only point out, and things only indicate.

As applied to things, show is a more positive term than mark or indicate; that which shows serves as a proof;

The glow-worm shows the matin to be near, And gins to pale his ineffectual fire.—Shakspeare.

That which marks serves as a rule or guide for distinguishing; 'For our quiet possession of things useful, they are naturally marked where there is need.'-GREW Nothing shows us the fallacy of forming schemes for the future, more than the daily evidences which we have of the uncertainty of our existence; nothing marks the character of a man more strongly than the manner in which he bestows or receives favours. To mark is commonly applied to that which is habitual and permanent; to indicate to that which is temporary or partial. A single act or expression sometimes marks the ruling temper of the mind; a look may indicate what is passing in the mind at the time. A man's abstaining to give relief to great distress when it is in his power, marks an unfeeling character; when a person gives another a cold reception, it indicates at least that there is no cordiality between them; 'Annid this wreck of human nature, traces still remain which indicate its author.'—Blair.

TO SHOW, EXHIBIT, DISPLAY.

To show is here, as before, the generick term; to exhibit (v. To give), and display, in French deployer, in all probability changed from the Latin plice, signifying to unfold or set forth to view, are specifics, they may all designate the acts of either persons or things: the first, however, does this either in the proper or the improper sense; the two latter rather in the im-proper sense. To show is an indefinite action applied to every object: we may show that which belongs to others, as well as ourselves; we commonly exhibit that which belongs to ourselves: we show corpored or mental objects; we exhibit that which is mental or the work of the mind: one shows what is worth seeing in a house or grounds; he *exhibits* his skill on a stage. To show is an indifferent action; we may show accidentally or designedly, to please others, or to please ourselves:

If I do feign O let me in my present wildness die, And never live to show the incredulous world The noble change that I have purposed. SHARSPEARE.

We exhibit and display with an express intention, and that mostly to please ourselves; we may show in a private or a publick manner before one or many; we commonly exhibit and display in a publick manner, or at least in such a manner as will enable us best to be seen. Exhibit and display have this farther distinc-tion, that the former is mostly taken in a good or an indifferent sense, the latter in a bad sense: we may

exhibit our powers from a laudable ambition to be esteemed; but we seldom make a display of any quality teemed; but we seldom make a display of any quality that is in itself praiseworthy, or from any motive but vanity: what we exhibit is, therefore, intrinsically good; what we display may often be only an imaginary or fictitious excellence. A musician exhibits his skill on any particular instrument; a fop displays his sold code are reconstructions were displayed by gold seals, or an osteniatious man displays his plate or his fine furniture; 'The exhibitors of that show, politickly had placed whifflers armed and linked through the hall.'—Guyron. 'They are all couched in a pit, with obscured lights, which at the very instant of our meeting they will at once display to the night. -SHAKSPEARE.

Exhibit, when taken as the involuntary act of per sons, may be applied to unfavourable objects in the sense of setting forth to the view of others; 'One of an unfortunate constitution is perpetually exhibiting a miserable example of the weakness of mind and body. -Pope. Display, on the other hand, is applied in a favourable sense; but it expresses the setting forth to view more strikingly than the word exhibit;

Thou heav'ns alternate beauty canst display Thou heav'ns alternate beauty cancer.

The blush of morning and the milky way.

DRYDEN.

When said of things, they differ principally in the manner and degree of clearness with which the thing appears to present itself to view: to show is, as before, altogether indefinite, and implies simply to bring to view; exhibit implies to bring inherent properties to light, that is, apparently by a process; to display is to set forth so as to strike the eye: the windows on a frosty morning will show the state of the weather;

Then let us fall, but fall amid our foes: Despair of life the means of living shows.

Experiments with the air-pump exhibit the many wonderful and interesting properties of air; 'The world has ever been a great theatre, exhibiting the same repeated scene of the follies of men.'—BLAIR. The beauties of the creation are peculiarly displayed in the spring season;

Which interwoven Britons seem to raise, And show the triumph that their shame displays. DRYDEN.

SHOW, EXHIBITION, REPRESENTATION, SIGHT, SPECTACLE.

Show signifies the thing shown (v. To show): exhibition signifies the thing exhibited (v. To show); repre-sentation, the thing represented: sight, the thing to be seen; and spectacle, from the Latin specto, stands for the thing to be beheld.

Show is here, as in the former article, the most eneral term. Every thing set forth to view is shown; general term. and if set forth for the amusement of others, it is a show. This is the common idea included in the terms exhibi tion and representation; but show is a term of vulgar meaning and application; the others have a higher use and signification. The show consists of that which merely pleases the eye; it is not a matter either of taste or action, but merely of curiosity;

Charm'd with the wonders of the show, On ev'ry side, above, below, She now of this or that inquires, What least was understood admires .- GAY.

Exhibition, on the contrary, presents some effort of Examination, on the contactly presents some another talent or some work of genius; 'Copley's picture of Lord Chatham's death is an exhibition of itself.'—
Beattle. Representation sets forth the image or initiation of some thing by the power of art; 'There are many virtues which in their own nature are incapable. of any outward representation. - Addison. Hence we speak of a show of wild beasts; an exhibition of paintings; and a theatrical representation. The conjurer makes a show of his tricks at a fair to the wonder of the gazing multitude; the artist makes an exhibition of his works; representations of men and manners are given on the stage: shows are necessary to keep the populace in good humour; exhibitions are necessary for the encouragement of genius; representations are proper for the amusement of the cultivated, and the refinement of society. The show, exhibition and representation are presented by some one to the

view of others; the sight and spectacle present themselves to view. Sight, like show, is a vulgar term; and spectacle the nobler term. Whatever is to be seen to excite notice is a sight, in which general sense it would comprehend every show, but in its particular sense it includes only that which casually offers itself to view: a spectacle, on the contrary, is that species of sight which has something in it to interest either the heart or the head of the observer: processions, reviews, sports, and the like, are sight; but battles, bull-flights, or publick games of any description are spectacles, which interest but shock the feelings;

Their various arms afford a pleasing sight.
DRYDEN.

The weary Britons, whose warrable youth Was by Maximilian lately ledd away, Were to those pagans made an open prey, And daily spectacle of sad decay.—Spenser.

SHOW, OUTSIDE, APPEARANCE, SEMBLANCE.

Where there is show (v. To show) there must be outsude and appearance; but there may be the last without the former. The term show always denotes an action, and refers to some person as agent; but the outside may be merely the passive quality of something.
We speak, therefore, of a thing as mere show, to signify that what is shown is all that exists; and in this
sense it may be termed mere outside, as consisting only
of what is on the outside;

You'll find the friendship of the world is show, Mere outward show.—Savage.

The greater part of men behold nothing more than the rotation of human affairs. This is only the outside of things.'—Blair. In describing a house, however, we speak of its outside, and not of its show; as also of the outside of a book, and not of the show. Appearance denotes an action as well as show; but the former is the act of an unconscious agent, the latter of one that is conscious and voluntary: the appearance presents itself to the view; the show is purposely presented to view. A person makes a show so as to be seen by others; his appearance is that which shows itself in him. To look only to show, or be concerned for show only, signifies to be concerned for that only which will attract notice; to look only to the outside signifies to be concerned only for that which may be seen in a thing, to the disregard of that which is not seen: to look only to appearances signifies the same as the former, except that outside is said in the proper sense of that which literally strikes the eye; but appearances estend to the conduct, and whatever may affect the reputation: 'Every accusation against persons of rank was heard with pleasure (by James I. of Scotland). Every appearance of guilt was examined with rigour.'—RoFERTSON.

Semblance or seeming (v. To seem) always conveys the idea of an unreal appearance, or at least is contrasted with that which is real; he who only wears the semblance of friendship would be ill deserving the confidence of a friend;

But man, the wildest heast of prey, Wears friendship's semblance to betray.—Moore.

SHOW, PARADE, OSTENTATION.

These terms are synonymous when they imply abstract actions: show is here, as in the preceding article, taken in the vulgar sense; ostentation and parade include the idea of something particular: a man makes a show of his equipage, furniture, and the like, by which he strikes the eye of the vulgar, and seeks to impress them with an idea of his wealth and superiour rank; this is often the paltry refuge of weak minds to conceat their nothingness: a man makes a parade with his wealth, his knowledge, his charities, and the like, by which he endeavours to give weight and dignity to himself, proportioned to the solemnity of his proceedings: the show is, therefore, but a simple setting forth to view;

Great in themselves
They smile superiour of external show.
Somerville.

The varade requires art, it is a forced effort to attract

notice by the number and extent of the ceremonies; It was not in the mere parade of royally that the Mexican potentates exhibited their power.'—ROBERTSON. The show and parade are confined to the act of showing, or the means which are employed to show; but the ostentation necessarily includes the purpose for which the display is made; he who does a thing so as to be seen and applauded by others, does it from ostentation, particularly in application to acts of charity, or of publick subscription, in which a man strives to impress others with the extent of his wealth by the liberality of his gift; 'We are dazzled with the splendour of titles, the ostentation of learning, and the noise of victories.'—Spectator.

SHOWY, GAUDY, GAY.

Show, having or being full of show (v. Show, outside), is mostly an epithet of dispraise; that which is showy has seldom any thing to deserve notice beyond that which catches the eye; gaudy, from the Latin gaudeo to rejoice, signifies literally full of joy; and is applied figuratively to the exteriour of objects, but with the annexed had idea of being striking to an excess: gay, on the contrary, which is only a contraction of gaudy, is used in the same sense as an epithet of praise. Some things may be showy, and in their nature properly so; thus the tail of a peacock is showy; artificial objects may likewise be shown, but they will not be preferred by persons of taste; 'Men of warm imaginations neglect solid and substantial happiness for what is showy and superficial.'—Apprison. That which is gaudy is always artificial, and is always chosen by the vain, the vulgar, and the ignorant; a maid servant will bedizen herself with gaudy coloured ribbons;

The gaudy, babbling, and remorseful day Is crept into the bosom of the sea.—SHAKSPEARE.

That which is gay is either nature iself, or nature imitated in the best manner: spring is a gay season, and flowers are its gayest accompaniments;

Jocund day
Upon the mountain tops sits guyly dress'd.
Shakspeare.

MAGNIFICENCE, SPLENDOUR, POMP.

Magnificence, from magnus and facto, signifies doing largely, or on a large scale; splendour, in Latin splendor, from splendoo to shine, signifies brightness in the external; pomp, in Latin pompa, in Greek $\pi o \mu \pi h$ a procession, from $\pi i \mu \pi \omega$ to send, signifies in general formality and ceremony.

Magnificance lies not only in the number and extent of the objects presented, but in their degree of richness as to their colouring and quality; splendour is but a characteristick of magnificence, attached to such objects as dazzle the eye by the quantity of light, or the beauty and strength of colouring; the entertainments of the eastern monarchs and princes are remarkable for their magnificence, from the immense number of their attendants, the crowd of equipages, the size of their palaces, the multitude of costly utensils, and the profusion of viands which constitute the arrangements for the banquet;

Not Babylon, Nor great Alcairo, such magnificence Equall'd in all their glories.—Milton.

The entertainments of Europeans present much splen dour, from the richness, the variety, and the brilliancy of dress, of furniture, and all the apparatus of a feast, which the refinements of art have brought to perfection:

Vain transitory *splendours* could not all Reprieve the tottering mansion from its fall. Goldsmith.

Magnificence is seldomer unaccompanied with splendour than splendour with magnificence; since quantity, as well as quality, is essential to the one; but quality, more than quantity, is an essential to the other: a large army drawn up in battle array is a magnificent spectacle, from the immensity of their numbers, and the order of their disposition: it will in all probability be a splendid scene if there be much richness in the dresses; the pomp will here consist in such large bodies of men acting by one impulse, and directed by one

will. hence military pomp; it is the appendage of power, when displayed to publick view: on particular occasions, a monarch seated on his throne, surrounded by his courtiers, and attended by his guards, is said to appear with pomp;

Was all that pomp of we for this prepar'd? These fires, this fun'ral pile, these altars rear'd? DRYDEN.

MAGISTERIAL, MAJESTICK, STATELY, POMPOUS, AUGUST, DIGNIFIED.

Magisterial, from magister a master, and majestick, from majestas, are both derived from magis more or major greater, that is, more or greater than others: but they differ in this respect, that the magisterial is something assumed, and is therefore often false; the majestick is natural, and consequently always real: an mayester is natural, and consequently aways leaf: an upstart, or an intruder into any high station or office, may put on a magisterial air, in order to impose on the multitude; but it will not be in his power to be majestick, which never shows itself in a borrowed shape; none but those who have a superiority of character, of birth, or outward station, can be majestick: a petty magistrate in the county may be magisterial; 'Government being the noblest and most mysterious of all arts, is very unfit for those to talk magisterially of who never bore any share in it.'—South. A king or queen cannot uphold their station without a majestick deportment;

Then Aristides lifts his honest front, In pure majestick poverty rever'd. - Thomson.

The stately and pompous are most nearly allied to the magisterial; the august and dignified to the majestick: the former being merely extrinsick and assumed; the latter intrinsick and inherent. Magisterial respects the authority which is assumed; stately regards the splendour and rank; 'There is for the most part as much real enjoyment under the meanest cot-tage, as within the walls of the stateliest palace.'— South. Pompous regards the personal importance, with all the appendages of greatness and power

Such seems thy gentle height, made only proud To be the basis of that pompous load.—DENHAM.

A person is magisterial in the exercise of his office, and the distribution of his commands; he is stately in his ordinary intercourse with his inferiours and equals; he is pompous on particular occasions of appearing in publick: a person demands silence in a magisterial tone; he marches forward with a stately air; he comes forward in a pompous manner, so as to strike others with a sense of his importance.

Majestick is an epithet that characterizes the exte riour of an object;

> A royal robe he wore with graceful pride, Embroider'd sandals glitter'd as he trod, And forth he mov'd, majestick as a god

August is that which marks an essential characteristick in the object :

How poor, how rich, how abject, how august, How complicate, how wonderful, is man!

Dignified serves to characterize the action, or the station;

Nor can I think that God, Creator wise, Though threat'ning, will in earnest so destroy Us, his prime creatures, dignified so high.

The form of a female is termed majestick which has something imposing in it, suited to the condition of majesty, or the most elevated station in society; a monarch is entitled august in order to describe the extent of his empire; an assembly is denominated august to bespeak its high character, and its weighty influence in the scale of society; a reply is termed dignified when it upholds the individual and personal character of a man, as well as his relative character in the community to which he belongs: the two former of these terms are associated only with grandeur of outward circum-stances; the last is applicable to men of all stations, who have each in his sphere a dignity to maintain which belongs to a man as an independent moral agent.

GRANDEUR, MAGNIFICENCE.

Grandeur, from grand, in French grande, Latin grandis, probably from yepady ancient, because the term in Latin is applied mostly to great age, and afterward extended in its application to greatness in general, but particularly that greatness which is taken in the good sense; nagarifectors in Latin manifest. the good sense; magnificence, in Latin magnificentia, from magnus and facio, signifies made on a large scale.

An extensive assemblage of striking qualities in the exteriour constitutes the common signification of these terms, of which grandeur is the genus, and magnifi-cence the species. Magnificence cannot exist without grandeur, but grandeur exists without magnificence; the former is distinguished from the latter both in degree and in application. When applied to the same objects they differ in degree; magnificence being the highest degree of grandeur. As it respects the style of living, grandeur is within the reach of subjects; magnificence is mostly confined to princes. A person is nylecace is mostly comment to princes. A person is said to live in a style of grandeur, who rises above the common level, as to the number of his servants, the quality of his equipage, and the size of his establishment. No one is said to live in a style of magnificence who does not surpass the grandeur of his contempora-ries. Wealth, such as falls to the lot of many, may enable them to display grandeur; but nothing short of a princely fortune gives either a title or a capacity to a princely fortune gives either a title or a capacity to aim at magnificence. Grandeur admits of degrees and modifications; it may display itself in various ways, according to the taste of the individual; but magnificence is that which has already reached the highest degree of superiority in every particular.

Those who are ambitious for earthly grandeur are rarely in a temper of mind to take a just view of themselves and of all things that surround them; they forget that there is any thing above this in comparison with

that there is any thing above this, in comparison with which it sinks into insignificance and meanness; 'There is a kind of grandeur and respect, which the meanest and most insignificant part of mankind en-deavour to procure in the little circle of their friends and acquaintance.'—Addison. The grandeur of Eur-ropean courts is lost in a comparison with the magnific cence of eastern princes; 'The wall of China is one of those eastern pieces of magnificence which makes a figure even in the map of the world, although an account of it would have been thought fabulous, were not the wall itself extant.'—Appison.

Grandeur is applicable to the works of nature as well as art, of mind as well as matter; magnificence is alto-gether the creature of art. A structure, a spectacle, an entertainment, and the like, may be grand or magnifi-cent; but a scene, a prospect, a conception, and the like, are grand, but not magnificent.

NOBLE, GRAND.

Noble, in Latin nobilis, from nosco to know, signifies

knowable, or worth knowing; grand, v. Grandeur.
Noble is a term of general import; it simply implies
the quality by which a thing is distinguished for excel lence above other things: the grand is, properly speaking, one of those qualities by which an object acquires the name of noble; but there are many noble objects which are not denominated grand. A building may be denominated noble for its beauty as well as its size; but a grand building is rather so called for the expense which is displayed upon it: nobleness of acting or thinking comprehends all moral excellence that rises to a high pitch; but grandeur of mind is peculiarly ap-plicable to such actions or traits as denote an elevation of character, rising above all that is common. A family may be either noble or grand; but it is noble by birth; it is grand by wealth, and an expensive style of living:

What then worlds In a far thinner element sustain'd, And acting the same part with greater skill, More rapid movement, and for noblest ends? YOUNG.

More obvious ends to pass, are not these stars, The seats majestick, proud imperial thrones, On which angelick delegates of heav'n Discharge high trusts of vengeance or of love, To clothe in outward grandeur grand designs?

GREAT, GRAND, SUBLIME.

These terms are synonymous only in the moral application. Great simply designates extent; grand in cludes likewise the idea of excellence and superiority. A great undertaking characterizes only the extent of the undertaking; a grand undertaking bespeaks its superiour excellence: great objects are seen with faci-lity; grand objects are viewed with admiration. It is a great point to make a person sensible of his faults; it should be the grand aim of all to aspire after moral and religious improvement; 'There is nothing in this whole art of architecture which pleases the imagina-tion, but as it is great, uncommon, or beautiful.'—Ap-DISON. 'There is generally in nature something more grand and august than what we meet with in the curiosities of art.'—Addison.

Grand and sublime are both superiour to great; but the former marks the dimension of greatness; the latter, from the Latin sublimis, designates that of height. A scene may be either grand or sublime; it is grand as it fills the imagination with its immensity; it is sublime as it elevates the imagination beyond the surrounding and less important objects. There is something grand in the sight of a vast army moving forward, as it were, by one impulse; there is something peculiarly sublime in the sight of huge mountains and craggy cliffs of ice, shaped into various fantastick forms. Grand may be said either of the works of art or nature: sublime is said either of the Works of art of nature: subtime is applicable only to the works of nature. The Egyptian pyramids, or the ocean, are both grand objects; a tempestuous ocean is a sublime object. Grand is sometimes applied to the mind; sublime is applied both to the thoughts and the expressions; 'Homer fills his readers with sublime ideas.'—Addison. There is a grandeur of conception in the writings of Milton; there is a sublimity in the inspired writings, which far suprasses all human productions. surpasses all human productions

TO EXPRESS, DECLARE, SIGNIFY, TESTIFY, UTTER.

To express, from the Latin exprime to press out, is said of whatever passes in the mind; to declare (v. To declare) is said only of sentiments and opinions. man expresses anger, joy, sorrow, and all the affections in their turn; he declares his opinion for or against any particular measure.

To express is the simple act of communication, resulting from our circumstances as social agents; to declare is a specifick and positive act that is called for by the occasion: the former may be done in private, the latter is always more or less publick. An expression of one's feelings and sentiments to those whom we esteem is the supreme delight of social beings; the declaration of our opinions may be prudent or imprudent, according to circumstances. Words, looks, gestures, or movements, serve to express

Thus Roman youth, deriv'd from ruin'd Troy, In rude Saturnian rhymes express their joy. DRYDEN.

Actions, as well as words, may sometimes declare;

Th' unerring sun by certain signs declares, What the late ev'n or early morn prepares

DRYDEN.

Sometimes we cannot express our contempt in so strong a manner as by preserving a perfect silence when we are required to speak; an act of hostility, on the part of a nation, is as much a declaration of war as if it were expressed in positive terms; 'As the Supreme Being has expressed, and as it were printed his ideas in the creation, men express their ideas in books.'-ADDISON.

On him confer the Poet's sacred name Whose lofty voice declares the heavenly flame. Addison.

To express and signify are both said of words; but express has always regard to the agent, and the use which he makes of the words. Signify, from signum a sign, and facio to make, has respect to the things of which the words are made the usual signs: hence it is that a word may be made to express one thing while it signifies another; and hence it is that many words, according to their ordinary signification, will not express what the speaker has in his mind, and wishes to

communicate: the monosyllable no signifies simple negation: but according to the temper of the speaker and the circumstances under which it is spoken, it may express ill-nature, anger, or any other bad passion; 'If there be no cause expressed, the jailer is not bound to detain the prisoner. For the law judges in this respect, saith sir Edward Coke, like Festus the Roman governour, that it is unreasonable to send a prisoner, and not to signify withal the crimes alleged

against him. —BLACKSTONE.

To signify and testify, like the word express, are employed in general for any act of communication otherwise than by words; but express is used in a stronger sense than either of the former. The passions and strongest movements of the soul are expressed; the simple intentions or transitory feelings of the mind are signified or testified. A person expresses his joy by the sparkling of his eye, and the vivacity of his countenance; he signifies his wishes by a nod; he testifies his approbation by a smile. People of vivid sensibility must take care not to express all their feelings; those who expect a ready obedience from their inferiours must not adopt a haughty mode of signifying their will; nothing is more gratifying to an ingenuous mind than to testify its regard for merit wherever it may discover itself.

Express may be said of all sentient beings, and, by a figure of speech, even of those which have no sense signify is said of rational agents only. The dog has the most expressive mode of showing his attachment and fidelity to his master;

And four fair queens, whose hands sustain a flow'r, Th' expressive emblem of their softer pow'r .- Pope.

A significant look or smile may sometimes give rise to suspicion, and lead to the detection of guilt; *Common life is full of this kind of significant expressions, mon life is full of this kind of significant expressions, by knocking, beckoning, frowning, and pouting; and dumb persons are sagacious in the use of them.'—Holder. To signify and testify, though closely allied in sense and application, have this difference, that to signify is simply to give a sign of what passes inwardly, to testify is to give that sign in the presence of others. A person signifies by letter his intention of being at a certain place at a given time; he testifies his sense of favours conferred by every mark of gratitude and respect: 'What consolation can be had gratitude and respect: 'What consolation can be had. Dryden has afforded, by living to repent, and to testify his repentance (for his immoral writings).'-- Johnson.

Utter, from the preposition out, signifying to bring out, differs from express in this, that the latter respects the thing which is communicated, and the former the means of communication. We express from the heart; we utter with the lips: to express an uncharitable sentiment is a violation of Christian duty : to utter an unseemly word is a violation of good manners; those who say what they do not mean, utter, but not express; those who show by their looks what is passing in their hearts, express but do not utter;

The multitude of angels, with a shout Loud as from numbers without number, sweet As from blessed voices, uttering joy .- MILTON

SIGN, SIGNAL.

Sign and signal are both derived from the same source (v. Mark, sign), and the latter is but a species of the former;* the sign enables us to recognise an object; it is therefore sometimes natural: signal serves

The movements which are visible in the counte-nance are commonly the signs of what passes in the heart:

> The nod that ratifies the Will Divine, The faithful, fix'd, irrevocable sign, This seals thy suit .- POPE.

The beat of the drum is the signal for soldiers to repair to their post:

Then first the trembling earth the signal gave, And flashing fires enlighten all the cave.—DRYDEN.

We converse with those who are present by signs: we make ourselves understood by those who are at a distance by means of signals.

* Vide Girard: "Signe, signal 1

SIGNIFICANT, EXPRESSIVE.

The significant is that which serves as a sign; the expressive is that which speaks out or declares: the latter is therefore a stronger term than the former: a look is significant when it is made to express an idea that passes in the mind; but it is expressive when it is made to express a feeling of the heart: looks are but occasionally significant, but the countenance may be habitually expressive. Significant is applied in an indifferent sense, according to the nature of the thing signified; but expressive is always applied to that which is good: a significant look may convey a very bad idea; I could not help giving my friend the merchant a significant look upon this occasion.'—CUMBER-LAND. An expressive countenance always expresses good feeling; The English, Madam, particularly what we call the plain English, is a very copious and expressive language. —Richardson.

The distinction between these words is the same

when applied to things as to persons: a word is significant of whatever it is made to signify; but a word is expressive according to the force with which it conveys an idea. The term significant, in this case, simply explains the nature; but the epithet expressive characterizes it as something good: technical terms are significant. nificant only of the precise ideas which belong to the art: most languages have some terms which are peculiarly expressive, and consequently adapted for poetry.

SIGNIFICATION, MEANING, IMPORT, SENSE.

The signification (v. To express) is that of which the word is made the sign; the meaning is that which the person attaches to it; the import is that which is imported or carried into the understanding; the sense is that which is comprehended by the sense or the un

derstanding.

The signification of a word includes either the whole or the part of what is understood by it; 'A lie consists in this, that it is a false signification knowingly and voluntarily used.'—South. The meaning is that which the person wishes to convey who makes use of a word. This may be correct or incorrect according to the information of the person explaining himself; 'When beyond her expectation I hit upon her meaning, I can perceive a sudden cloud of disappointment spread over her face?—Johnson. The import of a word includes its whole force and value; 'To draw near to God is an expression of awful and mysterious import.—BLAIR. The sense of a word is applicable mostly to a part of its signification; 'There are two senses in which we may be said to draw near, in such a degree as mortality admits, to God.'-BLAIR. The signification of a word is fixed by the standard of custom; it is not therefore to be changed by any individual: the import of a term is estimated by the various acceptations in which it is employed: a sense is sometimes arbitrarily attached to a word which is widely different from that in which it is commonly acknowledged.

It is necessary to get the true signification of every word, or the particular meaning attached to it, to weigh the import of every term, and to comprehend the exact sense in which it is taken. Every word expressing either a simple or a complex idea, issaid to have a signification, though not an import. Technical and moral nification, though not an import. terms have an import and different senses. A child learns the significations of simple terms as he hears them used; a writer must be acquainted with the full import of every term which he has occasion to make use of. The different senses which words admit of is a great source of ambiguity and confusion with illiterate people.

Signification and import are said mostly of single words only; sense is said of words either in connexion with each other, or as belonging to some class: thus we speak of the signification of the word house, of the import of the term love; but the sense of the sen-tence, the sense of the author, the employment of words in a technical, moral, or physical sense.

TO DENOTE, SIGNIFY, IMPLY Denote, in Latin denoto or noto, from notum, participle of nosco, signifies to cause to know; signify, from the Latin signum a sign and fo to become, is to become or be made a sign, or guide for the understand-

ing; imply, from the Latin implice to fold in, signifies

to fold or involve an idea in an object.

Denote is employed with regard to things and their characters; signify with regard to things and their characters; signify with regard to the thoughts or movements. A letter or character may be made to denote any number, as words are made to signify the intentions and wishes of the person. Among the ancient Egyptians hieroglyphicks were very much employed to denote certain moral qualities; in many cases looks or actions will signify more than words. Devices and emblems of different descriptions drawn either from fabulous history or the natural world are likewise now employed to denote particular circunstances or qualities: the cornucopia denotes plenty; the beelive denotes industry; the dove denotes meekness; and the lamb qualities. lamb gentleness: he who will not take the trouble to signify his wishes otherwise than by nods or signs must expect to be frequently misunderstood; 'Another may do the same thing, and yet the action want that air and beauty which distinguish it from others, like that inimitable sunshine Titian is said to have diffused over his landscapes, which denotes them his.'-Spec-TATOR. 'Simple abstract words are used to signify some one simple idea, without much adverting to others which may chance to attend it.'-BURKE

To signify and imply may be employed either as respects actions or words. In the first case signify is respects actions or words. In the first case signify is the act of the person making known by means of a sign, as we signify our approbation by a look: imply marks the value or force of the action; our assent is implied in our silence. When applied to words or marks, signify denotes the positive and established act of the thing; imply is its relative act: a word signifies whatever it is made literally to stand for; it implies that which it stands for figuratively or morally. The term house signifies that which is constructed for a dwelling; the term residence implies something superiour to a house. A cross, thus, + signifies addition in arithmetick or algebra; a long stroke, thus, —, with a break in the text of a work, implies that the whole sentence is not completed. It frequently happens that words which signify nothing particular in themselves, may be made to imply a great deal by the tone, the manner, and the connexion; "Words signify not immediately and primarily things themselves, but the conceptions of the mind concerning things.'—SOUTH. 'Pleasure implies a proportion and agreement to the respective states and conditions of men.'—

SOUTH.

SIGNIFICATION, AVAIL, IMPORTANCE, CONSEQUENCE, WEIGHT, MOMENT.

Signify (v. To signify) is here employed with regard Signify (if I sagary) to events of life, and their relative importance; avail to events of life, and their relative importance; avail is never used otherwise. That which a (v. To avail) is never used otherwise. thing signifies is what it contains; if it signifies nothing, it contains nothing, and is worth nothing; if it signifies much, it contains much, or is worth much. That which avails produces: if it avails nothing it produces nothing, is of no use; if it avails much, it produces or is worth much.

We consider the end as to its signification, and the means as to their avail. Although it is of little or no signification to a man what becomes of his remains, yet no one can be reconciled to the idea of leaving them to be exposed to contempt; words are but too often of little avail to curb the unruly wills of children; 'As for wonders, what significate telling us of them?'
—CUMBERLAND. 'What avail a parcel of statutes against gaming, when they who make them conspire together for the infraction of them.'—CUMBERLAND.

Importance, from porto to carry, signifies the carry ing or bearing with, or in itself; consequence, from consequent to follow, or result, signifies the following or resulting from a thing.

Weight signifies the quantum that the thing weighs; moment, from momentum, signifies the force that puts

in motion.

Importance is what things have in themselves; they may be of more or less importance, according to the value which is set upon them: this may be real or unreal; it may be estimated by the experience of their past utility, or from the presumption of their utility for the future: the idea of importance, there are, enters into the meaning of the other terms more or less; 'He

that considers how soon he must close his life, will ind nothing of so much importance as to close it well.'

—Johnson. Consequence is the importance of a thing from its consequence. This term therefore is peculiarly applicable to such things, the consequences of which may be more immediately discerned either from the neglect or the attention : it is of consequence for a letter to go off on a certain day, for the affairs of an individual may be more or less affected by it; an hour's delay sometimes in the departure of a military expedition may be of such consequence as to determine the fate of a battle; 'The corruption of our taste is not of equal consequence with the depravation of our virtue. WARTON. The term weight implies a positively great degree of importance: it is that importance which a thing has intrinsically in itself, and which makes it weigh in the mind: it is applied therefore to such things as offer themselves to deliberation; hence the counsels of a nation are always weighty, because they involve the interests of so many; 'The finest works involve the interests of so many; 'The finest works of invention are of very little weight, when put in the balance with what refines and exalts the rational mind. -Spectator. Moment is that importance which a Moment is that importance which a or to determine interests: it is applicable, therefore only to such things as are connected with our prosonly of such things as are connected with our pros-perity or happiness; when used without any adjunct, it implies a great degree of importance, but may be modified in various ways; as a thing of no moment, or small moment, or great moment; but we cannot say with the same propriety, a thing of small weight, and still have a thing of still less a thing of great weight: it is a matter of no small moment for every one to choose that course of conduct which will stand the test of a death-bed reflection; 'Whoever shall review his life, will find that the whole tenour of his conduct has been determined by some accident of no apparent moment.'-JOHNSON.

UNIMPORTANT, INSIGNIFICANT, IMMATE-RIAL, INCONSIDERABLE.

The want of importance, of consideration, of significution, and of matter or substance, is expressed by these terms. They differ therefore principally accordthese terms. ing to the meaning of the primitives; but they are so closely allied that they may be employed sometimes crossly aimed that they may be employed sometimes indifferently. Unimportant regards the consequences of our actions: it is unimportant whether we use this or that word in certain cases; 'Nigno and Guerra made no discoveries of any importance.'—ROBERTSON. Inconsiderable and insignificant respect those things which may attract notice: the former is more adapted to the grave style, to designate the comparative low value of things; the latter is a familiar term which seems to convey a contemptuous meaning; in a description we may say that the number, the size, the quantity, &c. is inconsiderable; in speaking of persons we may say they are insignificant in stature, look talent, station, and the like; or speaking of things, an insignificant production, or an insignificant word; 'That the soul cannot be proved mortal by any principle of natural reason is, I think, no inconsiderable point gained.'—South. 'As I am insignificant to the company in publick places, I gratify the vanity of all who pretend to make an appearance.'-Applson. material is a species of the unimportant, which is appiled only to familiar subjects; it is immaterial whether we go to-day or to-morrow; it is immaterial whether we have a few or many; 'If in the judgement of im-partial persons the arguments be strong enough to convince an unbiassed mind, it is not material whether every wrangling atheist will sit down contented with them.'—Stillingfleet.

TRIFLING, TRIVIAL, PETTY, FRIVOLOUS, FUTILE.

Trifling, trivial, both come from trivium, a common place of resort where three roads meet, and signify common; petty is in French pett little, in Latin putus a boy or minion, and the Hebrew 'nd foolish: frivolus, in Latin frivolus, comes in all probability from free occumble into dust, signifying reduced to nothing; fietie, in Latin faitlis, from fatio to pour out, signifies cast away as worthless.

All these epithets characterize an object as of little or no value: trifting and trivial differ only in degree; the latter denoting a still lower degree of value than the former. What is trifting or trivial is that which does not require any consideration, and may be easily passed over as forgotten: trifting objections can never weigh against solid reason; trivial remarks only expose the shallowness of the remarker; 'We exceed the ancients in doggerel humour, burlesque, and all the trivial arts of ridicule.'—Abanson. What is petty is beneath our consideration, it ought to be disregarded and held cheap; it would be a petty consideration for a minister of state to look to the small savings of a private family; 'There is scarcely any man without some favourite trifle which he values above greater attainments; some desire of petty praise which he cannot patiently suffer to be frustrated.'—Johnson. What is frivolous 2nd futile is disgraceful for any one to consider; the famer in relation to all the objects of our pursuit or attachment, the latter only in regard to matters of reasoning; dress is a frivolous occupation when it forms the chief business of a rational being; 'It is an endless and frivolous pursuit to act by any other rule than the care of satisfying our own minds.'—Street. The objections of freethinkers against revealed religion are as futile as they are mischievons; 'Out of a multiplicity of criticisms by various hands many are sure to be futile.'—Covyer.

SUPERFICIAL, SHALLOW, FLIMSY.

The superficial is that which lies only at the surface it is therefore by implication the same as the shallow, which has nothing underneath: shallow length availation of hollow or empty. Hence a person may be called either superficial or shallow, to indicate that he has not a profundity of knowledge; but otherwise, superficiality is applied to the exercise of the thinking faculty, and shallowness to its extent. Men of free sentiments are superficial thinkers, although they may not have understandings more shallow than others. Superficial and shallow are applicable to things as well as persons: flimsy is applicable to things only. Flimsy most probably comes from flame, that is, flamy, showy, easily seen through. In the proper sense, we may speak of giving a superficial covering of paint or colour to a body; of a river or piece of water being shallow; of cotton or cloth being flimsy. In the improper sense, a survey or a glance may be superficial which does not extend beyond the superficial acquiaintance with a few sensible objects.—Blair. A conversation or a discourse may be shallow, which does not contain a body of sentiment;

I know thee to thy bottom; from within

Thy shallow centre to the utmost skin.—DRYDEN.

A work or performance may be flimsy which has nothing solid in it to engage the attention;

Proud of a vast extent of flimsy lines .- Pope.

SURFACE, SUPERFICIES.

Surface, compounded of sur for super and face, is a variation of the Latin term superficies; and yet they have acquired this distinction, that the former is the vulgar, and the latter the scientifick term: of course the former has a more indefinite and general application than the latter. A surface is either even or unexpection, smooth or rough; but the mathematician always conceives of a plane superficies on which he founds his operations. They are employed in a figurative sense with a similar distinction;

Errours like straws upon the surface flow; He who would search for pearls must dive below. DRYDEN.

¹ Those who have undertaken the task of reconciling mankind to their present state frequently remind us that we view only the superficies of life.'—Johnson.

TO EXPLAIN, EXPOUND, INTERPRET.

To explain is to make plain; expound, from the Latin expono, compounded of ex and pono, signifies to set forth in detail; interpret, in Latin interpreto and interpretes, compounded of inter and partes, that

L linguas tongues, signifies literally to get the sense

of one language by means of another.

To explain is the generick term, the rest are specifick n expound and interpret are each modes of explaining. Single words or sentences are explained; a whole work, or considerable parts of it, are expounded; the sense of any writing or symbolical sign is enterpreted. It is the business of the philologist to explain the meaning of words by a suitable definition; 'It is a serious thing to have connexion with a people, who live only under positive, arbitrary, and changeable institutions; and these not perfected, nor supplied, nor explained, by any common acknowledged rule of moral science.'- BURKE. is the business of the divine to expound Scripture;

One meets now and then with persons who are extennely learned and knotty in expounding clear cases.'

—Stelle. It is the business of the antiquarian to interpret the meaning of old inscriptions on stones, or of hieroglyphicks on buildings; 'It does not appear that among the Romans any man grew eminent by interpreting another; and perhaps it was more frequent translate for exercise or amusement than for fame.

An explanation serves to assist the understanding, to supply a deficiency, and remove obscurity; an e position is an ample explanation, in which minute particulars are detailed, and the connexion of events in the narrative is kept up; it serves to assist the memory and awaken the attention: both the explanation and exposition are employed in clearing up the sense of things as they are, but the interpretation is more arbitrary; it often consists of affixing or giving a sense to things which they have not previously had hence it is that the same passages in authors admit of different interpretations, according to the character or views of the commentator.

There are many practical truths in the Bible which are so plain and positive, that they need no literal explanation: but its doctrines, when faithfully expounded, may be brought home to the hearts and consciences of men; although the partial interpretations of illiterate and enthusiastick men are more apt to dis-

grace than to advance the cause of religion.

To explain and interpret are not confined to what is written or said, they are employed likewise with regard to the actions of men; exposition is, however, used only with regard to writings. The major part of the misunderstandings and animosities which arise among men, might easily be obviated by a timely exit is the characteristick of good-nature to planation : interpret the looks and actions of men as favourably as possible. The explanation may sometimes flow out of circumstances; the interpretation is always the act of a voluntary and rational agent. The discovery of a plot or secret scheme will serve to explain the mysterious and strange conduct of such as were previously acquainted with it. According to an old proverb, "Silence gives consent;" for thus at least they are pleased to interpret it, who are interested in the de-

TO MISCONSTRUE, MISINTERPRET.

Misconstrue and misinterpret signify to explain in awrong way; but the former respects the sense of one's words or the implication of one's actions: those who indulge themselves in a light mode of speech towards children are liable to be misconstrued; a too great tenderness to the criminal may be easily misinterpreted

into favour of the crime.

These words may likewise be employed in speaking of language in general; but the former respects the literal transmission of foreign ideas into our native language; the latter respects the general sense which one affixes to any set of words, either in a native or foreign language: the learners of a language will unavoidably misconstrue it at times; in all languages there are ambiguous expressions, which are liable to Misconstruing is the consequence misinterpretation.

In ev'ry act and turn of life he feels Publick calamities or household ills: The judge corrupt, the long-depending cause And doubtful issue of misconstrued laws .- PRIOR.

Misinterpretation of particular words are oftener the consequence of prejudice and voluntary blindness,

particularly in the explanation of the law of the Scriptures; 'Some purposely misrepresent or put a wrong interpretation on the virtues of others.'—Applson.

DEFINITE, POSITIVE.

Definite, in Latin definitum, participle of definio, compounded of de and finis, signifies that which is bounded by a line or limit; positive, in Latin positivus, from pono to place, signifies that which is placed or fixed.

The understanding and reasoning powers are connected with what is definite; the will with what is positive. A definite answer leaves nothing to be explained; a positive answer leaves no room for hesitation or question. It is necessary to be definite in giving instructions, and to be positive in giving com-mands. A person who is definite in his proceedings with another, puts a stop to all unreasonable expecta-tions; 'We are not able to judge of the degree of conviction which operated at any particular time upon our viction which operated at any particular time upon our own thoughts, but as it is recorded by some certain and definite effect.'—Johnson. It is necessary for those who have to exercise authority to be positive, in order to enforce obedience from the self-willed and contumacious; 'The Earl Rivers being now in his own opinion on his death-bed, thought it his duty to provide for Savage among his other natural children, and therefore demanded a positive account of him.'—

DEFINITION, EXPLANATION.

A definition is properly a species of explanation. The former is used scientifically, the latter on ordinary occasions; the former is confined to words, the latter is employed for words or things.

A definition is correct or precise; an explanation is

general or ample.

The definition of a word defines or limits the extent The activation of a word defines of limits the extent of its signification; it is the rule for the scholar in the use of any word; 'As to politeness, many have attempted definitions of it. I believe it is best to be known by description, definition not being able to comprise it.—LORD CHATHAM. The explanation of a word may include both definition and illustration; the former admits of no more words than will include the leading features in the meaning of any term; the latter admits of an unlimited scope for diffuseness on the part of the explainer; 'If you are forced to desire further information or explanation upon a point, do it with proper apologies for the trouble you give.'-LORD CHATHAM.

TO EXPLAIN, ILLUSTRATE, ELUCIDATE.

Explain, v. To explain, expound; illustrate, in Latin illustratus, participle of illustro, compounded of the intensive syllable in and lustro, signifies to inake a thing bright, or easy to be surveyed and examined; elucidate, in Latin elucidatus, participle of clucido, from lux light, signifies to bring forth into the

To explain is simply to render intelligible; to illus-To explain is simply to render intelligible; to illustrate and elucidate are to give additional clearness; every thing requires to be explained to one who is ignorant of it; but the best informed will require to have abstruse subjects illustrated, and obscure subjects elucidated. We always explain when we illustrate or elucidate, and we always elucidate when we illustrate but not eigenseed.

illustrate, but not vice versd.

illustrate, but not vice versal.

We explain by reducing compounds to simples, and generals to particulars; 'I know I meant just what you explain; but I did not explain my own meaning so well as you.'—Pope. We illustrate by means of examples, similes, and allegorical figures; 'It is indeed the same system as mine, but illustrated with a ray of your own.'—Pope. We elucidate by commentaries, or the statement of facts; 'If our religious tenets should ever want a farther elucidation, we shall not call on a theism to explain them.'—Burks. Words not call on atheism to explain them.'-BURKE. Words not can on almests to explain them.—Dear. For an are the common subject of explanation; noval runlia require illustration; poetical allusions and dark passages in writers require elucidation. All explanations given to children should consist of as few words as possible to the control of the sible, so long as they are sufficiently explicit.

EXPLANATORY, EXPLICIT, EXPRESS.

Explanatory signifies containing or belonging to explanation (v. To explain); explicit, in Latin explicatus, from explico to untold, signifies unfolded or laid open; express, in Latin expressus, signifies the same as expressed or delivered in specifick terms.

The explanatory is that which is superadded to clear up difficulties or obscurities. A letter is explanatory which contains an explanation of something preceding, in lieu of any thing new; 'An explanatory law stops the current of a precedent satute, nor does either of them admit extension afterwards.'—Bacon. The explicit is that which of itself obviates every difficulty; 'n explicit letter, therefore, will leave nothing that requires explanation; 'Since the revolution the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and understood, and the rights of the subject more explicitly guarded by legal provisions, than in any other period of the English history.'—Blackstonk. The explicit admits of a free use of words; the express requires them to be unambignous. A person ought to be explicit when he enters into an engagement; he ought to be express when he gives commands, or conveys his wishes; 'I have destroyed the letter I received from you by the hands of Lucius Aruntius, though it was much too innocent to deserve so severe a treatment; however, it was your express desire I should destroy it, and I have complied accordingly.'—Melmont (Letters of Ciecro).

TO EXPOSTULATE, REMONSTRATE.

Expostulate, from postulo to demand, signifies to demand reasons for a thing; remonstrate, from monstro to show, signifies to show reasons against a thing.

We expostulate in a tone of authority; we remonstrate in a tone of complaint. He who expostulates passes a censure, and claims to be heard; he who remonstrates presents his case, and requests to be heard. Expostulation may often be the precursor of yiolence; remonstrance mostly rests on the force of reason and representation; he who admits of expostulation from an inferiour undernines his own authority; he who is deaf to the remonstrances of his friends is far gone in folly; the expostulation is mostly on matters of personal interest; the remonstrance may as often be made on matters of propriety. The Scythian ambassadors expostulated with Alexander against his invasion of their country; King Richard expostulated with Wat Tyler on the subject of his insurrection; 'With the hypocrite it is not my business at present to expostulate.'—Johnson. Artabanes remonstrated with Xerxes on the folly of his projected invasion; 'I have been but a little time conversant with the world, yet I have had already frequent opportunities of observing the little efficacy of remonstrance and complaint.'—Johnson.

TO UTTER, SPEAK, ARTICULATE, PRONOUNCE.

Utter, from out, signifies to put out; that is, to send forth a sound: this therefore is a more general term than speak, which is to utter an intelligible sound. We may utter a groan; we speak words only, or that which is intended to serve as words. To speak therefore is only a species of utterance; a dumb man has utterance, but not speech;

At each word that my destruction utter'd My heart recoiled.—OTWAY.

What you keep by you, you may change and mend, But words once spoke, can never be recall'd.

WALLER.

Articulate and pronounce are modes of speaking; to articulate, from articulum a joint, is to pronounce distinctly the letters or syllables of words; which is the first effort of a child beginning to speak. It is of great importance to make a child articulate every letter when he first begins to speak or read. To pronounce, from the Latin pronuncio to speak out loud, is a formal mode of speaking.

A child must first articulate the letters and the syllables, then he pronounces or sets forth the whole word; this is necessary hefore he can speak to be understood; 'The torments of disease can sometimes

only be signified by groans or sobs, or inarticulate ejaculations."—Johnson. 'Speak the speech, I pray you, as I pronounced it to you."—Shakspeare.

TO SPEAK, TALK, CONVERSE, DISCOURSE.

Speak, in Saxon specan, is probably connected with the German sprecken to speak, and brechen to break, the Latin precor to pray, and the Hebrew 712; talk is but a variation of tell; converse, v. Conversation; discourse, in Latin discursus, expresses properly an examining or deliberating upon

The idea of communicating with, or communicating to, another, by means of signs, is common in the signification of all these terms: to speak is an indefinite term, specifying no circumstance of the action; we may speak only one word or many; but we talk for a continuance: we speak from various motives; we talk for pleasure; we converse for improvement or intellectual gratification: we speak with or to a person, we talk commonly to others; we converse with others. Speaking a language is quite distinct from writing; publick speaking has at all times been cultivated with great care, but particularly under popular governments; 'Falsehood is a speaking against our thoughis.'—South. Talking is mostly the pastime of the idle and the empty; those who think least talk most; 'Talkers are commonly vain, and credulous withal; for be that talketh what he knoweth, will also talk what he knoweth not:—Bacon. Conversation is the rational employment of social beings, who seek by au interchange of sentiment to purify the affections, and improve the understanding;

Go, therefore, half this day, as friend with friend, Converse with Adam.-MILTON.

Conversation is the act of many together; talk and discourse may be the act of one addressing himself to others; conversation loses its value when it ceases to be general; talk has seldom any value but what the talker attaches to it; the discourse derives its value from the nature of the subject as well as the character of the speaker; conversation is adapted for mixed companies; children talk to their parents, or to their companions; parents and teachers discourse with young people on moral duties;

Let thy discourse be such, that thou mayst give Profit to others, or from them receive.—Denham.

TO BABBLE, CHATTER, CHAT, PRATTLE, PRATE.

Babble, in French babiller, probably receives its origin from the tower of Babel, when the confusion of tongues took place, and men talked unintelligibly to each other; chatter, chat, is in French caquet, Low German tatern, High German schnattern, Latin blattero, Hebrew bata; prattle, prate, in Low German praten, is probably connected with the Greek $\phi p \alpha \zeta \omega$ to speak.

All these terms mark a superfluous or improper use of speech: babble and chatter are onomatopetas drawn from the noise or action of speaking; babbling denotes rapidity of speech which renders it unintelligible; hence the term is applied to all who make use of many words to no purpose; 'To stand up and babble to a crowd in an ale-house, till silence is commanded by the stroke of a hammer, is as low an ambition as can taint the human mind.'—HAWKESWORTH. Chatter is an imitation of the noise of speech properly applied to magpies or parrots, and figuratively to a corresponding vicious mode of speech in human beings;

Some birds there are who, prone to noise, Are hir'd to silence wisdom's voice; And, skill'd to chatter out the hour, Rise by their emptiness to power.—Moore.

The vice of babbling is most commonly attached to men, that of chattering to wonen; the babbler talks much to impress others with his self-importance; the chatterer is actuated by self-conceit, and a desire to display her volubility: the former cares not whether he is understood; the latter cares not if she be but heard.

Chattering is harmless, if not respectable: the winter's fireside invites neighbours to assemble and chat

Sometimes I dress, with women sit,

And chat away the gloomy fit. - GREEN.

Chatting is the practice of adults; prattling and prating that of children; the one innocently, the other impertmently; the prattling of babes has an interest for every feeling mind, but for parents it is one of their highest enjoyments;

Now blows the surly north, and chills throughout

The stiff ning regions; while by stronger charms Than Circe e'er or fell Medea brew'd,

Each brook that wont to prattle to its banks Lies all bestill'd .- ARMSTRONG.

Prating is the consequence of ignorance and childish assumption: a prattler has all the unaffected gayety of an uncontaminated mind; a pratter is forward, obtrusive, and ridiculous;

My prudent counsels prop the state; Magpies were never known to prate .- Moore.

TALKATIVE, LOQUACIOUS, GARRULOUS.

Talkative implies ready or prone to talk (v. To speak); loquacious, from loquor to speak or talk, has the same original meaning; garrulous, in Latin gar-rulus, from garrio to blab, signifies prone to tell or

make known.

These reproachful epithets differ principally in the gree. To talk is allowable and consequently it is degree. not altogether so unbecoming to be occasionally talkative: but laquacity, which implies always an immo-derate propensity to talk, is always bad, whether springing from affectation or an idle temper: and garrulity, which arises from the excessive desire of communicating, is a failing that is pardonable only in the aged, who have generally much to tell; 'Every absurdity has a champion to defend it; for errour is always talkative.'—Goldsmith.

Thersites only clamour'd in the throng,

Loquacious, loud, and turbulent of tongue .- Pope.

Pleas'd with that social, sweet garrulity

The poor disbanded vet'ran's sole delight.

SOMERVILLE.

UNSPEAKABLE, INEFFABLE, UNUTTER-ABLE, INEXPRESSIBLE.

Unspeakable and ineffable, from the Latin for to speak, have precisely the same meaning; but un-speakable is said of objects in general, particularly of that which is above human conception, and surpasses the power of language to describe; as the unspeak-sole goodness of God; 'The vast difference of God's nature from ours makes the difference between them so unspeakably great. South I Infable is said of such objects as cannot be painted in words with adequate force, as the inefable sweetness of a person's look; 'The influences of the Divine nature enliven the mind with inrfable joy. — SOUTH. Unutterable and inex-pressible are extended in their signification to that which is incommunicable by signs from one being to which is incommunication by sain sind one early to another; thus grief is *anutterable* which it is not in the power of the sufferer by any sounds to bring home to the feelings of another; grief is *inexpressible* which is not to be expressed by looks, or words, or any Unutterable is therefore applied only to the in dividual who wishes to give utterance; inexpressible may be said of that which is to be expressed concerning others; our own pains are unatterable; the sweetness of a person's countenance is inexpressible;

Nature breeds, Perverse, all monstrous, all prodigious things, Abominable, unutterable. - MILTON.

The evil which lies lurking under a temptation is intolerable and inexpressible.'-South.

CONVERSATION, DIALOGUE, CONFERENCE, COLLOQUY.

Conversation denotes the act of holding converse: dialogue, in French dialogue, Latin dialogus, Greek διάλεγος, compounded of δια and λόγος, signifies a speech between two; conference, from the Latin con

away many an hour which might otherwise hang heavy on hand, or be spent less inoffensively;

Samuelines I does with women sit.

Samuelines I does with women sit.

A conversation is always something actually held between two or more persons; a dialogue is mostly fictitious, and written as if spoken: any number of persons may take part in a conversation; but a dialogue always refers to the two persons who are expressly engaged: a conversation may be desultory, in which each takes his part at pleasure; a dealogue is formal, in which there will always be reply and re-joinder; a conversation may be carried on by any signs besides words, which are addressed personally to the individual present; a dialogue must always consist of express words: a prince holds frequent conversa tions with his ministers on affairs of state; 'I find so much Arabick and Persian to read, that all my leisure in a morning is hardly sufficient for a thousandth part of the reading that would be agreeable and useful, as I wish to be a match in conversation with the learned natives whom I happen to meet.'-Sir Wm. Jones. Cicero wrote dialogues on the nature of the gods, and many later writers have adopted the dialogue form as a vehicle for conveying their sentiments; ' is written in rhyme, and has the appearance of being the most elaborate of all Dryden's plays. The per-sonages are imperial, but the dialogue is often domes-tick, and therefore susceptible of sentiments accommodated to familiar incidents.'—Johnson. A conference is a species of conversation; a colloquy is a species of dialogue: a conversation is indefinite as to the subject, or the parties engaged in it; a conference is confined to particular subjects and descriptions of persons; a conversation is mostly occasional; a conference is always specifically appointed; a conversation is mostly on indifferent matters; a conference is mostly on na-tional or publick concerns. Men hold a conversation as friends; they hold a conference as ministers of state; 'The conference between Gabriel and Satan abounds

The conference between carner and Satan abounds with sentiments proper for the occasion, and suitable to the persons of the two speakers."—Addison. The dialogue naturally limits the number to two; the colloque is indefinite as to number: there may be dialogues therefore which are not colloquies; but every colloque may be denominated a dialogue; 'The close colloquy may be denominated a dialogue; 'The close of this divine colloquy (between the Father and the Son) with the hymn of Angels that follow, are won derfully beautiful and poetical.'—Addison.

ANSWER, REPLY, REJOINDER, RESPONSE.

Answer, in Saxon andswaren and varan, Goth. award andward, German antwort, compounded of ant or anti against, and wort a word, signifies a word used against or in return for another; reply comes from the French repliquer, Latin replico to unfold, signifying to unfold or reptiquer, Data repeated to the compounded of re and join, signifying to join or add in return; response, in Latin responsus, participle of respondeo, compounded of re and spondeo, signifies to declare or give a sanction to in return.

Under all these terms is included the idea of using words in return for other words. An answer is given to a question; a reply is made to an assertion; a rejoinder is made to a reply; a response is made in accordance with the words of another.

One answers either for the purpose of affirmation assent, information, or contradiction;

The blackbird whistles from the thorny brake. The mellow bulfinch answers from the grove.

Thomson.

We always reply, or rejoin, in order to explain or confute; 'He again took some time to consider, and civilly replied, 'I do."—"If you do agree with me," rejoined tepinea, '1 do. — It you no agree with the regimea I, "in acknowledging the complaint, tell me if you will concur in promoting the cure," —CUMBERLAND. Responses are made by way of assent or confirmation, sponses are made and sometimes in the case of oracular answers by way of information; 'Lacedæmon, always disposed to control the growing consequence of her neighbours, and sensible of the bad policy of her late measures, had opened her eyes to the folly of expelling Hippins on the forged responses of the Pythia."—CUMBERLAND. It is impolite not to answer when we are addressed: arguments are maintained by the alternate replies and rejoinders of two parties; but such arguments seldom tend to the pleasure and improvement of society; the responses in the littingy are peculiarly calculated to keep alive the attention of those who take a part in the devotion.

An answer may be either spoken or written; reply and rejoinder are used in personal discourse only; a response may be said or sung.

RETORT, REPARTEE.

Retort, from re and torgue to twist or turn back, to recoil, is a nill-natured reply: repartee, from the word part, signifies a smart reply, a ready taking one's own part. The retort is always in answert o a censure, objection, or argument against a thing, for which one returns a like censure; 'Those who have so vehemently urged the dangers of an active life, have made use of arguments that may be retorted upon themselves.'—Johnson. The repartee is commonly in answer to the wit of another, where one returns wit for wit; 'Henry IV. of France would never be transported beyond himself with choler, but he would pass by any thing with some repartee.'—Howell. In the acrimony of disputes it is common to hear retort upon retort to an endless extent; the vivacity of discourse is sometimes greatly enhanced by the quick repartee of those who take a part in it. There is nothing wanting in order to make a retort, but the disposition to aggravate one with whom we are offended; the talent for repartee is altogether a natural endowment which does not depend in any degree upon the will of the individual.

FACETIOUS, CONVERSABLE, PLEASANT, JOCULAR, JOCOSE.

All these epithets designate that companionable quality which consists in liveliness of speech. Facetions, in Latin facetus, may probably come from for to speak, denoting the versatility with which a person makes use of his words; conversable is literally able to hold a conversation; pleasant (v. Agreeable) signifies making ourselves pleasant with others, or them pleased with us; jocular, after the manner of a joke; jocose, using or having jokes.

Facetions may be employed either for writing or conversation; the rest only in conversation: the facetrous man deals in that kind of discourse which may excite laughter; 'I have written nothing since I published, except a certain facetious history of John Gilpin.'—Cowper. A conversable man may instruct

as well as amuse;

But here my lady will object, Your intervals of time to spend, With so conversable a friend, It would not signify a pin Whatever climate you were in.—SWIFT.

The pleasant man says every thing in a pleasant manner; his pleasantry even on the most delicate subject is without offence; 'Aristophanes wrote to please the multitude; his pleasantries are coarse and impolite!—WARTON. The person speaking is jocose; the thing zaid, or the manner of saying it, is jocular: it is not for one to be always jocose, although sometimes one may assume a jocular air when we are not at liberty to be serious;

Thus Venus sports, When, cruelly jocose, She ties the fatal noose

And binds unequals to the brazen yokes.—CREECH. 'Pope sometimes condescended to be jocular with servants or inferiours.'—JOHNSON. A man is facetious from humour; he is conversable by means of information; he indulges himself in occasional pleasantry, or allows himself to be jocose, in order to enliven conversation; a useful hint is sometimes conveyed in jocular terms.

ADDRESS, SPEECH, HARANGUE, ORATION.

Address, v. To address; speech, from speak, signifies the thing spoken; harangue probably comes from ara an altar, where harangues used to be delivered; oration, from the Latin oro to beg or entreat, signifies that which is said by way of entreaty.

All these terms denote a set form of words directed or supposed to be directed to some person: an address in this sense is always written, but the rest are really spoken or supposed to be so; 'When Louis of France had lost the battle of Fontenoy, the addresses to him at that time were full of his fortitude.'—Heghes. A speech is in general that which is addressed in a formal manner to one person or more; 'Every circumstance in their speeches and actions is with justice and delicacy adapted to the persons who speak and act?—Apdressed and actions is a noisy, tunnulue as speech addressed to many; 'There is scarcely a city in Great Britain but has one of this tribe who takes it into his protection, and on the market days harangues the good people of the place with aphorisms and recipes.'—Pearce on Quacks. An oration is a solemn speech for any purpose; 'How cold and unaffecting the best oration in the world would be without the proper ornaments of voice and gesture, there are two remarkable instances in the case of Ligarius and that of Milo.'—Swift.

Addresses are frequently sent up to the throne by publick bodies. Speeches in Parliament, like harangues at elections, are often little better than the crude effusions of party spirit. The orations of Demosthenes and Cicero, which have been so justly admired, received a polish from the correcting hand of their authors, before they were communicated to the publick.

Addresses of thanks are occasionally presented to persons in high stations by those who are anxious to express a sense of their merits. It is customary for the King to deliver speeches to both houses of Parliament at their opening. In all popular governments there is a set of persons who have a trick of making karangues to the populace, in order to render them dissatisfied with the men in power. Funeral orations are commonly spoken over the grave.

TO ACCOST, SALUTE, ADDRESS.

Accost, in French accoster, is compounded of ac or ad, and the Latin costa a rib or side, signifying to come by the side of a person; salute, in Latin saluto, from salus health, signifies to bid good speed; address, in French addresser, is compounded of ad and dresser, from the Latin direct, preterit of dirigo to direct or apply, signifying to direct one's discourse to a person.

We accost a stranger whom we casually meet by the way; we salute our friends on meeting them; we address indifferent persons in company. Curiosity or convenience prompt men to accost; 'When Æneas is sently Virgit to the shades, he meets Dido, the Queen of Carthage, whom his perfidy had hurried to the grave; he accosts her with tenderness and excuses, but the lady turns away like Ajax in mute disdain.'—Johnson. Good-will or intimacy prompt men to salute others; business or social communication lead men to address each other. Rude people accost every one whom they meet; familiar people salute those with whom they are barely acquainted; impertinent people address those with whom they have no business; 'I was harassed by the multitude of eager salutations, and returned the common civilities with hesitation and impropriety.'—Johnson. 'I still continued to stand in the way, having scarcely strength to walk farther, when another soon addressed me in the same manner.'—Johnson.

We must accost by speaking; but we may salute by signs as well as words; and address by writing as well as by speaking.

SALUTE, SALUTATION, GREETING.

Salute and salutation, from the Latin salus, signifies literally wishing health to a person; greeting comes from the German grissen to kiss or salute.

Salute respects the thing, and salutation the person giving the salute; a salute may consist either of a word or an action; 'Strabo te Is us he saw the statue of Memnon, which, according to the poets, saluted the morning sun, every day, at its first rising, with an harmonious sound.'—PRIDEAUX. Salutations pass from one friend to another; 'Josephus makes mention of a Manaken who had the spirit of prophecy, and one time meeting with Herod among his school feelows

greeted him with this salutation, "Hail, King of the Jews."—PRIDEAUX. The salute may be either direct or indirect; the salutation is always direct and personal; guns are fired by way of a salute; bows are of our Saviour's and others of like brevity are properly given in the way of a salutation; greeting is a fami-har kind of salutation, which may be given vocally or in writing;

Not only those I nam'd I there shall greet, But my own gallant, virtuous Cato meet

DENHAM.

ELOCUTION, ELOQUENCE, ORATORY, RHETORICK.

Elocution and eloquence are derived from the same Latin verb cloquor to speak out; oratory, from ore to implore, signifies the art of making a set speech.

Elocution consists in the manner of delivery; elo-quence in the matter that is delivered. We employ clocution in repeating the words of another; we ploy eloquence to express our own thoughts and feel-Elecution is requisite for an actor; elequence for a speaker,

Soft elocution does thy style renown, And the sweet accents of the peaceful gown, Gentle or sharp, according to thy choice. To laugh at follies or to lash at vice.-DRYDEN. Athens or free Rome, where eloquence Flourish'd, since mute.—MILTON.

Floquence lies in the person; it is a natural gift: oratory lies in the mode of expression; it is an acquired As harsh and irregular sounds are not harmony, so neither is banging a cushion oratory'—Swift.
Rhetorick, from he to speak, is properly the theory of
the art of which oratory is the practice. But the term
thet rick may be sometimes employed in an improper sense for the display of oratory or scientifick speaking.

Electurate speaks one's own feelings; it comes from the beart, and speaks to the heart: oratory is an imitative art: it describes what is felt by another. Rhetorick is the affectation of oratory; 'Be but a person in credit with the multitude, he shall be able to make popu'ar rambling stuff pass for high rhetorick and moving preaching .- South.

An afflicted parent, who pleads for the restoration of An annoted parent, who preads for the restoration of her child that has been torn from her, will exert her eloquence; a counsellor at the bar, who pleads the cause of his client, will employ oratory; vulgar par-

tisans are full of rhetorick.

Eloquence often consists in a look or an action; oratory must always be accompanied with language. There is a dumb eloquence which is not denied even to the brutes, and which speaks more than all the audied graces of speech and action employed by the

His infant softness pleads a milder doom, And speaks with all the cloquence of tears .- HEIGH.

Between eloquence and oratory there is the same distinction as between nature and art: the former can never be perverted to any base purposes; it always speaks tuth: the latter will as easily serve the pur-poses of falsehood as of truth. The political partisan, who paints the miseries of the poor in glowing language and artful periods, may often have oratory enough to excite dissatisfaction against the government, without having eloquence to describe what he really feels.

EFFUSION, EJACULATION.

Effusion signifies the thing poured out, and ejaculation the thing ejaculated or thrown out, both indi-cating a species of verbal expression; the former either by utterance or in writing, the latter only by utterby interance or in writing, the latter only by uner-ance. The effusion is not so vehement or sudden as the ejaculation; the ejaculation is not so ample or dif-fuse as the effusion; effusion is seldom taken in a good sense; ejaculation rarely otherwise. An effusion com-monly flows from a heated imagination uncorrected by the judgement; it is therefore in general not only incoherent, but extravagant and senseless: an ejacu lation is produced by the warmth of the moment, but never without reference to some particular circumstance. Enthusiasts are full of extravagant effusions; contrite sinners will often express their penitence in

such as we call ejaculations.'-South.

WORD, TERM, EXPRESSION.

* Word is here the generick term; the other two are specifick. Every term and expression is a word; but every word is not denominated a term or expression. Language consists of words; they are the connected sounds which serve for the communication of thought. Term, from terminus a boundary, signifies any word that has a specifick or limited meaning; expression (v. To express) signifies any word which conveys a forcible meaning. Usage determines words; science fixes terms; sentiment provides expressions. The purity of a style depends on the choice of words; the precision of a writer depends upon the choice of his terms; the force of a writer depends upon the aptitude of his expressions.

The grammarian treats on the nature of words, the philosopher weighs the value of scientifick terms; the rhetorician estimates the force of expressions. French have coined many new words since the revolution; terms of art admit of no change after the signification is fully defined; expressions vary according to the connexion in which they are introduced;

As all words in few letters live,

Thou to few words all sense dost give .- COWLEY.

'The use of the word minister is brought down to the literal signification of it, a servant; for now, to serve and to minister, servile and ministerial, are terms equivalent.'—South. 'A maxim, or moral saying, naturally receives this form of the antithesis, because it is designed to be engraven on the memory, which recalls it more easily by the help of such contrasted expressions.'- BLAIR.

VERBAL, VOCAL, ORAL

Verbal, from verbum a word, significs after the man reroad, from evourn a word, significant enter the man ner of a spoken word; oral, from es the mouth, signifies by word of mouth; and vocal, from eoz the voice, signifies by the voice: the two former of these words are used to distinguish speaking from writing; the latter to distinguish the sounds of the voice from any other sounds, particularly in singing: a verbal message is distinguished from one written on a paper, or in a note; 'Among all the northern nations, shaking of hands was held necessary to bind the bargain, a custom which we still retain in many verbal contracts.—
BLACKSTONE. Oral tradition is distinguished from that which is handed down to posterity by means of books; 'In the first ages of the world instruction was commonly oral."—Johnson. Vocal musick is distinguished from instrumental; vocal sounds are more harmonious than those which proceed from any other

Forth came the human pair, And join'd their vocal worship to the choir Of creatures wanting voice.-MILTON.

VOTE, SUFFRAGE, VOICE.

Vote, in Latin votum, from voveo to vow, is very probably derived from vox a voice, signifying the voice that is raised in supplication to heaven; suffrage, in Latin suffrogium, is in all probability compounded of sub and frango to break out or declare for a thing; voice is here figuratively taken for the voice that is

voice is nere inguratively taken for the voice that is raised in favour of a thing.

The vote is the wish itself, whether expressed or not; a person has a vote, that is, the power of wishing: but the suffrage and the voice are the wish that is expressed; a person gives his suffrage or his voice.

The vote is the settled and fixed wish; it is that by

which the most important concerns in life are determined:

The popular vote Inclines here to continue.—MILTON.

The suffrage is a vote given only in particular cases; Reputation is commonly lost, because it never was

* Girard: "Terme, expression '

deserved; and was conferred at first, not by the suf-frage of criticism, but by the fondness of friendship.' —Johnson. The vaice is a partial or occasional wish, expressed only in matters of minor importance;

My voice is in my sword! Thou bloodier villain Than terms can give thee out .- SHAKSPEARE. But sometimes it may be employed to denote the publick opinion;

That something 's ours when we from life depart, This all conceive, all feel it at the heart; The wise of learn'd antiquity proclaim

This truth; the publick voice declares the same.

JENYNS.

The vote and voice are given either for or against a person or thing; the suffrage is commonly given in favour of a person: in all publick assemblies the majority of votes decides the question; members of Parliament are chosen by the suffrages of the people; in the execution of a will every executor has a voice in all that is transacted.

LANGUAGE, TONGUE, SPEECH, IDIOM, DIALECT.

Language, from the Latin lingua a tongue, signifies. like the word tongue, that which is spoken by the tongue; speech is the act or power of speaking, or the thing spoken; idiom, in Latin idioma, Greek loiwua, from έδιος properus proper or peculiar, significs a pe-culiar mode of speaking; dialect, in Latin dialectus, Greek διάλεκτικος, from διαλέγομαι to speak in a distinct manner, signifies a distinct mode of speech.

All these terms mark the manner of expressing our thoughts, but under different circumstances. Language is the most general term in its meaning and application; it conveys the general idea without any modification, and is applied to other modes of expression, besides that of words, and to other objects besides persons: the language of the eyes frequently supplies the place of that of the tongue; the deaf and dumb use the language of signs; birds and beasts are sup-posed to have their peculiar language;

Nor do they trust their tongue alone, But speak a language of their own. -SWIFT.

On the other hand, tongue, speech, and the others, are applicable only to human beings. Language is either written or spoken; but a tongue is conceived of mostly as a something to be spoken; and speech is, in the strict sense, that only which is spoken or uttered. A tongue is a totality, or an entire assemblage, of all that is necessary for the expressions; it comprehends not only words, but modifications of meaning, changes of termination, modes and forms of words, with the whole scheme of syntactical rules; a tongue therefore com-prehended, in the first instance, only those languages which were originally formed: the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin are in the proper sense tongues; but those which are spoken by Europeans, and owe their origin to the former, commonly bear the general denomination of languages; 'What if we could discourse with people of all the nations upon the earth in their own mother tongue? Unless we know Jesus Christ, also, we should be lost for eyer.'—Beveridge.

Speech is an abstract term, implying either the power of uttering articulate sounds, as when we speak of the gift of speech, which is denied to those who are dumb; or the words themselves which are spoken, as when we speak of the parts of speech; or the particular mode of expressing one's self, as when we say that a man is known by his speech; 'When speech is employed only as the vehicle of falsehood, every man must disunite himself from others.'-Johnson. Idiom and dialect are not properly a language, but the properties of lanthe idiom is the peculiar construction and turn of a language, which distinguishes it altogether from others; it is that which enters into the composition of the language, and cannot be separated from it; 'The language of this great poet is sometimes obscured by old words, transpositions, and foreign idioms.'—Addi-son. The dialect is that which is engrafted on a language by the inhabitants of particular parts of a country, and admitted by its writers and learned men to form an incidental part of the language; as the dialects which originated with the Ionians, the Athenians.

the Æolians, and were afterward amalgamated into the Greek tongue; as also the dialects of the High and Low German which are distinguished by similar peculiarities; 'Every art has its dialect, uncouth and ungrateful to all whom custom has not reconciled to its sound.'-Johnson.

Languages simply serve to convey the thoughts: tongues consist of words written or spoken: speech consists of words spoken: idioms are the expression of national manners, customs, and turns of sentiment, which are the most difficult to be transferred from one language to another: dialects do not vary so much in the words themselves, as in the forms of words; they are prejudicial to the perspicuity of a language, but add to its harmony.

DICTION, STYLE, PHRASE, PHRASEOLOGY.

Diction, from the Latin dictio, saving, is put for the mode of expressing ourselves; style comes from the Latin stylus the bodkin with which the Romans both wrote and corrected what they had written on their waxen tablets: whence the word has been used for the manner of writing in general; phrase, in Greek $\phi \rho d\sigma \iota s$, from $\phi \rho d\zeta_{\omega}$ to speak; and phrased $\eta \iota s$ from $\phi \rho d\sigma \iota s$, and $\lambda \delta \gamma \iota s$, both signify the manner of speaking.

Diction expresses much less than style; the former is applicable to the first efforts of learners in composition; the latter only to the original productions of a matured mind. Errours in grammar, false construction, a confused disposition of words, or an improper application of them, constitutes bad diction; but the niceties, the elegancies, the peculiarities, and the beauties of composition, which mark the genius and talent of the writer, are what is comprehended under the name of style. Diction is a general term, applicable alike to a single sentence or a connected composition; style is used in regard to a regular piece of composition.

As diction is a term of inferiour import, it is of course As dection is a term of interiour import, it is of course mostly confued to ordinary subjects, and style to the productions of authors. We should speak of a person's diction in his private correspondence, but of his style in his literary works. Diction requires only to be pure and clear; 'Prior's diction is more his own than that of any among the successors of Dryden.'—Johnson. Style may likewise be terse, polished, elegant, florid, poetick, soher, and the like; 'I think we may say with justice, that when mortals converse with their Creator, they cannot do it in so proper a style as in that of the Holy Scriptures.'—Applison.

Diction is said mostly in regard to what is written; Diction is said mosay in regard to what is written; phrase and phraseology are said as often of what is spoken as what is written; as that a person has adopted a strange phrase or phraseology. The former respects single words; the latter comprehends a succession of

Rude am I in speech, And little blest with the soft phrase of speech. SHAKSPEARE.

I was no longer able to accommodate myself to the accidental current of my conversation; my notions grew particular and paradoxical, and my phraseology formal and unfashionable.'-Johnson.

DICTIONARY, ENCYCLOPÆDIA.

Dictionary, from the Latin dictum a saying or word. is a register of words; encylopædia, from the Greek ενκυκλοπαιδεία or εν in κύκλος and παιδεία learning, signifies a register of things.

The definition of words, with their various changes, modifications, uses, acceptations, and applications, are the proper subjects of a dictionary; 'If a man that lived an age or two ago should return into the world again, he would really want a dictionary to help him to understand his own language.'-Tillotson. nature and property of things, with their construction, uses, powers, &c. are the proper subjects of an encyclopædia; Every science borrows from all the rest, and we cannot attain any single one without the encyclopadia.'—GLANVILLE. A general acquaintance with all arts and sciences as far as respects the use of technical terms, and a perfect acquaintance with the classical writers in the language, are essential for the composition of a dictionary; an entire acquaintance with all the minutiæ of every art and science is requisite for the composition of an encyclopædia. A single individual may qualify himself for the task of writing a dictionary; but the universality and diver-sity of knowledge contained in an encyclopædia render

it necessarily the work of many.

A dictionary has been extended in its application to any work alphabetically arranged, as biographical, medical, botanical dictionaries, and the like, but still preserving this distinction, that the dictionary always contains only a general or partial illustration of the subject proposed, while the encyclopædia embraces the whole circle of science.

DICTIONARY, LEXICON, VOCABULARY, GLOSSARY, NOMENCLATURE.

Dictionary (v. Dictionary) is a general term. confrom keyw to say, weathury from vola word, glossary from gloss to explain, and nomenclature from nomen, are all species of the dictionary.

Lexicon is a species of dictionary appropriately applied to the dead languages. A Greek or Hebrew lexi-con is distinguished from a dictionary of the French or English. A vocabulary is a partial kind of diction-ary which may comprehend a simple list of words, with or without explanation, arranged in order or otherwise. A glossary is an explanatory rocabulary, which commonly serves to explain the obsolete terms employed in any old author. A nomenclature is literally a list of names, and in particular reference to proper names.

TURGID, TUMID, BOMBASTICK.

Turgid and tumid both signify swollen, but they differ in their application: turgid belongs to diction, as a turgid style; tumid is applicable to the water and other objects, as the tumid waves. Bombastick, from bombyx a kind of cotton, signifies puffed up like cotton, and is, like turgid, applicable to words; but the bombastick includes the sentiments expressed: turgidity is confined mostly to the mode of expression. A writer is turgid who expresses a simple thought in a lofty language: a person is bombastick who deals in large words and introduces high sentiments in common discourse.

DIFFUSE, PROLIX.

Both mark defects of style opposed to brevity. Diffuse, in Latin diffusus, participle of diffundo to pour out or spread wide, marks the quality of being extended in space; prolix, in French prolixe, changed from prolaxus, signifies to let loose in a wide space.

The diffuse is properly apposed to the precise; the prolix to the concise or laconick. A diffuse writer is fond of amplification, he abounds in epithets, tropes. figures, and illustrations; the prolix writer is fond of circumlocution, minute details, and trifling particulars. Diffuseness is a fault only in degree, and according to circumstances; prolixity is a positive fault at all times. The former leads to the use of words unnecessarily; the latter to the use of phrases as well as words that are altogether useless: the diffuse style has too much of repetition; the prolix style abounds in tautology. Diffuseness often arises from an exuberance of ima gination; prolizity from the want of imagination; on the other hand the former may be coupled with great superficiality, and the latter with great solidity.

Gibbon and other modern writers have fallen into the error of diffuseness. Lord Clarendon and many English writers preceding him are chargeable with probixity; 'Few authors are more clear and perspicuous on the whole than Archbishop Tillotson and Sir William Temple, yet neither of them are remarkable for precision; they are loose and diffuse.'-BLAIR. 'Hook the name of a story-teller, to be much more insufferable than a prolix writer.'—Steele.

SENTENCE, PROPOSITION, PERIOD, PHRASE.

Sentence, in Latin sententia, is but a variation of sentiment (n. Opinion); proposition, n. Proposal; period, in Latin periodus, Greek περίοδος, from περί about and δδός way, signifies the circuit or round of words, which renders the sense complete; phrase, from the Greek φράζω to speak, signifies the words ut tered

The sentence consists of any words which convey sentiment; the proposition consists of the thing set before the mind, that is, either before our own minds or the minds of others; hence the term sentence has more especial regard to the form of words, and the proposition to the matter contained; 'Some expect in letters pointed sentences and forcible periods.'—John-'In 1417, it required all the eloquence and authority of the famous Gershon to prevail upon the council of Constance to condemn this proposition, that there are some cases in which assassination is a virtue more meritorious in a knight than a squire.'-ROBERTson. Sentence and proposition are both used technically or otherwise: the formering ammar and thetorick, the latter in logick. The sentence is simple and complex ; the proposition is universal or particular. Period and phrase, like sentence, are forms of words, but they are solely so, whereas the sentence depends on the connexion of ideas by which it is formed; we speak of sentences either as to their structure or their senti ment; hence the sentence is either grammatical or moral; 'A sentence may be defined, a moral instruc-tion couched in a few words.'—BROOME. The period regards only the structure; it is either well or ill-turned, long or short, it is in fact a complete sentence from one full stop to another; 'Periods are beautiful when they are not too long,'—Ben Jonson. The term phrase denotes the character of the words;

Disastrous words can best disasters show, In angry phrase the angry passions glow. ELPHINSTONE.

Hence it is either vulgar or polite, idiomatick or general: the sentence must consist of at least two words to make sense; the phrase may be a single word or otherwise

SILENCE, TACITURNITY.

* The Latins have the two verbs sileo and taceo; the former of which is interpreted by some to signify to cease to speak; and the latter not to begin to speak; others maintain the direct contrary. According to the present use of the words, silence expresses less than taciturmity: the silent man does not speak; the taciturm man will not speak at all. The Latins designated the most profound silence by the epithet of taciturna si-Lentin

Silence is either occasional or habitual: it may arise from circumstances or character · taciturnity is mostly habitual, and springs from disposition. A loquacious man may be silent if he has no one to speak to him, and a prudent man will always be silent where he finds that speaking would be dangerous: a taciturn man, on the other hand, may occasionally make an effort to speak, but he never speaks without an effort When silence is habitual, it does not spring from an unamiable character; but taciturnity has always its source in a vicious temper of the mind. A silent man may frequently contract a habit of silence from thought-fulness, modesty, or the fear of offending: a man is taciturn only from the sullenness and gloominess of his temper Habits of retirement render men silent: savages seldom break their silence; company will not correct taciturnity, but rather increase it. The obcorrect taciturnity, but rather increase it. The observer is necessarily silent; if he speaks, it is only in order to observe: the melancholy man is naturally taciturn; if he speaks, it is with pain to himself. Seneca says, talk little with others and much with yourself; the silent man observes this precept; the taciturn man exceeds it;

Silence is the perfectest herald of joy I were but little happy, if I could say how much. SHAKSPEARE.

Pythagoras enjoined his scholars in absolute silence for a long novitiate. I am far from approving such a taciturnity; but I highly approve the end and intent of Pythagoras' injunction. — Снатнам.

SILENT, DUMB, MUTE, SPEECHLESS.

Not speaking is the common idea included in the signification of these terms, which differ either in the cause or the circumstance: silent (v. Silent) is altogether an indefinite and general term, expressing little more than the common idea. We may be silent

Vide Abbe Roubaud: "Silencieux, taciturne."

because we will not speak, or we may be silent because we cannot speak; but in distinction from the other terms it is always employed in the former case. Sometimes it is also used figuratively to denote sending forth no sound :

And just before the confines of the wood, The gliding Lethe leads her silent flood.

Dumb, from the German dumm stupid or idiotick, denotes a physical incapacity to speak: hence persons are said to be born dumb; they may likewise be dumb from read to be both aumo; they may likewise be dumb from temporary physical causes, as from grief, shame, and the like; or a person may be struck dumb; 'The truth of it is, half the great talkers in the nation would be struck dumb were this fountain of discourse (party lies) dried up.'—Addison.

'T is listening fear and dumb amazement all.

Mute, in Latin mutus, Greek μυττός from μυω to shut, signifies having a shut mouth, or a temporary disability to speak from arbitrary and incidental causes: hence the office of mutes, or of persons who engage not to speak for a certain time; and, in like manner, persons are said to be mute who dare not give utterance to their thempter. their thoughts;

Mute was his tongue, and apright stood his hair. DRYDEN.

Long mute he stood, and leaning on his staff, His wonder witness'd with an idiot laugh.

Speechless, or void of speech, denotes a physical incapacity to speak from incidental causes; as when a person falls down speechless in an apoplectick fit, or in consequence of a violent contusion;

But who can paint the lover as he stood, Pierc'd by severe amazement, hating life Speechless, and fix'd in all the death of wo THOMSON.

TO SPEAK, SAY, TELL.

Speak, v. To speak; say, in Saxon seegan, German sagen, Latin seco or sequor, changed into dico, and Hebrew y w to vociferate; tell, in Saxon taellan, Low German tellan, &c., is probably an opomatore in tellan, &c., is probably an onomatopela in language.

To speak may simply consist in uttering an articulate sound; but to say is to communicate some idea by means of words: a child begins to speak the moment it opens its lips to utter any acknowledged sound; but it will be some time before it can say any thing; a person is said to speak high or low, distinctly or indistinctly; but he says that which is true or false, right or wrong: a dumb man cannot speak; a fool cannot say any thing that is worth hearing: we speak languages. we speak sense or nonsense, we speak intelligibly or unintelligibly; but we say what we think at the time. In an extended sense, speak may refer as much to sense as to sound; but then it applies only to general cases, and say to particular and passing circumstances of life: it is a great abuse of the gift of speech not to speak the truth; it is very culpable in a person to say that he will do a thing and not to do it.

To say and tell are both the ordinary actions of men in their daily intercourse; but say is very partial, it may comprehend single, unconnected sentences, or even single words: we may say yes or no; but we tell that which is connected, and which forms more or less of a marrative. To say is to communicate that which passes in our own minds, to express our ideas and feelings as they rise; to tell is to communicate events or circumstances respecting ourselves or others: it is not good to let children say foolish things for the sake of talking; it is still worse for them to be encouraged in telling every thing they hear: when every one is allowed to say what he likes and what he thinks, there will commonly be more speakers than hearers; those who accustom themselves to tell long stories impose a tax upon others, which is not repaid by the pleasure of their company.

Men's reputations depend upon what others say of them; reports are spread by means of one man telling another; 'He that questioneth much shall learn much, and content much for he shall give occasion to those whom he asketh to please themselves in speaking.'-BACON.

Say, Yorke (for sure, if any, thou canst tell), What virtue is, who practise it so well.

JENYNS.

NEWS, TIDINGS.

News implies any thing new that is related or circu lated; but tidings, from tide, signifies that which flows in periodically like the tide, and comes in at the moment the thing happens. News is unexpected; it serves to gratify idle curiosity; 'I wonder that in the present situation of affairs you can take pleasure in writing any thing but news.'—Spectator. Tidings Tidings are expected; they serve to allay anxiety;

Too soon some demon to my father bore The tidings that his heart with anguish tore.

In time of war the publick are eager after news; and they who have relatives in the army are anxious to have tidings of them.

TO REPEAT, RECITE, REHEARSE, RECAPITULATE.

The idea of going over any words, or actions, is common to all these terms. Repeat, from the Latin common to all these terms. Repeat, from the Lann repeto to seek, or go over again, is the general term including only the common idea. To recite, rehearse and recapitulate, are modes of repetition, conveying each some accessory idea. To recite is to repeat in a formal manner; to rehearse is to repeat or recite by way of preparation; to recapitulate is to repeat in a minute and specifick manner. We repeat both actions and words; we recite only words: we repeat single words, or even sounds; we recite always a form of words: we repeat our own words, or the words of another; we recite only the words of another: we repeat other; we recute only the words of allotter. We repeat a name; we recute an ode, or a set of verses: We repeat for purposes of general convenience; we recite for the convenience or amusement of others; we rehearse for some specifick purpose, either for the amusement or instruction of others: we recapitulate for the instruction of others. One repeats that which he wishes to be heard:

I could not half those horrid crimes repeat, Nor half the punishments those crimes have met.

A piece of poetry is recited perore a company Whenever the practice of recitation was disused, the piece of poetry is recited before a company works, whether poetical or historical, perished with the authors.'—Jонизон. A piece is rehearsed in private, which is intended to be recited in publick;

Now take your turns, ye muses, to rehearse His friend's complaints, and mighty magick verse. DRYDEN

One recapitulates the general heads of that which we have already spoken in detail; 'The parts of a judge are to direct the evidence to moderate length, repetition, or impertinency of speech, to recapitulate, select, and collate the material points of that which has been said."-Bacon. A master must always repeat to his scholars the instruction which he wishes them to resenorars the institution which he were them to re-member; Homer is said to have recited his verses in different parts; players rehearse their different parts before they perform in publick; ministers recapitulate the leading points in their discourse.

To repeat is commonly to use the same words; to To repeat is commonly to use the same words; to recite, to rehearse, and to recapitulate, do not necessarily require any verbal sameness. We repeat literally what we hear spoken by another; but we recite and rehearse events; and we recapitulate in a concise manner what has been uttered in a particular manner. An echo repeats with the greatest possible precision; Homer recites the names of all the Grecian and Trojan leaders, together with the names and account of their countries, and the number of the forces which they commanded; Virgil makes Eneas to rehearse before Dido and her courtiers the story of the capture of Troy, and his own adventures; a judge recapitulates

evidence to a jury.

To repeat, recite, and recapitulate are employed in writing, as well as in speaking; rehearse is only a mode of speaking. It is sometimes a beauty in style to

repeat particular words on certain occasions; an historian finds it necessary to recapitulate the principal national events; biography is the relation of particular period.

Output Description of particular period. events of any particular period.

REPETITION, TAUTOLOGY.

Repetition is to tautology as the genus to the species: the latter being a species of vicious repetition. There me latter being a species of victous repetition. There may be frequent repetitions which are warranted by necessity or convenience; but tautology is that which nowise adds to either the sense or the sound. A repetition may, or may not, consist of literally the same words; but tautology, from the Greek rawrô the same, and $\lambda\delta\gamma\sigma_0$ a word, supposes such a sameness in expression, as renders the signification the same. In the liturgy of the church of England there are some repetitions, which add to the solemnity of the worship; in most extemporary prayers there is much tautology, that destroys the religious effect of the whole; 'That is truly and really tautology, where the same thing is repeated, though under never so much variety of expression.'-South.

TO RELATE, RECOUNT, DESCRIBE.

Relate, in Latin relatus, participle of referro, signifies to bring that to the notice of others which has before been brought to our own notice; recount is properly to count again, or count over again; describe, from the Latin scribe to write, is literally to write down.

The idea of giving an account of events or circumstances is common to all these terms, which differ in the object and circumstances of the action. Relate is said generally of all events, both of those which con-cern others as well as ourselves;

O Muse! the causes and the crimes relate, What goddess was provok'd, and whence her hate. DRYDEN.

Recount is said particularly of those which concern ourselves, or in which we are interested;

To recount Almighty works What words or tongue of seraph can suffice? MILTON.

Those who relate all they hear often relate that which never happened; it is a gratification to an old soldier to recount all the transactions in which he bore a part during the military career of his early youth. are related that have happened at any period of time immediate or remote; one recounts mostly those things which have been long passed: in recounting, the memory reverts to past scenes, and counts over all that has deeply interested the mind. Travellers are pleased to relate to their friends whatever they have seen remarkable in other countries; the recounting of our adventures in distant regions of the globe has a peculiar interest for all who hear them. We may relate either by writing or by word of mouth; we recount only by word of mouth; writers of travels sometimes give themselves a latitude in relating more than they have either heard or seen; he who recounts the ex-ploits of heroism, which he has either witnessed or performed, will always meet with a delighted audience.

Relate and recount are said of that only which passes; describe is said of that which exists: we relate the particulars of our journey; and we describe the country we pass through. Personal adventure is always the subject of a relation; the quality and con-dition of things are those of the description. We relate what happened on meeting a friend; we describe the dress of the parties, or the ceremonies which are usual on particular occasions; 'In describing a rough torrent or deluge, the numbers should run easy and flowing.'—Pops.

RELATION, RECITAL, NARRATION.

Relation, from the verb relate, denotes the act of relating; recital, from recite, denotes the act of re-citing; narrative, from narrate, denotes the thing narrated. Relation is here, as in the former para-graph (v. To relate), the general, and the others parti-cular terms. Relation applies to every object which is related, whether of a publick or private, a national

in which the writer tells his own story."—Johnson. Recital is the relation or repetition of actual or existing circumstances; we listen to the recital of misfortunes, distresses, and the like; 'Old men fall easily into re-citals of past transactions.'—Johnson. The relation may concern matters of indifference; the recital is always of something that affects the interests of some individual: the pages of the journalist are filled with the relation of daily occurrences which simply amuse in the reading; but the recital of another's woes often draws tears from the audience to whom it is made.

Relation and recital are seldom employed but in connexion with the object related or recited; narrative is mostly used by itself: hence we say the relation of any particular circumstance; the recital of any one's calamities; but an affecting narrative, or a simple narrative; 'Cynthia was much taken with my nar narrative; 'Cynth rative.'-TATLER.

ANECDOTES, MEMOIRS, CHRONICLES, ANNALS

Anecdote, from the Greek ἀνέκδοτος, signifies what Anceante, from the Greek avercoros, signines what is communicated in a private way; memoirs, in French memoires, from the word memory, signifies what serves to help the memory; chronicle, in French chronicle, from the Greek xpôvos time, signifies an account of the times; annals, from the French annales, the Latin is the characteristics and the server is the server in the server is the server in the server in the server in the server is the server in the server annus a year, signifies a detail of what passes in the

All these terms mark a species of narrative more or less connected, that may serve as materials for a re

gular history.

Anecdotes consist of personal or detached circum-Ancedotes consist of personal or detagned circumstances of a publick or private nature, involving one subject or more. Ancedotes may be either moral or political, literary or biographical; they may serve as characteristicks of any individual, or of any particular nation or age; 'I allude to those papers in which I treat of the literature of the Greeks, carrying down my history in a chain of anecdotes from the earliest poets to the death of Menander. —Cumberland.

Memoirs may include anecdotes, as far as they are

connected with the leading subject on which they treat; memoirs are rather connected than complete; they are a partial narrative respecting an individual, and comprehending matter of a publick or private nature; they serve as memorials of what ought not to be forgotten, and lay the foundation either for a history or a life; *Cassar gives us nothing but memoirs of his own times.'-Cullen.

Chronicles and annals are altogether of a publick nature; and approach the nearest to the regular and genuine history. Chronicles register the events as they pass; annals digest them into order, as they occur in

pass; annals tiges them into older, as they occur in the course of the year. Chronicles are minute as to the exact point of time; annals only preserve a general order within the period of a year.

Chronicles detail the events of small as well as large communities, as of particular districts and cities; annals detail only the events of nations. Chronicles include domestick incidents or such things as concern individuals. The word annals, in its proper sense, relates only to such things as affect the great body of the publick, but it is frequently employed in an improper sense. Chronicles may be confined to simple matter of fact; annals may enter into the causes and consequences of events; 'His eye was so piercing that, as ancient chronicles report, he could blunt the weapons of his enemies only by looking at them' JOHNSON.

Could you with patience hear, or I relate, O nymph! the tedious annals of our fate. Through such a train of woes if I should run The day would sooner than the tale be done.

Anecdotes require point and vivacity, as they seem rather to amuse than instruct; the grave historian will always use them with caution; memoirs require authenticity; chronicles require accuracy; annals require clearness of narration, method in the disposition, impartiality in the representation, with almost every requisite that constitutes the true historian.

Anecdotes and memoirs are of more modern use: chronicles and annals were frequent in former ages they were the first historick monuments which were stamped with the impression of the simple, frank, and rude manners of early times. The chronicles of our present times are principally to be found in newspapers and magazines; the annals in annual registers or retrospects.

ACCOUNT, NARRATIVE, DESCRIPTION.

Account, v. Account, reckoning; narrative, from narrate, is in Latin narratus, participle of narro or gnarro, signifies that which is made known; description, from describe, in Latin describe, or de and scribe, signifies that which is written down.

Account is the most general of these terms; whatever is noted as worthy of remark is an account; narrative is an account narrated; description an account

Account has no reference to the person giving the account; a narrative must have a narrator; a description must have a describer. An account may come from one or several quarters, or no specified quarter; but a narrative and description bespeak themselves as the production of some individual.

An account may be the statement of a single fact

only; a narrative must always consist of several con nected incidents; a description of several unconnected particulars respecting some common object.

An account and a description may be communicated either verbally or in writing; a narrative is mostly

written. An account may be given of political events, natural phenomena, and domestick occurrences; as the signing of a treaty, the march of an army, the death and funeral of an individual; 'A man of business, in good company, who gives an account of his abilities and despatches, is hardly more insupportable than her they call a notable woman.'—STRELE. A narrative is mostly personal, respecting the adventures, the travels, the dangers, and the escapes of some particular person; 'Few narratives will, either to men or women, appear more incredible than the histories of the Amazons JOHNSON. A description does not so much embrace occurrences, as characters, appearances, beauties, defects, and attributes in general; 'Most readers, I believe, are more charmed with Milton's description of

paradise than of hell.'—Addison.

Accounts from the armies are anxiously looked for in time of war. Whenever a narrative is interesting, it is a species of reading eagerly sought after. The descriptions which are given of the eruptions of volcanoes are calculated to awaken a strong degree of curiosity. An account may be false or true; a narrative clear or confused; a description lively or dull.

FABLE, TALE, NOVEL, ROMANCE.

Fable, in Latin fabula, from for to speak or tell, and tale, from to tell, both designate a species of narration; novel, in Italian novella, is an extended tale that has norelty; romance, from the Italian romanzo, is a wonderful tale, or a tale of wonders, such as was most in vogue in the dark ages of European literature.

Different species of composition are expressed by the above words. The fable is allegorical; its actions are natural, but its agents are mostly imaginary; 'When I travelled, I took a particular delight in hearing the songs and fables that are come from father to son, and are most in vogue among the common people. son. The tale is fictitious, but not imaginary; both the agents and actions are drawn from the passing scenes of life

Of Jason, Theseus, and such worthies old,

Light seem the tales antiquity has told .- WALLER. Gods and goddesses, animals and men, trees, vege tables, and inanimate objects in general, may be made the agents of a fable; but of a tale, properly speaking, only men or supernatural spirits can be the agents: of the former description are the celebrated fables of Æsop; and of the latter the tales of Marmontel, the tales of the Genii, the Chinese tales, &c. Fables are written for instruction; tales principally for amusement: fables consist mostly of only one incident or action, from which a moral may be drawn; tales 30°

always of many, which excite an interest for an in dividual.

The tale when compared with the novel is a simple kind of fiction, it consists of but few persons in the drama; while the novel on the contrary admits of every possible variety in characters: the tale is told without much art or contrivance to keep the reader in suspense, without any depth of plot or importance in suspense, without any depth of piot or importance in the catastrophe; the nonet affords the greatest scope for exciting an interest by the rapid succession of events, the involvements of interests, and the unravel ling of its plots; 'A nonet conducted upon one uniform plan, containing a series of events in familiar life, is in plan, containing a series of events in familiar file, is in effect a protracted comedy not divided into acts.—
CUMBERLAND. If the novel awakens the attention, the romance rivets the whole mind and engages the affections; it presents nothing but what is extraordinary and calculated to fill the imagination: of the former description, Cervantes, La Sage, and Fielding have given us the best specimens; and of the latter we have the best modern specimens from the pen of Mrs. Radcliffe; 'In the romances formerly written, every transaction and sentiment was so remote from all that passes among men, that the reader was in little danger of making any application to himself.'-JOHNSON.

ANECDOTE, STORY, TALE.

Anecdote, v. Anecdotes; story, like history, comes from the Greek $[\sigma\tau\sigma\rho\epsilon\omega]$ to relate.

An anecdote (v. Anecdotes) has but little incident, and no plot: a story may have many incidents, and an important catastrophe annexed to it, the word story being a contraction of history: there are many anecdotes related of Dr. Johnson, some of which are of a trifling nature, and others characteristick; stories are generally told to young people of ghosts and visions, which are calculated to act on their fears.

An anecdote is pleasing and pretty; a story is fright-An anceaste is pressing and prevy, a story is figure ful or melancholy: an anecdate always consists of some matter of fact; a story is founded on that which is real. Anecdates are related of some distinguished persons, displaying their characters or the circumstances of their itives; 'How admirably Rapin, the most popular among the Freuch criticks, was qualified to sit in judgement upon Homer and Thucydides, Demosthenes and Plato, may be gathered from an anecdote preserved by Menage, who affirms upon his own knowledge that Le Fevre and Saumur furnished this assuming critick with the Greek passages which he had to cite, Rapin himself being totally ignorant of that language.'--WARTON. Stories from life, however striking and wonderful, will seldom impress so powerfully as those which are drawn from the world of spirits; 'This story I once intended to omit, as it appears with no great evidence; nor have Imet with any confination but in a letter of Farquhar, and he only relates that the funeral of Dryden was tumultuary and confused.'-Johnson. Anecdotes serve to amuse men, stories to amuse children.

The story is either an actual fact, or something feign ed; the tale is always feigned; stories are circulated respecting the accidents and occurrences which happen to persons in the same place; tales of distress are told by many merely to excite compassion. When both are taken for that which is fictitious, the story is either an untruth, or laisifying of some fact, or it is altogether an invention; the tale is always an invention. As an untruth, the story is commonly told by children; as a fiction, the story is commonly made for

children;

Meantime the village rouses up the fire While well attested, and as well believed, Heard solemn, goes the goblin story round. THOMSON.

The tale is of deeper invention, and serves for a more serious end, good or bad;

He makes that pow'r to trembling nations known. But rarely this, not for each vulgar end. As superstitious idle tales pretend.-JENYNS.

CAST, TURN, DESCRIPTION, CHARACTER.

Cast, from the verb to cast (v. To cast), signifies that which is cast, and here, by an extension of the sense, the form in which it is cast; turn, from the verb to

turn, signifies also the act of turning, or the manner of turning; description signifies the act of describing, or the thing which is to be described; character is that by which the character is known or determined (v.

Character).

What is cast is artificial; what turns is natural: the former is the act of some foreign agent; the latter is the act of the subject itself: hence the cast, as applicable to persons, respects that which they are made by circumstances; the tarn, that which they are by themselves: thus there are religious casts in India, that is, men cast in a certain form of religion; and men of a particular moral cast, that is, such as are cast in a particular mould as respects their thinking and acting; so in like manuer men of a particular turn, that is, as respects their inclinations and tastes; 'My mind is of such a particular cast, that the falling of a shower of rain, or the whistling of the wind at such a time (the night season) is apt to fill my thoughts with something awful and solemn."—Addison. 'There is a very odd turn of thought required for this sort of writing (the fairy way writing, as Dryden calls it); and it is impossible for a poet to succeed in it, who has not a particular cast of fancy.'—Addison. Description is a term less definite than either of the two former; it respects all that may be said of a person, but particularly that which distinguishes a man from others, either in his mode of think-ing or acting, in his habits, in his manners, in his language, or his taste; 'Christian statesmen think that those do not believe Christianity who do not care it should be preached to the poor. But as they know that charity is not confined to any description, they are not deprived of a due and anxious sensation of pity to the distresses of the miserable great."—Burke. The character in this sense is a species of description, namely, the description of the prominent features by which an object is distinguished;

Each drew fair characters, yet none Of those they feign'd excels their own

DENHAM.

The cast is that which marks a man to others; the turn is that which may be known only to a man's self; the description or character is that by which he is described or made known to others.

The cast is that which is fixed and unchangeable the turn is that which may be again turned; and the description or character is that which varies with the

circumstances.

LIST, ROLL, CATALOGUE, REGISTER.

List, in French liste, and German liste, comes from the German leiste a last, signifying in general any long and narrow body; roll signifies in general any thing rolled up, particularly paper with its written contents; catalogue, in Latin catalogus, Greek κατάλογος, from καταλένω to write down, signifies a written enumeration; register comes from the Latin verb regero (v.

To enrol

A collection of objects brought into some kind of order is the common idea included in the signification of these terms. The contents and disposition of a list is the most simple; it consists of little more than names arranged under one another in a long narrow line, as a list of words, a list of plants and flowers, a list of voters, a list of visits, a list of deaths, of births, of marriages; 'After I had read over the list of the persons elected into the Tiers Etat, nothing which they afterward did could appear astonishing.'-BURKE. Roll, which is figuratively put for the contents of a roll, is a list rolled up for convenience, as a long roll of saints; 'It appears from the ancient rolls of parliament, and from the manner of choosing the lords of articles, that the proceedings of that high court must have been in a great measure under their direction.'— Catalogue involves more details than a ROBERTSON. simple list; it specifies not only names, but dates, qualities, and circumstances. A list of books contains their titles; a catalogue of books contains an enumeration of their size, price, number of volumes, edition, &c.; a roll of saints simply specifies their names; a catalogue of saints enters into particulars of their ages, deaths, &cc.;

Ay! in the catalogue ye go for men, As hounds, and greyhounds, mongrels, spaniels, curs, All by the name of dogs.—Shakspeare.

A register contains more than either; for it contains events, with dates, actors, &c. in all matters of publick interest; I am credibly informed by an antiquary who has searched the registers, that the maids of honour, is Queen Elizabeth's time, were allowed three rumps of beef for their breakfast."—Appison.

TO ENROL, ENLIST OR LIST, REGISTER, RECORD.

Enrol, compounded of en or in and roll, signifies to place in a roll, that is, in a roll of paper or a book; enlist, compounded of in and list, signifies to put down in a ist; register is in Latin registrum, from regestum, participle of regero, signifying to put down in writing; record, in Latin recordor, compounded of re back or again, and cor the heart, signifies to bring back to the

heart, or call to mind by a memorandum.

Enrol and enlist respect persons only: register re spects persons and things; record respects things only Enrol is generally applied to the act of inserting names in an orderly manner into any book; 'Anciently no man was suffered to abide in England above forty days, unless he were enrolled in some tithing or decennary. Enlist is a species of enrolling ap--BLACKSTONE. plicable only to the military, or persons intended for military purposes; 'The lords would, by listing their own servants, persuade the gentlemen of the town to do the like.'—CLARENDON. The enrolment is an act of authority; the enlisting is the voluntary act of an individual. Among the Romans it was the office of the censor to enrol the names of all the citizens in order to ascertain their number, and estimate their property In modern times soldiers are mostly raised by means of enlisting.

In the moral application of the terms, to enrol is to assign a certain place or rank: to culist is to put one's self under a leader, or attach one's self to a party. Hercules was envolled among the gods; 'We find our selves enrolled in this heavenly family as servants and as sons.'—SPRAT. The common people are always ready to enlist on the side of anarchy and rebellion; 'The time never was when I would have enlisted under the banners of any faction, though I might have carried a pair of colours, if I had not spurned them, in either legion.'—SIR WM. Jones.

To enrol and register both imply writing down in a book; but the former is a less formal act than the latter The insertion of the bare name or designation in a cer The insertion of the bare name of designation in a certain order is enough to constitute an enrolment. Registering comprehends the birth, family, and other collateral circumstances of the individual. The object of registering likewise differs from that of curvilling What is registered serves for future purposes and is of permanent utility to society in general; but what is en rolled often serves only a particular or temporary end Thus in numbering the people it is necessary simply to enrol their names; but when in addition to this it was necessary, as among the Romans, to ascertain their rank in the state, every thing connected with their property, their family, and their connexions required to be registered. So in like manner in more modern times, it has been found necessary for the good government of the state to register the births, marriages, and deaths of every citizen. It is manifest, therefore, that what is registered, as far as respects persons, may be said to be enrolled; but what is enrolled is not always registered; 'I hope you take care to keep an exact journal, and to register all occurrences and observations, for your friends here expect such a book of travels as has not often been seen.'-Johnson.

Register, in regard to record, has a no less obvious distinction: the former is used for domestick and rivit distinction: the former is used for nonestick and covid transactions, the latter for publick and political events. What is registered serves for the daily purposes of the community collectively and individually; what is recorded is treasured up in a special manner for particular reference and remembrance at a distant period. The number or names of streets, houses, carriages, and the like, are registered in different offices; the deeds and documents which regard grants, charters, privileges, and the like, either of individuals or particular towns, and the like, either of individuals of particular lowers, are recorded in the archives of nations. To record is, therefore, a formal species of registering: we register when we record, but we do not always record when we register; 'The medals of the Romans were their current money; when an action deserved to be recorded

thousand pieces of money, like our shillings or half-

pence.'-Applison.

In an extended and figurative application things may be said to be registered in the memory, or events re-corded in history. We have a right to believe that the actions of good men are registered in heaven, and that their names are enrolled among the saints and angels; the particular sayings and actions of princes are re-corded in history, and handed down to the latest pos-

RECORD, REGISTER, ARCHIVE.

Record is taken for the thing recorded; register, Recora is taken for the thing recordea; register, either for the thing registered, or the place in which it is registered; archive, mostly for the place, and some times for the thing. The records are either historical details, or short notices; the registers are but short notices of particular and local circumstances; the archives are always connected with the state. Fivey chives are always connected with the state. Every place of antiquity has its records of the different cir cumstances which have been connected with its rise and progress, and the various changes which it has experienced. In publick registers we find accounts of families, and of their various connexions and fluctuations; in publick archives we find all legal deeds and instruments, which involve the interests of the nation, both in its internal and external economy.

TO CALL, BID, SUMMON, INVITE.

Call, in its abstract and original sense, signifies simply to give an expression of the voice, in which it agrees with the German schall, Swedish skalla a sound, Greek καλέω to call, Hebrew קול the voice; bid and invite

have the same derivation as explained in the preceding article; summon, in French sommer, changed from summoner, Latin submoneo, signifies to give private

The idea of signifying one's wish to another to do

any thing is included in all these terms

To call is not confined to any particular sound; we may call by simply raising the voice: to invite is not even confined to sounds; we may invite by looks, or signs, or even by writing: to bid and summon require the express use of words.

The actions of calling and inviting are common to animals as well as men: the sheep call their young when they bleat, and the oxen their companions when they low; cats and other females among the brutes invite their young to come out from their bed when it is proper for them to begin to walk; to bid and summon are altogether confined to human heings

Call and bid are direct addresses: to invite and summon may pass through the medium of a second person. I call or bid the person whom I wish to come, but I

send him a summons or invitation.

Calling of itself expresses no more than the simple Cating of itself expresses no more than the simple desire; but according to circumstances if may be made to express a command or entreaty. When equals call each other, or inferiours call their superiours, it amounts simply to a wish; 'Ladronius, that famous captain, was called up and told by his servants that the general was fled.'—KNOVLES. When the dam calls her young it amounts to supplicating entreaty; but when a father calls his son, or a master his servant, it is equivalent to a command: 'Why came not the slave back when I called him?"—Shakspeare. To bid expresses either a command or an entreaty: when superflours bid it is a positive command;

Saint Withold footed thrice the wold:

He met the night-mare and her ninefold.

Bid her alight and her troth plight.—SHAKSPEARE. When equals bid it is an act of civility, particularly in

the phrases to bid welcome, to bid God speed, to bid farewell, and the like, which, though they may be used by superiours, are nevertheless terms of kindness and

I am bid forth to supper. Jessica; There are my keys .- SHAKSPEARE.

To summon is always imperative; to invite always in the spirit of kindness and courtesy. Persons in all stations of life have occasion to call each other; but it is an action most befitting the superiour; to bid and

in coin, it was stamped perhaps upon a hundred | invite are alike the actions of superiours and equals.

Calling is mostly for the purpose of drawing the object to or from a person or another object, whence the phrases to call up, or to call off, &c. Bidding, as a command, may be employed for what we wish to be done; but bidding in the sense of an invitation is employed for drawing the object to our place of residence. Inviting is employed for either purpose. Summoning is an act of authority, by which a person is obliged to make his appearance at a given place.

These terms preserve the same distinction in their

extended and figurative acceptation;

In a deep vale, or near some ruin'd wall, He would the ghosts of slaughter'd soldiers call. DRYDEN.

Be not amazed, call all your senses to you, defend my reputation, or bid farewell to your good life for ever.'—Shakspeare. 'The soul makes use of her memory to call to mind what she is to treat of .'-Duppa.

The star that bids the shepherd fold,

Now the top of heaven doth hold .- MILTON.

This minute may be mine, the next another's;

But still all mortals ought to wait the summons. SMITH.

Still follow where auspicious fates invite, Caress the happy, and the wretched slight .- LEWIS.

TO CITE, SUMMON.

Cite, v. To cite, quote; summon, in French sommer. Latin summoneo or submoneo, compounded of sub and moneo, signifies to give a private intimation.

The idea of calling a person authoritatively to appear is common to these terms. Cite is used in a general sense, summon in a particular and technical sense: a person may be cited to appear before his superiour; he is summoned to appear before a court; the station of the individual gives authority to the act of citing; the law itself gives authority to that of summoning.

When cite is used in a legal sense, it is mostly em-

ployed for witnesses, and summon for every occasion: a person is cited to give evidence, he is summoned to answer a charge. Cite is seldomer used in the legal sense than in that of calling by name, in which general acceptation it is employed with regard to authors, as specified in the succeeding article: it may, however, be sometimes used in a general sense;

E'en social friendship duns his ear,

And cites him to the publick sphere .- SHENSTONE.

The legal is the ordinary sense of summon; it may, however, be extended in its application to any call for which there may be occasion; as when we speak of the summons which is given to attend the death-bed of a friend, or, figuratively, death is said to summon mortals from this world;

'he sly enchantress summon'd all her train, Alluring Venus, queen of vagrant love. The boon companion Bacchus, loud and vain, And tricking Hermes, god of fraudful gain.—West

TO CITE, QUOTE.

Cite and quote are both derived from the same Latin verb cito to move, and the Hebrew nio to stir up, signifying to put in action.

To cite is employed for persons or things; to quote for things only: authors are cited; passages from their works are quoted; we cite only by authority; we quote for general purposes of convenience. Historians ought to cite their authority in order to strengthen their evidence and inspire confidence; 'The great work of which Justinian has the credit, consists of texts collected from law books of approved authority; and those texts are adjusted according to a scientifical analysis; the names of the original authors and the titles of their several books being constantly cited.'—Sir WM. JONES. Controversialists must quote the objectionable passages in those works which they wish to confute: it is prudent to cite no one whose authority is questionable; it is superfluous to quote any thing that can be easily perused in the original; 'Let us consider what is truly glorious according to the author I have to-day quoted in the front of my paper.'—STEELE.

NOISE, CRY, OUTCRY, CLAMOUR.

Noise is any loud sound; cry, outcry, and clamour are particular kinds of noises, differing either in the cause or the nature of the sounds. A noise proceeds either from animate or inanimate objects; the cry pro-The report of a ceeds only from animate objects. The report of a cannon, or the loud sounds occasioned by a high wind, are noises, but not cries;

Nor was his ear less peal'd With noises loud and ruinous .- MILTON.

Cries issue from birds, beasts, and men;

From either host, the mingled shouts and cries Of Trojans and Rutilians rend the skies .- DRYDEN.

A noise is produced often by accident; a cry is always occasioned by some particular circumstance: when many horses and carriages are going together, they make a great noise; hunger and pain cause cries to proceed both from animals and human beings.

Noise, when compared with cry, is sometimes only an audible sound; the cry is a very loud noise; whatever disturbs silence, as the falling of a pin in a perfectly still assembly, is denominated a noise; but a cry is that which may often drown other noises, as the cries of people selling things about the streets. A cry is in general a regular sound, but outery and clamour are irregular sounds; the former may proceed from one or many, the latter from many in conjunction. A cry after a thief becomes an outery when set up by many at a time; it becomes a clamour, if accompanied with shouting, bawling, and noises of a mixed and tumultuous nature:

And now great deeds Had been achiev'd, whereof all hell had rung, Had not the snaky sorceres that sat
Fast by hell gate, and kept the fatal key,
Ris'n, and with hideous outcry rush'd between.

Their darts with clamour at a distance drive And only keep the languish'd war alive .- DRYDEN.

These terms may all be taken in an improper as well as a proper sense. Whatever is obtruded upon the publick notice so as to become the universal subject of conversation and writing, is said to make a noise; in this manner a new and good performer at the theatre makes a noise on his first appearance; 'What noise have we had about transplantation of diseases, and transfusion of blood.'—BAKER. 'Socrates lived in Athens during the great plague, which has made so much noise through all ages, and never caught the infection. —Appison. Moise and clamour may be for or against an object; cry and outcry are always against the object, varying in the degree and manner in which they display themselves: the cry is less than the outcry, and this is less than the clamour. When the publick voice is raised in an audible manner against any particular matter, it is a cry; if it be mingled with intemperate language it is an outcry; if it be vehement, and exceedingly noisy, it is a clamour. Partisans raise a cry in order to form a body in their favour;

Amazement seizes all; the general cry Proclaims Laocoon justly doom'd to die.—DRYDEN.

The discontented are ever ready to set up an outcry against men in power; 'These outcries the magistrates there shun, since they are hearkened unto here.'— Spenser (on Ireland). A clamour for peace in the time of war is easily raised by those who wish to thwart the government; 'The people grew then exorbitant in their clamours for justice.'—CLARENDON.

TO CRY, WEEP.

Cry comes from the Greek $\kappa \rho \alpha \zeta \hat{\epsilon} \omega$, and the Hebrew to cry or call: weep, in Low German wapen, is a variation of whine, in German weinen, which is an An outward indication of pain is exonomatorela. pressed by both these terms, but the former comprehends an audible expression accompanied or not with tears; the latter simply indicates the shedding of tears.

Crying arises from an impatience in suffering corporeal pains; children and weak people commonly cry; weeping is occasioned by mental grief; the wisest and best of men will not disdain sometimes to weep.

Crying is as selfish as it is weak; it serves to relieve

the pain of the individual to the annoyance of the

The babe clung crying to his nurse's breast, Scared at the dazzling helm and nodding crest. POPP

Weeping, when called forth by others' sorrows, is an infirmity which no man would wish to be without; as an expression of generous sympathy it affords essential relief to the sufferer:

Thy Hector, wrapt in even using sicer,
Shall neither hear thee sigh, nor see thee weep.
POPE.

- TO CRY, SCREAM, SHRIEK.

Cry, v. To cry, weep; scream and shriek are variations of cry

To cry indicates the utterance of an articulate or an inarticulate sound; scream is a species of crying in the first sense of the word; shriek is a species of crying in its latter sense.

Crying is an ordinary mode of loud utterance resorted to on common occasions; one cries in order to be heard; screaming is an intemperate mode of crying, resorted to from an impatient desire to be heard, or from a vehemence of feeling. People scream to deaf people from the mistaken idea of making themselves heard; whereas a distinct articulation will always be more efficacious. It is frequently necessary to cry when we cannot render ourselves audible by any other means; but it is never necessary or proper to scream. Shriek may be compared with cry and scream, as expressions of pain; in this case to shrick is more than to cry, and less than to scream. They both signify to cry with a violent effort. We may cry from the slight est pain or inconvenience; but one shrieks or screams only on occasions of great agony, either corporeal or mental. A child cries when it has hurt its finger; shrieks in the moment of terrour at the sight of a frightful object; or screams until some one comes to its assistance.

To cry is an action peculiar to no age or sex; to scream and to skrick are the common actions of women and children. Men cry, and children scream, for assistance; excess of pain will sometimes compel a man to cry, out; a violent alarm commonly makes females

Like a thin smoke he sees the spirit fly, And hears a feeble, lamentable cry .- POPE.

Rapacious at the mother's throat they fly, And tear the screaming infant from her breast, THOMSON.

The house is fill'd with loud laments and cries, And shrieks of women rend the vaulted throne.

TO CRY, EXCLAIM, CALL.

All these terms express a loud mode of speaking, which is all that is implied in the sense of the word cry, while in that of the two latter are comprehended accessory ideas.

To exclaim, from the Latin exclamo or ex and clamo. to cry out or aloud, signifies to cry with an effort : call

es from the Greek καλέω.

We cry from the simple desire of being heard at a distance: we exclaim from a sudden emotion or agita tion of mind. As a cry bespeaks distress and trouble, an exclamation bespeaks surprise, grief, or joy. We cry commonly in a large assembly or an open space, but we may exclaim in conversation with an individual.

To cry is louder and more urgent than to call. no cry is louder and more urgent than to call. A man who is in danger of being drowned cries for help, he who wants to raise a load calls for assistance: a cry is a general or indirect address; a call is a particular and immediate address. We cry to all or any who may be within hearing; we call to an individual by warms with a direct reference to him. name with a direct reference to him;

There while you groan beneath the lead of life, They cry, behold the mighty Hector's wife!—Popp

The dreadful day No pause of words admits, no dull delay; Fierce Discord storms, Apollo loud exclaims, Fame calls, Marsthunders, and the field 's in flames

Pork

LOUD, NOISY, HIGHSOUNDING, CLAMOROUS.

Loud is doubtless connected, through the medium of the German Laut a sound, and Lauschen to listen, with the Greek khów to hear, because sounds are the object of hearing. norsy, having a norse, like noisome and normons, comes from the Latin noce to hunt; signifying in general offensive, that is, to the sense of hearing, of smelling, and the like: highsounding signifies the same as pitched upon an elevated key, so as to make a great noise, to be heard at a distance: clamorous, from the Latin clamo to ery, signifies crying with a loud voice.

Loud is here the generick term, since it signifies a great sound, which is the idea common to them all. As an epithet for persons, loud is mostly taken in an indifferent sense; all the others are taken for being loud beyond measure: noisy is to be intemperately loud; highsounding is only to be loud from the bigness of one's words; clamorous is to be disagreeably and painfully loud. We must speak loudly to a deaf person in order to make ourselves heard;

The clowns, a boist'rous, rude, ungovern'd crew, With furious haste to the loud summons flew.

Children will be noisy at all times if not kept under control:

O leave the noisy town .-- DRYDEN,

Flatterers are always highsounding in their eulogiums of those by whom they expect to be served; 'I am touched with sorrow at the conduct of some few men, who have lent the authority of their highsounding names to the designs of men with whom they could not be acquainted?—BURKE. Children will be elamorous for what they want, if they expect to get it by dint of noise; they will be turbulent in case of refusal, if not under proper discipline;

Clam'rous around the royal hawk they fly.

DRYDEN.

In the improper application, loud is taken in as bad a sense as the rest: the loudest praises are the least to be regarded; the appliance of a mob is always noisy; highsounding titles serve only to excite contempt where there is not some corresponding sense: it is the business of an opposition party to be clamorous, which serves the purpose of exciting turbulence among the ignorant.

TO NOMINATE, NAME.

Nominate comes immediately from the Latin nominatus, participle of nomino: name comes from the Teutonick, &c. name, and both from the Latin nomen, &c. (v. To name).

To nominate and to name are both to mention by name; but the former is to mention for a specifick purpose; the latter is to mention for general purposes; persons only are nominated; things as well as persons are named; one nominates a person in order to propose him, or appoint him, to an office; 'Elizabeth nominated her commissioners to hear both parties.'—Ro-DERTSON. One names a person casually, in the course of conversation, or one names him in order to make some inquiry respecting him;

Then Calchas (by Ulysses first inspir'd)
Was urg'd to name whom th' angry gods requir'd.

Denham.

To be nominated is a publick act; to be named is generally private: one is nominated before an assembly; one is named in any place: to be nominated is always an honour; to be named is either honourable, or the contrary, according to the circumstances under which it is mentioned: a person is nominated as member of Parliament; he is named in terms of respect or otherwise whenever he is spoken of.

TO NAME, CALL.

Mame is properly to pronounce some word, from the Latin nomen, Greek δνομα, Hebrew און; call, v. To call.

Both these words imply the direction of the sound to an object; but naming is confined to the use of some distinct and significant sound; calling is said of any

sound whatever: we may call without naming, but we cannot name without cilling. A person is named by his name, whether proper, patronymick, or whatever is usual; he is called according to the characteristicks by which he is distinguished. The emperour Tiberius was named Tiberius; he was called a monster. William the First of England is named William; he is called the Conqueror. Helen went three times round the wooden horse in order to discover the snare, and, with the hope of taking the Greeks by surprise, called their principal captains, naming them by their names, and counterfeiting the voices of their wives. Many ancient nations in naming any one called him the son of some one, as Richardson the son of Richard, and Robertson the son of Robert;

Some haughty Greek who lives thy tears to see, Imbitters all thy woes by naming me.—Pope.

I lay the deep foundations of a wall,

And Enos, nam'd from me, the city call.—DRYDEN.

NAME, APPELLATION, TITLE, DENOMINATION.

Name, v. To name; appellation, in French appellation, Latin appellatio, from appello to call, signifies that by which a person or thing is called; title, in French titre, Latin titulus, from the Greek two to honour, signifies that appellation which is assigned to any one for the purpose of honour; denomination signifies that which denominates or distinguishes.

Name is a generick term, the rest are specifick. Whatever word is employed to distinguish one thing from another is a name; therefore an appellation and a title is a name, but not vice versá;

Then on your name shall wretched mortals call, And offer'd victims at your altars fall.—DRYDEN.

A name is either common or proper; an appellation is generally a common name given for some specifick purpose as characteristick. Several kings of France had the names of Charles, Louis, Philip, but one was distinguished with the appellation of Stammerer, another by that of the Simple, and a third by that of the Hardy, arising from particular characters or circumstances; 'The names derived from the profession of the ministry in the language of the present age, are made but the appellatives of scorn.'—Sourt. A title is a species of appellation, not drawn from any thing personal, but conferred as a ground of political distinction. An appellation may be often a term of reproach; but a title is always a mark of honour. An appellation is given to all objects, animate or inanimate; a title is given mostly to persons, sometimes to things. A particular house may have the appellation of 'the Cottage,' or 'the Hall;' as a particular person may have the title of Duke, Lord, or Marquis; 'We generally find in titles an intimation of some particular merit that should recommend men to the high stations which they possess.'—Appason.

Denomination is to particular bodies, what appellation is to an individual; namely, a term of distinction, drawn from their peculiar character and circumstances. The Christian world is split into a number of different bodies or communities, under the denominations of Catholicks, Protestants, Calvinists, Presbyterians, &c. which have their origin in the peculiar form of faith and discipline adopted by these bodies; 'It has cost me much care and thought to marshal and fix the people under their proper denominations.'—Addison

TO NAME, DENOMINATE, STYLE, ENTITLE, DESIGNATE, CHARACTERIZE.

To name (v. To name, call) signifies simply to give a name to, or to address or specify by the given name; 'I could name some of our acquaintance who have been obliged to travel as far as Alexandria in pursuit of money.'—Melmoth (Letters of Cicero). To denominate is to give a specifick name upon some specifick ground, or to distinguish by the name; 'A fable in tragick or epick poetry is denominated simple when the events it contains follow each in an unbroken tenour.'—Warton. To style, from the noun style or manner (v. Diction, style), signifies to address by a specifick name;

Happy those times, When lords were styled fathers of families. SHAKSPEARE.

To entitle is to give a specifick or appropriate name; Besides the Scripture, the books which they call ecclesiastical were thought not unworthy to be brought into publick audience, and with that name they entitled the books which we term Apocryphal.'-Hooker. Adam named every thing; we denominate the man who drinks excessively a drunkard; subjects style their monarch 'His Majesty;' books are entitled according

to the judgement of the author.

To name, denominate, style, and entitle are the acts conscious agents only. To designate, signifying to of conscious agents only. To designate, signifying to mark out, and characterize, signifying to form a characteristick, are said only of things, and agree with the former only inasmuch as words may either designate or characterize; thus the word capacity is said to designate the power of holding; and 'finesse' terizes the people by whom it was adopted; 'This is a plain designation of the Duke of Marlborough; one kind of stuff used to fatten land is called marle, and every one knows that borough is the name of town. -Swift. 'There are faces not only individual, but gentilitious and national. European, Asiatick, Chinese, African, and Grecian faces are characterized.'-AR-BUTHNOT.

NAME, REPUTATION, REPUTE, CREDIT.

Name is here taken in the improper sense for a name acquired in publick by any peculiarity or quality in an object; reputation and repute, from reputo or re and puto to think back, or in reference to some immediate object, signifies the state of being thought of by the publick, or held in publick estimation; credit (v. Credit) signifies the state of being believed or trusted in general

Name implies something more specifick than reputation; and reputation something more substantial than name; a name may be acquired by some casualty or by some quality that has more show than worth; reputation is acquired only by time, and built only on merit: a name may be arbitrarily given, simply by way of distinction; reputation is not given, but acquired, or follows as a consequence of one's honourable exertions. A physician sometimes gets a name by a single instance of professional skill, which by a combination of favourable circumstances he may convert to his own advantage in forming an extensive practice; but unless he have a commensurate degree of talent, this name will never ripen into a solid reputation;

Who fears not to do ill, yet fears the name, And, free from conscience, is a slave to fame. DENHAM.

'Splendour of reputation is not to be counted among the necessaries of life.'—Johnson.

Inanimate objects get a name, but reputation is ap-

plied only to persons or that which is personal. Fashion is liberal in giving a name to certain shops, certain streets, certain commodities, as well as to certain tradespeople, and the like. Universities, academies, and publick institutions, acquire a reputation for their learning, their skill, their encouragement and promotion of arts or sciences: name and reputation are of a more extended nature than repute and credit. gers and distant countries hear of the name and the reputation of any thing; but only neighbours and those who have the means of personal observation can take who have the means of personal observation can take a part in its repute and credit. It is possible, therefore, to have a name and reputation without having repute and credit, and vice versa, for the objects which constitute the former are sometimes different from those which produce the latter. A manufacturer has a name for the excellence of a particular article of his stitute the own manufacture; a book has a name among willings and pretenders to literature: a good writer, however, seeks to establish his reputation for genius, learning, industry, or some praiseworthy characteristick: a preacher is in high repute among those who attend him: a master gains great credit from the good performances of his scholars; 'Mutton has likewise been in great repute among our valiant countrymen.' -- Addison.

Would you true happiness attain, Let honesty your passions rein,
So live in credit and esteem,
And the good name you lost, redeem —GAY. Name and repute are taken either in a good or had sense; reputation and credit are taken in the good sense only: a person or thing may get a good or an ill name; a person or thing may be in good or ill repute; reputation may rise to different degrees of height, or it may sink again to nothing, but it never sinks into that which is bad; credit may likewise be high or low, but when it becomes bad it is discredit. Families yet an ill name for their meanness; houses of entertainment get a good name for their accommodation; houses fall into bad repute when said to be haunted; a landlord comes into high repute among his tenants, if he be considerate and indulgent towards them.

CHARACTER, REPUTATION.

From the natural sense of a stamp or mark (v. Charater, letter), this word is figuratively employed for the moral mark which distinguishes one man from an-other; reputation, from the French reputer, Latin reputo to think, signifies what is thought of a person: character lies in the man; it is the mark of what he is; it shows itself on all occasions: reputation depends upon others; it is what they think of him.

A character is given particularly: a reputation is formed generally. Individuals give a character of another from personal knowledge: publick opinion constitute the reputation. Character has always some foundation; it is a positive description of something: reputation has more of conjecture in it; its source is

It is possible for a man to have a fair reputation who has not in reality a good character; although men of really good character are not likely to have a bad reputation; 'Let a man think what multitudes of those among whom he dwells are totally ignorant of his name and character; how many imagine themselves too much occupied with their own wants and pursuits to pay him the least attention; and where his reputation is in any degree spread, how often it has been attacked, and how many rivals are daily rising to abate it.'-BLAIR.

FAME, REPUTATION, RENOWN.

Fame, from the Greek \$\phi_{\eta\mu}\$ to say, is the most noisy and uncertain; it rests apon report: reputation (v. Character, reputation) is silent and solid; it lies more in the thoughts, and is derived from observation: renote thoughts, and is derived from observation: 7eroom, in French renommie, from nom a name, signifies
the reverberation of a name; it is as loud as fame, but
more substantial and better founded; hence we say that
a person's fame has gone abroad; his reputation is
established; and he has got renovn.

Fame may be applied to any object, good, bad, or

Europe with Afric in his fame shall join,

But neither shore his conquests shall confine.

Reputation is applied only to real eminence in some department; 'Pope doubtless approached Addison, when the reputation of their wit first brought them together, with the respect due to a man whose abilities were acknowledged.'—Johnson. Renown is employed only for extraordinary men and brilliant exploits; Well constituted governments have always made the profession of a physician both honourable and advantageous. Homer's Machaon and Virgil's Iapis were men of renown, heroes in war.'—JOHNSON. The fume of a quack may be spread among the ignorant multi-tude by means of a lucky cure, or the fume of an author may be spread by means of a popular work; 'The artist finds greater returns in profit, as the author in fame.'—Addison. The reputation of a physician rests upon his tried skill and known experience; the renown of a general is proportioned to the magnitude of his achievements:

How doth it please and fill the memory, With deeds of brave renown, while on each hand Historick urns and breathing statues rise, And speaking busts .- DYKR.

FAME, REPORT, RUMOUR, HEARSAY.

Fame (v. Fame) has a reference to the thing which gives birth to it; it goes about of itself without any

apparent instrumentality. The report, from re and porto, to carry back, or away from an object, has always a reference to the reporter. Rumour, in Latin rumoe, from ruo to rush or to flow, has a reference to the flying nature of words that are carried; it is therefore properly a flying report. Hearsay refers to the receiver of that which is said; it is limited therefore to a small number of speakers or reporters. The fame serves to form or establish a character either of a person or a thing; it will be good or bad according to cir-cumstances; the fame of our Saviour's miracles went a broad through the land;

Space may produce new worlds, whereof so rife There went a fame in heav'n, that he ere long Intended to create.-MILTON.

The report serves to communicate information of events; it may be more or less correct according to the veracity or authenticity of the reporter; reports of victories mostly precede the official confirmation; 'What liberties any man may take in imputing words to me which I never spoke, and what credit Cæsar may give to such reports, these are points for which it is by no means in my power to be answerable.'-Melmoth (Letters of Cicero). The rumour serves the purposes of fiction; it is more or less vague, according to the temper of the times and the nature of the events; every battle gives rise to a thousand rumours

For which of you will stop The vent of hearing, when loud rumour Speaks?—Shakspeare.

The hearsay serves for information or instruction, and s seldom so incorrect as it is familiar; 'What influence can a mother have over a daughter, from whose example the daughter can only have hearsay benefits?'-RICHARDSON,

FAMOUS, CELEBRATED, RENOWNED, ILLUSTRIOUS.

Famous signifies literally having fame or being the cause of fame; it is applicable to that which causes a noise or sensation; to that which is talked of, written upon, discussed, and thought of; to that which is reported of far and near; to that which is circulated among all ranks and orders of men; celebrated signifies literally kept in the memory by a celebration or memorial, and is applicable to that which is praised and honoured with solemnity: renowned signifies literally possessed of a name, and is applicable to whatever extends the name, or causes the name to be often repeated: illustrious signifies literally what has or gives a lustre; it is applicable to whatever confers dignity.

Famous is a term of indefinite import; it conveys of itself frequently neither honour nor dishonour, since it is employed indifferently as an epithet for things praiseworthy or otherwise; it is the only one of these terms which may be used in a bad sense. rise in a gradually good sense; 'I thought it an agreeable change to have my thoughts diverted from the greatest among the dead and fabulous heroes, to the most famous among the real and living."—Addison.

* The celebrated is founded upon merit and the dis-

play of talent in the arts and sciences; it gains the subject respect; 'While I was in this learned body, I applied myself with so much diligence to my studies, that there are very few celebrated books either in the learned or modern tongues which I am not acquainted with.'-Addison. The renowned is founded upon the possession of rare or extraordinary qualities, upon successful exertions and an accordance with publick opinion; it brings great honour or glory to the subject;

Castor and Pollux first in martial force, one bold on foot, and one renown'd for horse.

The iliustrious is founded upon those solid qualities which not only render one known but distinguished; it ensures regard and veneration; 'The reliefs of the envious man are those little blemishes that discover themselves in an illustrious character.'—Addison.

A person may be famous for his eccentricities; celebrated as an artist, a writer, or a player; renowned

* Vide Abbe Girard; 'Fameux, illustre, celebre, senommé."

as a warriour or a statesman; illustrious as a prince,

as statesman, or a senator.

The maid of Orleans, who was decried by the English, and idolized by the French, is equally famous in both nations. There are celebrated authors whom to censure even in that which is censurable, would en-There are celebrated authors whom to danger one's reputation. The renowned becoes of antiquity have, by the perusal of their exploits, given birth to a race of modern heroes not inferiour to themselves. Princes may shine in their lifetime, but they cannot render themselves illustrious to posterity except by the monuments of goodness and wisdom which they leave after them.

NOTED, NOTORIOUS.

Noted (v. Distinguished) may be employed either in a good or a bad sense; notorious is never used but in a bad sense: men may be noted for their talents, or their eccentricities; they are notorious only for their vices: noted characters excite many and diverse remarks from their friends and their enemies; notorious characters are universally shunned;

> An engineer of noted skill, Engag'd to stop the growing ill.-GAY.

'What principles of ordinary prudence can warrant a man to trust a notorious cheat?'—South.

DISTINGUISHED, CONSPICUOUS, NOTED, EMINENT, ILLUSTRIOUS.

Distinguished signifies having a mark of distinction by which a thing is to be distinguished; conspicuous, in Latin conspicuus, from conspicio, signifies easily to be seen; noted, from notus known, signifies well known; eminent, in Latin eminens, from emineo or e and maneo, signifies remaining or standing out above the rest; illustrious, in Latin illustris, from lustro to shine, signifies shone upon.

The idea of an object having something attached to it to excite notice is common to all these terms.

Distinguished in its general sense expresses little more than this idea; the rest are but modes of the distinguished. A thing is distinguished in proportion as it is distinct or separate from others; it is conspict. ous in proportion as it is easily seen; it is noted in proportion as it is widely known. In this sense a rank is distinguished; a situation is conspicuous; a place is noted. Persons are distinguished by external marks or by characteristick qualities; persons or things are con-spicuous mostly from some external mark; persons or things are noted mostly by collateral circumstances.

A man may be distinguished by his decorations, or he may be distinguished by his manly air, or by his abilities; 'It has been observed by some writers that man is more distinguished from the animal world by devotion than by reason.'—Appison. A person is con-spicuous by the gaudiness of his dress; a house is conspicuous that stands on a hill;

Before the gate stood Pyrrhus, threat'ning loud, With glitt'ring arms, conspicuous in the crowd.

DRYDEN.

A person is noted for having performed a wonderful cure; a place is noted for its fine waters; 'Upon my calling in lately at one of the most noted Temple coffeebouses, I found the whole room, which was full of young students, divided into several parties, each of which was deeply engaged in some controversy.'— BUDGELL.

We may be distinguished for things, good, bad, or indifferent: we may be conspicuous for our singularities or that which only attracts vulgar notice: we may be noted for that which is bad, and mostly for that which is the subject of vulgar discourse: we can be eminent and illustrious only for that which is really good and praiseworthy; the former applies however mostly to those things which set a man high in the circle of his acquaintance; the latter to that which makes him shine before the world. A man of distinguished talent will be apt to excite envy if he he not also distinguished for his private virtue: affectation is never better pleased than when it can place itself in such a conspicuous situation as to draw all eyes upon itself: lovers of fame are sometimes contented to ren-der themselves noted for their vices or absurdaties;

nothing is more gratifying to a man than to render himself *eminent* for his professional skill; 'Of Prior, eminent as he was shorth by his abilities and station, very few memorials have been left by his contemporaries.'— Johnson. It is the lot of but few to be illustrious, and those few are very seldom to be envied;

Hail, sweet Saturnian soil! of fruitful grain Great parent, greater of illustrious men.

DRYDEN

In an extended and moral application, these terms may be employed to heighten the character of an object; a favour may be said to be distinguished, piety comment, and a name illustrious; 'Amid the agitations of popular government, occasions will sometimes be afforded for eminent abilities to break forth with peculiar lustre. But while publick agitations allow a few individuals to be uncommonly distinguished, the general condition of the publick remains calamitous and wretched.'—BLAIR.

Next add our cities of illustrious name,
Their costly labour and stupendous frame
DRYDEN.

SIGNAL, MEMORABLE.

Signal signifies serving as a sign; memorable signifies worthy to be remembered.

They both express the idea of extraordinary, or being distinguished from ordinary, or being distinguished from every thing else: whatever is signal deserves to be stamped on the mind, and to serve as a sign of some property or characteristick; whatever is memorable impresses upon the memory, and refuses to be forgotten: the former applies to the moral character; the latter to events and times: the Scriptures furnish us with many signal instances of God's vengeance against impenitent sinners, as also of his favour towards those who obey his will; 'We find, in the Acts of the Apostles, not only no opposition to Christianity from the Pharisees, but several signal occasions in which they assisted its first teachers.'—Wotton. The Reformation is a memorable event in the annals of ecclesiastical history; 'That such deliverances are actually afforded, those three memorable examples of Abimelech, Esau, and Balaam sufficiently demonstrate.'—South.

TO SIGNALIZE, DISTINGUISH.

To signalize, or make one's self a sign of any thing, is a much stronger term than simply to distinguish; it is in the power of many to do the latter, but few only have the power of effecting the former; the English have always signalized themselves for their unconquerable valour in battle; 'The knight of La Mancha gravely recounts to his companion the adventure by which he is to signalize himself." Johnson. There is no nation that has not distinguished itself, at some period or another, in war;

The valued file

Distinguishes the swift, the slow, the subtle.

SHAKSPEARE.

OF FASHION, OF QUALITY, OF DISTINCTION.

These epithets are employed promisciously in colloquial discourse; but not with strict propriety; by men of fashion are understood such men as live in the fashionable world, and keep the best company; 'The free manner in which people of fashion are discoursed on at such meetings (of tradespeople), is but a just reproach of their failures in this kind (in payment).'—STEELE. By men of quality are understood men of rank or title; 'The single dress of a lady of quality is often the product of a hundred climes.'—Additionable superiority, whether by wealth, office, or preeminence in society; 'I behooves men of distinction, with their power and example, to preside over the publick diversions in such a manner as to check any thing that tends to the cocruption of manners."—STEELE.

* Vide Trusler: "Of fashion, of quality, of distraction."

Gentry and merchants, though not men of quality, may, by their mode of living, be men of fashion; and by the office they hold in the state, they may likewise be men of distinction.

PROMINENT, CONSPICUOUS.

Prominent signifies hanging over; conspicuous 'n Distinguished) signifies easy to be beled: the former is, therefore, to the latter, in some measure, as the species to the genus: what is prominent is, in general, on that very account conspicuous; but many things may be conspicuous besides those which are prominent. The terms prominent and conspicuous have, however an application suited to their peculiar meaning: nothing is prominent but what projects beyond a certain line every thing is conspicuous which may be seen by many the nose on a man's face is a prominent feature, owing to its projecting situation; and it is sometimes conspicuous, according to the position of the person: a figure in a painting is said to be prominent, if it appears to stand forward or before the others; but it is not properly conspicuous, unless there be something in it which attracts the general notice, and distinguishes it from all other things: on the contrary, it is conspicuous, but not expressly prominent, when the cofours are vivid; 'Lady Macbeth's walking in her sleep is an incident so full of tragick horrour, that it stands out as a prominent feature in the most sublime drama in the world.'—Cumberland. 'That innocent mirth which had been so conspicuous in Sir Thomas More's life, did not forsake him to the last.'—Addition.

BRIGHTNESS, LUSTRE, SPLENDOUR, BRILLIANCY.

Brightness, from the English bright, Saxon breorht, probably comes, like the German pracht splendour, from the Hebrew ברק to shine or glitter; lustre, in

French lustre, Latin lustrum a purgation or cleansing, that is, to make clean or pure; splendour, in French splendeur, Latin splendor, from splendeo to shine, comes either from the Greek $\sigma\pi^{\lambda}\lambda\rho\delta\delta\rho$ embers, or $\sigma\pi\nu\theta\delta\rho$ a spark; brilliancy, from brilliant and briller to shine, comes from the German brille spectacles, and the middle Latin beryllus a crystal.

Brightness is the generick, the rest are specifick terms: there cannot be lustre, splendour, and bril liancy, without brightness; but there may he brightness where these do not exist. These terms rise in sense; lustre rises on brightness, splendour on lustre, and brilliance on a principle.

and brilliancy on splendour.

Brightness and lustre are applied properly to na tural lights; splendour and brilliancy have been more commonly applied to that which is artificial: there is always more or less brightness in the sun or moon; there is an occasional lustre in all the heavenly bodies when they shine in their unclouded brightness; there is splendour in the eruptions of flame from a volcano or an immense conflagration; there is brilliancy in a collection of diamonds. There may be both splendour and brilliancy in an illumination: splendour arises from the mass and richness of light; brilliancy from the variety and brightness of the lights and colours. Brightness may be obscured, lustre may be tarnished, splendour and brilliancy diminished.

splradour and brilliance diminished.

The analogy is closely preserved in the figurative application. Brightness attaches to the moral character of men in ordinary cases; 'Earthly honours are both short-lived iff heir continuance, and, while they last, tarnished with spots and stains. On some quarter or other their brightness is obscured. But the honour which proceeds from God and virtue is unmixed and pure. It is a lustre which is derived from heaven.'—Bhark. Lustre attaches to extraordinary instances of virtue and greatness; spleudour and brilliancy attach to the achievements of men; 'Thomson's diction is in the highest degree florid and luxuriant, such as may be said to be to his imnges and thoughts "both their lustre and their shade;" such as invest them with spleudour through which they are not easily discernible.'—Johnson. 'There is an appearance of brilliancy in the pleasures of high life which naturally dazzles the young'—Callo.

dazzles the young!—CRAIG.

Our Saviour is strikingly represented to us as the brightness of his Father's glory, and the express image of his person. The humanity of the English in the

pour of conquest adds a lustre to their victories which are either splendid or brilliant, according to the num-ber and nature of the circumstances which render them remarkable.

FIRE, HEAT, WARMTH, GLOW.

In the proper sense these words are easily distinguished, but not so easily in the improper sense; and as the latter depends principally upon the former, it is not altogether useless to enter into some explanation of

their physical meaning.

Fire is with regard to heat as the cause to the effect: it is itself an inherent property in some material hodies, and when in action communicates heat;* fire is perceptible to us by the eye, as well as the touch; heat is perceptible only by the touch; we distinguish fire by means of the flame it sends forth, or by the changes which it produces upon other bodies; but we discover heat only by the sensations which it produces in ourselves.

Fire has within itself the power of communicating heat to other bodies at a distance from it; but heat when it lies in bodies without fire, is not communicable or even perceptible, except by coming in contact with the body. Fire is producible in some bodies at pleasure, and when in action will communicate itself without any external influence; but heat is always to be produced and kept in being by some external agency: fire spreads; but heat dies away. Fire is producible only in certain bodies; but heat may be produced in many more bodies; fire may be elicited from a flint, or from wood, steel, and some few other materials; but heat is producible, or exists to a greater or less degree, in all material substances.

Heat and warmth differ principally in degree; the latter being a gentle degree of the former. The term heat is, however, in its most extensive sense applicable to that universal principle which pervades all nature, animate and inanimate, and seems to vivify the whole it is this principle which appears either under the form of fire, or under the more commonly conceived form of heat, as it is generally understood, and as I have here considered it. Heat in this limited sense is less active than fire, and more active than warmth; the former is produced in bodies, either by the violent action of fire, as in the boiling of water, the melting of lead, or the violent friction of two hard bodies; the latter is produced by the simple expulsion of the cold, as in the case of feathers, wool, and other substances, which produce and retain warmth.

Heat may be the greatest possible remove, but warmth may be the smallest possible remove, from cold; the latter is opposed to the cool, which borders on the cold. Heat is that which to our feelings is painful; but warmth is that which is always grateful. In animate bodies fire cannot long exist, as it is in its nature consuming and destructive; it is incompatible with animal life: heat will not exist, unless when the body is in a diseased or disordered state: but warmth is that portion of heat which exists in every healthy subject; this the hen hatches and rears her young, by this the operation of gestation is carried on in the female. Glow is a partial heat or warmth which exists or is known to exist, mostly in the human frame; it is commouly produced in the body when it is in its most vigorous state, and its nerves are firmly braced by the cold.

From the above analysis the figurative application of these terms, and the grounds upon which they are so employed, will be easily discerned. As fire is the strongest and most active principle in nature, which secizes every thing within its reach with the greatest possible rapidity, genius is said to be possessed of fire which flies with rapidity through all the regions of thought, and forms the most lively images and comhinations:

That modern love is no such thing,

As what those ancient poets sing,
A fire celestial, chaste, refined.—Swift.

But when fire is applied to the eye or the looks, it borrows its meaning from the external property of flame, which is very aptly depicted in the eye or the looks of lively people. As heat is always excessive and mostly lively people. violent, those commotions and fermentations of the

* Vide Eberhardt: "Hitze, feuer, warme."

mind which flow from the agitation of the passions, particularly of the angry passions, is termed heat. As varmth is a gentle and grateful property, it has with most propriety been ascribed to the affections. As glow is a partial but vivid feeling of the body, so is friendship a strong but particular affection of the mind: hence the propriety of ascribing a glow to friendship

Age damps the fire of the poet. Disputants in the heat of the contest are apt to forget all the forms of good-breeding; 'The heat of Milton's mind might be said to sublimate his learning.'—Johnson. A man of tender moral feelings speaks with warmth of a noble action, or takes a warm interest in the concerns of the innocent and the distressed; 'I fear I have pressed you farther upon this occasion than was neces sary: however, I know you will excuse my warmth in the cause of a friend."—Mklmouth (Letters of Cicero to Casar). A youth in the full glow of friendship feels himself prepared to make any sacrifice in supporting the cause of his friend;

> The frost-concocted glebe Draws in abundant vegetable soul, And gathers vigour for the coming year: A stronger glow sits on the lively cheek Of ruddy fire.-Thomson.

FERVOUR, ARDOUR.

Fervour, from ferveo to boil, is not so violent a heat as ardour, from ardeo to burn. The affections are as ardown, from ardeo to burn. The allections are properly fervent; the passions are ardent; we are fervent in feeling, and ardent in acting; the fervour of devotion may be rational; but the ardown of zeal is mostly intemperate. The first martyr, Stephen, was filled with a holy fervour; St. Peter, in the ardour of his zeal, promised his master to do more than he was able to perform; 'The joy of the Lord is not to be understood of high raptures and transports of religious fervour.'-BLAIR. 'Do men hasten to their devotions with that ardour that they would to a lewd play?'-SOUTH.

HOT, FIERY, BURNING, ARDENT.

Hot, in German heiss, Latin æstus, comes from the Hebrew UN fire; fiery signifies having fire; burning, the actual state of burning; ardent, the having ardour (v. Fervour).

These terms characterize either the presence of heat or the cause of heat; hot is the general term which marks simply the presence of heat: fiery goes farther, it denotes the presence of fire which is the cause of heat; burning denotes the action of fire, and consequently is more expressive than the two; ardent, which is literally the same in signification, is employed either in poetry or in application to moral objects: a room is hot; a furnace or the tail of a comet fiery; a coal burning; the sun ardent;

Let loose the raging elements. Breath'd hot From all the boundless furnace of the sky, And the wide, glittering waste of burning sand A suffocating wind the pilgrim smites With instant death .- Thomson.

E'en the camel feels, Shot through his wither'd heart, the fiery blast.
Thomson.

The royal eagle draws his vigorous young Strong pounc'd, and ardent with paternal fire. THOMSON.

In the figurative application, a temper is said to be hot or fiery; rage is burning; the mind is ardent in pursuit of an object. Zeal may be hot, fiery, burning; and ardent; but in the first three cases, it denotes the intemperance of the mind when heated by religion or politicks; the latter is admissible so long as it is confined to a good object.

RADIANCE, BRILLIANCY

Both these terms express the circumstance of a great Both these terms express the circumstance of a great light in a body; but radiance, from radius a ray, denotes the emission of rays, and is, therefore, peculiarly applicable to bodies naturally luminous, like the heavenly bodies; and brilliancy (v. Bright) denotes the whole body of light emitted and may, therefore

be applied equally to natural and artificial light. The radiancy of the sun, moon, and stars constitutes a part of their beauty; the brilliancy of a diamond is frequently compared with that of a star.

TO SHINE, GLITTER, GLARE, SPARKLE, RADIATE.

Shine, in Saxon schinean, German scheinen, is in all probability connected with the words show, see, &c.; glitter and glare are variations from the German gleissen, glanzen, &c. which have a similar meaning; to sparkle signifies to produce sparks; and spark is in Saxon spearce, Low German and Dutch spark; to radiate is to produce rays, from the Latin radius a

The emission of light is the common idea conveyed by these terms. To shine expresses simply this general idea; glitter and the other verbs include some colla-

teral ideas in their signification.

To shine is a steady emission of light; to glitter is an unsteady emission of light, occasioned by the re-flection on transparent or bright bodies: the sun and moon shine whenever they make their appearance; but a set of diamonds glitter by the irregular reflection of the light on them. of the light on them; or the brazen spire of a steeple glitters when the sun in the morning shines upon it. In a moral application, what shines appears with a true light;

Yet something shines more glorious in his word, His mercy this.—WALLER.

What glitters appears with a false or borrowed light; 'The happiness of success glittering before him withdraws his attention from the atrociousness of the

-Johnson.

Shine specifies no degree of light; it may be barely Shine specifies no degree of light; it may be barely sufficient to render itself visible, or it may be a very strong degree of light: glare on the contrary denotes the highest possible degree of light: the sun frequently glares, when it shines only at intervals; 'This glorious morning star was not the transitory light of a comet which shines and glares for a while, and then presently vanishes into nothing.'—South. All naked light, the strength of which is diminished by any shade, will produce a glare, as the glare of the eye when fred full morn an object. when fixed full upon an object;

Against the Capitol I met a lion, Who glar'd upon me, and went surly by Without annoying me. - SHAKSPEARE.

To shine is to emit light in a full stream; but to To suine is to eithit igni in a tina stream, but to sparkle is to emit it in small portions; and to radiate is to emit it in long lines. The fire sparkles in the burning of wood; or the light of the sun sparkles when it strikes on knobs or small points: the sun radiates when it seems to emit its light in rays;

His eyes so sparkled with a lively flame DRYDEN.

Now had the sun withdrawn his radiant light. DRVDEN.

FLAME, BLAZE, FLASH, FLARE, GLARE.

Flame, in Latin flamma, from the Greek φλέγω to burn, signifies the luminous exhalation emitted from fire; blaze, from the German blasen to blow, signifies a flame blown up, that is, an extended flame; flash and flare, which are but variations of flame, denote different species of flame; the former a sudden flame, the ferent species of flame; the former a sudden flame, the latter a dazzling, unsteady flame. Glare, which is a variation of glow, denotes a glowing, that is a strong flame, that emits a strong light; a candle burns only by flame, paper commonly by a blaze, gunpowder by a flash, a torch by a flare, and a conflagration by a plare:

His lightning your rebellion shall confound And hurl ye headlong flaming to the ground.

Swift as a flood of fire when storms arise Floats the wide field, and blazes to the skies.

Have we not seen round Britain's peopled shore, Her useful sons exchang'd for useless ore,

Seen all her triumphs but destruction haste, Like flaring tapers brightening as they waste.

Ev'n in the height of noon oppress'd, the sun Sheds weak and blunt, his wide refracted ray, Whence glaring oft, with many a broaden'd orb He frights the nations .- Thomson.

GLARING, BAREFACED.

Glaring is here used in the figurative sense, drawn from its natural signification of broad light, which strikes powerfully upon the senses; barefaced signifies literally having a bare or uncovered face, which denotes the absence of all disguise or all shame. Glaring designates the thing; barefaced characterizes the person: a glaring falsehood is that which

strikes the observer in an instant to be falsehood; a barefaced lie or falsehood betrays the effrontery of him who utters it. A glaring absurdity will be seen in-stantly without the aid of reflection; 'The glaring side is that of enmity.'—BURKE. A barefaced piece of impudence characterizes the agent as more than ordinarily lost to all sense of decorum; 'The animosities increased, and the parties appeared barefaced against each other.'—CLARENDON.

GLEAM, GLIMMER, RAY, BEAM.

Gleam is in Saxon gleomen, German glimmen, &c. Glimmer is a variation of the same verb; ray is connected with the word row; beam comes from the German baum a tree.

Certain portions of light are designated by all these terms: but gleam and glimmer are indefinite; ray and beam are definite. A gleam is properly the commence-ment of light, or that portion of opening light which interrupts the darkness; a glimmer is an unsteady

A dreadful gleam from his bright armour came, And from his eye-balls flash'd the living flame.

'The glimmering light which shot into the chaos from the utmost verge of the creation, is wonderfully beau-tiful and poetick.'—Addison. Ray and beam are por-tions of light which emanate from some luminous body; the former from all luminous bodies in general, the latter more particularly from the sun: the former is, as its derivation denotes, a row or line of light issuing in a greater or less degree from any body; the latter is a great line of light, like a pole issuing from a body;

A sudden ray shot beaming o'er the plain, And show'd the shores, the navy, and the main

The stars shine smarter; and the moon adorns, As with unborrow'd beams, her horns.

There may be a gleam of light visible on the wall of a dark room, or a glimmer if it be moveable; there may be rays of light visible at night on the back of a glowworm, or rays of light may break through the shutters of a closed room;

The stars emit a shiver'd ray .- Thomson,

The sun in the height of its splendour sends forth its beams; and in the same manner the human counte-nance or eyes may be said to send forth beams;

The modest virtues mingle in her eyes The modest virtues magic in act of Still on the ground dejected, darting all Their humid beams into the blooming flowers, Thomson.

Gleam and ray may be applied figuratively; beam only in the natural sense: a gleam of light may break in on the benighted understanding; but a glimmer of light rather confuses; rays of light may dart into the mud of the most ignorant savage who is taught the principles of Christianity by the pure practice of its professors.

CLEAR, LUCID, BRIGHT, VIVID.

Clear, v. To absolve: lucid, in Latin lucidus, from luceo to shine, and lux light, signifies having light

bright, v. Brightness; vivid, Latin vividus from vivo

to live, signifies being in a state of life

These epithets mark a gradation in their sense: the idea of light is common to them; but clear expresses less than lucid, luced than bright, and bright less than vivid: a mere freedom from stain or dulness constitutes clearness;

Some choose the clearest light,
And boldly challenge the most piercing eye.
Roscommon.

The return of light, and consequent removal of dark ness, constitutes lucidity;

Nor is the stream Of purest crystal, nor the lucid air, Though one transparent vacancy it seems, Void of their unseen people.—Thomson.

Brightness supposes a certain strength of light;
This place, the brightest mansion of the sky,

This place, the brightest mansion of the sky, I'll call the palace of the Deity.—Dryden.

Vividness indicates freshness combined with strength,

and even a degree of brilliancy;
From the moist meadow to the wither'd hill,
Led by the breeze, the *vivid* verdure runs,
And swells, and deepens to the cherish'd eye.
Тиомзом.

A sky is clear that is divested of clouds; the atmosphere is lucid in the day, but not in the night; the sun shines bright when it is unobstructed by any thing the atmosphere; lightning sometimes presents a vivid redness, and sometimes a vivid paleness: the light of the stars may be clear, and sometimes bright, but never vivid; the light of the sun is rather bright than clear or vivid; the light of the moon is either clear, bright, or vivid.

These epithets may with equal propriety be applied to colour, as well as to light: a clear colour is unmixed with any other; a bright colour has something striking and strong in it; a vivid colour something lively and

fresh in it.

In their moral application these epithets preserve a similar distinction: a conscience is said to be clear when it is free from every stain or spot; 'I look upon a sound imagination as the greatest blessing of life, next to a clear judgement, and agood conscience.'—Applson. A deranged understanding may have lucid intervals; 'I believe were Rousseau alive, and in one of his lucid intervals, he would be shocked at the practical phrensy of his scholars.'—Burke. A bright intellect throws light on every thing around it;

But in a body which doth freely yield His parts to reason's rule obedient,

There Alma, like a virgin queen most bright,
Doth flourish in all beauty excellent.—Spenser.

A vivid imagination glows with every image that na-

There let the classick page thy fancy lead Through rural scenes, such as the Mantuan swain Paints in the matchless harmony of song, Or catch thyself the landscape, glided swift Athwart imagination's vivid eye.—Thomson,

PELLUCID, TRANSPARENT.

Pellucid, in Latin pellucidus changed from perlucidus, signifies very shining; transparent, in Latin transparens, from trans through or beyond, and pareo to appear, signifies visible throughout.

Pellucid is said of that which is pervious to the light, or that into which the eye can penetrate; transparent is said of that which is throughout bright; a stream is pellucid; it admits of the light so as to reflect objects, but it is not transparent for the eye.

CLEARLY, DISTINCTLY.

That is seen *clearly* of which one has a general view; that is seen *distinctly* which is seen so as to distinguish the several parts.

We see the moon clearly whenever it shines; but we cannot see the spots in the moon distinctly without

the help of glasses.

What we see distinctly must be seen clearly, but a thing may be seen clearly without being seen distinctly.

A want of light, or the intervention of other objects, prevents us from seeing clearly; distance, or a detect in the sight, prevents us from seeing distinctly.

* Old men often see clearly but not distinctly; they perceive large or luminous objects at a distance, but they cannot distinguish such small objects as the cha racters of a book without the help of convex glasses; short-sighted persons, on the contrary, see near objects distinctly, but they have no clear vision of distant ones, unless they are viewed through concave glasses; 'The custom of arguing on any side, even against our persuasion, dims the understanding, and makes it by degrees lose the faculty of discenning clearly between truth and falsehood.'—Locke. 'Whether we are able to comprehend all the operations of nature, and the manners of them, it matters not to inquire; but this is certain, that we can comprehend no more of them than we can distinctly conceive.'—Locke.

CLEARNESS, PERSPICUITY.

Clearness, from clear (v. Clear, lucid), is here used figuratively, to mark the degree of light by which one sees things distinctly; perspicuity, in French perspicuité, Latin perspicuitas from perspicuas and perspicio to look through, signifies the quality of being able to be seen through.

These epithets denote qualities equally requisite to render a discourse intelligible, but each has its peculiar character. † Clearness respects our ideas, and springs from the distinction of the things themselves that are discussed: perspicuity respects the mode of expressing the ideas, and springs from the good qualities of style. It requires a clear head to be able to see a subject in all its bearings and relations; to distinguish all the niceties and shades of difference between things that bear a strong resemblance, and to separate it from all irrelevant objects that intermingle themselves with it. But whatever may be our clearness of conception, it is requisite, if we would communicate our conceptions to others, that we should observe a purity in our mode of diction, that we should be particular in the choice of our terms, careful in the disposition of them, and accurate in the construction of our sentences; that is perspicuity, which, as it is the first, so, according to Quintilian, it is the most important part of composition.

Clearness of intellect is a natural gift; perspicuity is an acquired art: although intimately connected with each other, yet it is possible to have clearness without perspicuity, and perspicuity without clearness. People of quick capacities will have clear ideas on the subjects that offer themselves to their notice, but for want of education they may often use improper or ambiguous phrases; or by errours of construction render their phraseology the reverse of perspicuous: on the other hand, it is in the power of some to express themselves perspicuously on subjects far above their comprehension, from a certain facility which they acquire of catching us mightly modes of expression us approach.

of catching up suitable modes of expression. The study of the classicks and mathematicks are most fitted for the improvement of clearness; the study of grammar, and the observance of good models, will serve most effectually for the acquirement of perspicuity; 'Whenever men think clearly and are thoroughly interested, they express themselves with perspicuity and force.'—ROBERTSON. 'No modern orator can date to enter the lists with Demosthenes and Tully. We have discourses, indeed, that may be admired for their perspicuity, purity, and elegance; but can produce none that abound in a sublimity which whirls away the auditor like a mighty torrent.'—WARTON.

FAIR, CLEAR.

Fair, in Saxon fagar, probably from the Latin pulcher beautiful; fair (n. Clear) is used in a positive sense; clear in a negative sense: there must be some brightness in what is fair; there must be no spots in what is clear. The weather is said to be fair, which is not only free from what is disagreeable, but somewhat enlivened by the sun; it is clear when it is free, from clouds or mists. A fair skin approaches t white; a clear skin is without spots or irregularities;

* Vide Trusler: " Clearly, distinctly."

† Vide Abbe Girard: "Clarté, perspicuité"

His fair large front, and eyes sublime, declar'd Absolute rule. - MILTON.

I thither went With unexperienced thought, and laid me down On the green bank, to look into the clear Smooth lake .- MILTON.

In the moral application, a fair fame speaks much in praise of a man; a clear reputation is free from faults. A fair statement contains every thing that can be said pro and con; a clear statement is free from ambiguity or obscurity. Fairness is something desirable and inviting; clearness is an absolute requisite, it cannot be dispensed with.

APPARENT, VISIBLE, CLEAR, PLAIN, OBVIOUS, EVIDENT, MANIFEST.

Apparent, in Latin apparens, participle of apparent to appear, signifies the quality of appearing; visible, in Latin visibilis, from visus, participle of video to see, signifies capable of being seen; clear, v. Clear, lucid plain, in Latin planus even, signifies what is so smooth and unencumbered that it can be seen; obvious, in Latin obvius, compounded of ob and via, signifies the quality of lying in one's way, or before one's eyes; evident, in French evident, Latin evidens, from video, Greek είδω, Hebrew y to know, signifies as good as certain or known; manifest, in French manifestus, compounded of manus the hand, and festus, participle of the old verb fendo to fall in, signifies the quality of falling in or coming so near that it can be laid hold of by the hand.

These words agree in expressing various degrees in the capability of seeing; but visible is the only one used purely in a physical sense; apparent, clear, plain, and obvious are used physically and morally; evident and manifest solely in a moral acceptation. That which manifest solely in a moral acceptation.

is simply an object of sight is visible;

The visible and present are for brutes A slender portion, and a narrow bound .- Young.

That of which we see only the surface is apparent; 'The perception intellective often corrects the report of phantasy, as in the apparent bigness of the sun, and the apparent crookedness of the staff in air and water.' The stars themselves are visible to us; but -HALE. their size is merely apparent; the rest of these terms denote not only what is to be seen, but what is easily to be seen; they are all applied as epithets to objects of mental discernment.

What is apparent appears but imperfectly to view; it is opposed to that which is real: what is clear is to be seen in all its bearings; it is opposed to that which is obscure: what is plain is seen by a plain understanding; it requires no deep reflection nor severe study; it is opposed to what is intricate: what is obvious presents itself readily to the mind of every one; it is seen at the first glance, and is opposed to that which is abwhat is evident is seen forcibly, and leaves no hesitation on the mind; it is opposed to that which is dubious: manifest is a greater degree of the evident; it strikes on the understanding and forces conviction;

it is opposed to that which is dark.

A contradiction may be apparent; on closer observation it may be found not to be one. Men's virtues or religion may be only apparent; 'The outward and apparent sanctity of actions should flow from purity of apparent sanctiny of actions should now from purity of heart."—ROGERS. A case is elear; it is decided on immediately; 'We pretend to give a clear account how thunder and lightning are produced."—TEMPLE. A truth is plain; it is involved in no perplexity; it is not multifarious in its bearings: a fulsehood is plain; it admits of no question; 'It is plain that our skill in literature is owing to the knowledge of Greek and Latin, which that they are still preserved among us, can be ascribed only to a religious regard. —Berkeley. A reason is obvious; it flows out of the nature of the case; 'It is obvious to remark that we follow nothing heartily unless carried to it by inclination.'—GROVE. A proof is evident; it requires no discussion, there is nothing in it that clashes or contradicts; the guilt or innocence of a person is evident when every thing serves to strengthen the conclusion; 'It is evident that fame, considered merely as the immortality of a name, is not less likely to be the reward of bad actions than of good.'-Johnson. A contradiction or absurdity is

manifest, which is felt by all as soon as it is perceived; Among the many inconsistencies which folly produces in the human mind, there has often been observed a manifest and striking contrariety between the life of an author and his writings.'-Johnson.

APPEARANCE, AIR, ASPECT.

Appearance, which signifies the thing that appears, is the generick: air, v. Air, manner; and aspect, in Latin aspectus, from aspicio to look upon, signifying the thing that is looked upon or seen, are specifick terms. The whole external form, figure, or colours, whatever is visible to the eye, is its appearance; 'The hero answers with the respect due to the beautiful appearance of any object as far as it is indicative of its quality, condition, or temper; an air of wretchedness or of assumption; 'Some who had the most assuming air went directly of themselves to errour without expecting a conductor.'-PARNELL. Aspect is the partial appearance of a body as it presents one of its sides to view; a gloonly or cheerful aspect; 'Her motions were steady and composed, and her aspect serious but cheerful; her name was Patience.'—Ap DISON.

It is not safe to judge of any person or thing altogether by appearances; the appearance and reality are often at variance: the appearance of the sun is that of a moving body, but modern astronomers are of opinion that it has no motion round the earth; there are particular towns, habitations, or rooms, which have always an air of comfort, or the contrary; this is a sort of appearance the most to be relied on. Politicians of a certain stamp are always busy in judging of the future from the aspect of affairs; but their predictions, like those of astrologers, who judge from the aspect of the heavens, turn out to the discredit of the prophet.

HIDEOUS, GHASTLY, GRIM, GRISLY.

Hideous, in French hideux, comes probably from hide, signifying fit only to be hidden from the view; ghastly signifies like a ghost; grim, in German grimm, signifies ferce; grisly, from grizzle, signifies grizzled, or motley coloured.

An unseemly exteriour is characterized by these terms; but the hideous respects natural objects, and the ghastly more properly that which is supernatural or what resembles it. A mask with monstrous grinning features looks hideous.

From the broad margin to the centre grew

Shelves, rocks, and whirlpools, hideous to the view. FALCONER.

A human form with a visage of deathlike paleness is ghastly;

And death

Grinn'd horribly a ghastly smile. - MILTON.

The grim is applicable only to the countenances; dogs or wild beasts may look very grim;

Even hell's grim king Alcides' pow'r confess'd.-Pope. Grisly refers to the whole form, but particularly to the colour; as blackness or darkness has always something terrifick in it, a grisly figure, having a monstrous assemblage of dark colour, is particularly calculated to strike terrour:

All parts resound with tumults, plaints, and fears, And grisly death in sundry shapes appears .- POPE. Hideous is applicable to objects of hearing also, as a hideous roar; but the rest to objects of sight only.

FACE, FRONT,

Figuratively designate the particular parts of bodies which bear some sort of resemblance to the human face or forehead.

The face is applied to that part of bodies which serves as an index or rule, and contains certain marks serves as an index or rule, and contains certain marks to direct the observer; the front is employed for that part which is most prominent or foremost: hence we speak of the face of a wheel or clock, the face of a painting, or the face of nature; but the front of a house or building, and the front of a stage: hence likewise, the propriety of the expressions, to put a good face on a thing, to show a bold front; 'A common soldier, a child, a girl, the door of an inn, have changed the face of fortune, and almost of nature.'—

Where the deep trench in length extended lay, Compacted troops stand wedged in firm array, A dreadful front.—Pope.

FACE, COUNTENANCE, VISAGE.

Face, in Latin facies, from facio to make, signifies the whole form or make; countenance, in French contenance, from the Latin contineo, signifies the contents, or what is contained in the face; visage, from tents, or what is contained in the face; visage, from visuo and video to see, signifies the particular form of the face as it presents itself to view; properly speaking a kind of

ing a kind of countenance.

The face consists of a certain set of features; the countenance consists of the general aggregate of looks produced by these features; the visage consists of such ooks in particular cases; the face is the work of nature the countenance and visage are the work of the mind: the face remains the same, but the countenance and visage are changeable. The face belongs to brutes as well as men; the countenance is the peculiar property of man; visage is a term peculiarly applicable to superiour beings; it is employed only in the grave or lofty style; 'No part of the body besides the face is capable of as many changes as there are different emotions in the mind, and of expressing them all by those changes -- HUGHES. ' As the countenance admits of so great variety it requires also great judgement to govern it.'

A sudden trembling seized on all his limbs His eyes distorted grew, his visage pale; His speech forsook him.—OTWAY.

TO GAPE, STARE, GAZE.

To gape, in German gaffen, Saxon geopnian to make open or wide, is to look with an open or wide mouth; stare, from the German starr fixed, signifies to look with a fixed eye; gaze comes very probably from the Greek ἀγάζομαι to admire, because it signifies to look steadily from a sentiment of admiration.

Gape and stare are taken in the bad sense; the former indicating the astonishment of gross ignorance; the latter not only ignorance but impertinence: gaze is the latter not only gnorance but impertmence: gaze is 'aken always in a good sense, as indicating a laucable feeling of astonishment, pleasure, or curiosity. A clown gapes at the pictures of wild beasts which he sees at a fair; 'It was now a miserable spectacle to see us nodding and gaping at one another, every man talking, and no man head.'—Sir John Mandeville. An impertinent fellow stares at every woman he looks at, and stares a modest woman out of countenance;

Astonish'd Aunus just arrives by chance To see his fall, nor farther dares advance; But, fixing on the maid his horrid eye He stares and shakes, and finds it vain to fly.

DRYDEN.

A lover of the fine arts will gaze with admiration and delight at the productions of Raphael or Titian; For while expecting there the queen, he rais'd His wond'ring eyes, and round the temple gaz'd,

Admir'd the fortune of the rising town, The striving artists, and their art's renown. DRYDEN.

When a person is stupified by afflight, he gives a va-Those who are filled with transport gaze cant stare. on the object of their ecstasy.

VIEW, SURVEY, PROSPECT.

Vicw, v. To look, and survey, compounded of vey or view and sur over, mark the act of the person, namely, the looking at a thing with more or less attennamely, the looking at a timing with more or less attention: prospects, from the Latin prospectus and prospectio to see before, designates the thing seen. We take a view or survey, the prospect presents itself: the view is of an indefinite extent; the survey is always comprehensive in its nature. Ignorant people take but narrow views of things; men take more or less enlarged views, according to their cultivation: the ca pacious mind of a genius takes a survey of all nature; Fools view but part, and not the whole survey, So crowd existence all into a day .-- JENYNS

The view depends altogether on the train of a person's thoughts; the prospect is set before him, it depends upon the nature of the thing; our views of advancement are sometimes very fallacious; our prospects are very delusive; both occasion disappointment; the former is the keener, as we have to charge the miscal-culation upon ourselves. Sometimes our prospects depend upon our views, at least in matters of religion; he who forms erroneous views of a future state has but a wretched prospect beyond the grave;

No land so rude but looks beyond the tomb For future prospects in a world to come.-JENYNS.

VIEW, PROSPECT, LANDSCAPE.

View and prospect (v. View, prospect), though applied here to external objects of sense, have a similar distinction as in the preceding article. The view is not only that which may be seen, but that which is actually seen; the prospect is that which may be seen: that ceases, therefore, to be a view, which has not an immediate agent to view; although a prospect exists continually, whether seen or not: hence we speak with more propriety of our view being intercepted, than our prospect intercepted; a confined and bounded view, but I lively or down, we seen. The toron bounder of the continued and bounded view, but I lively or down, we seen. a lively or dreary prospect. The terms, however, are are sometimes indifferently applied;

Thus was this place A happy rural seat of various views .- MILTON. Now skies and seas their prospect only bound.

DRVDRN

View is an indefinite term; it may be said either of a number of objects, or of a single object, of a whole or of a part; prospect is said only of an aggregate number of objects. of objects: we may have a view of a town, of a number of scattered houses, of a single house, or of the spire of a steeple; but a prospect comprehends all that spire of a steepie; but a prospect comprehends an that comes within the range of the eye. View may be said of that which is seen directly or indirectly; prospect only of that which directly presents itself to the eye; hence a drawing of an object may be termed a view, although not a prospect. View is confined to no particular objects; prospect mostly respects varial objects; and landscape respects no others. Landscape, landskip, or landshape denotes any portion of country which is in a particular form: hence the landscape is a species of prospect. A prospect may be wide, and com-prehend an assemblage of objects both of nature and art; but a landscape is narrow, and lies within the compass of the naked eye: hence it is also that landscape may be taken also for the drawing of a landscape, and consequently for a species of view: the taking of views or landscapes is the last exercise of the learner

So lovely seem'd That landscape, and of pure now purer air Meets his approach.—Milton.

VISION, APPARITION, PHANTOM, SPECTRE, GHOST.

Vision, from the Latin visus seeing or seen, signifies either the act of seeing or the thing seen; apparition, from appear, signifies the thing that appears. thing seen is only the improper signification, the term vision is never employed but in regard to some agent: the vision depends upon the state of the visual organ; the vision of a person whose sight is defective will frequently be fallacious; he will see some things double which are single, long which are short, and the like. In like manner, if the sight be miraculously impressed his vision will enable him to see that which is supernatural; hence it is that vision is either true or false, according to the circumstances of the individual; and a vision, signifying a thing seen, is taken for a super-natural exertion of the vision: apparition, on the con-trary, refers us to the object seen; this may be true or false according to the manner in which it presents itself.

Joseph was warned by a vision to fly into Egypt with his family; *Mary Magdalen was informed of the resurrection of our Saviour by an apparition i

* Vide Trusler: "Vision, apparition."

feverish people often think they see visions; timid and credulous people sometimes take trees and posts for apparitions;

Visions and inspirations some expect Their course here to direct.—Cowley.

Fud fast he flies, and dares not look behind him, Till out of breath he overtakes his fellows, Who gather round and wonder at the tale Of horrid apparition.—BLAIR.

Phantom, from the Greek φαίνω to appear, is used for a false apparition, or the appearance of a thing otherwise than what it is; thus the ignis fatuus, vulgarly called Jack-o'-Lantern, is a phantom; besides which there are many phantoms of a moral kind which haunt the imagination; 'The phantoms which haunt a desert are want, and misery, and danger.'—JOHNSON.

Spectre, from specio to behold, and ghost, from geist a spirit, are the apparitions of immaterial substances. The spectre is taken for any spiritual being that appears; but the ghost is taken only for the spirits of departed men who appear to their fellow-creatures: a spectre is sometimes made to appear on the stage; ghosts exist mostly in the imagination of the young and the ignorant;

Rous'd from their slumbers, In grim array the grisly spectres rise.—BLAIR.

The lonely tower

Is also shunn'd, whose mournful chambers hold, So night-struck fancy dreams, the yelling ghost. Thomson.

RETROSPECT, REVIEW, SURVEY.

Retrospect is literally looking back, from retro behind, and spicio to behold or cast an eye upon; a review is a view repeated; and a survey is a looking over at once, from the French sur over, and voir

A retrospect is always taken of that which is past and distant; a review may be taken of that which is present and before us; every retrospect is a species of review, but every review is not a retrospect. We take a retrospect of our past life in order to draw salutary reflections from all that we have done and suffered; we take a review of any particular circumstance which is passing before us, in order to regulate our present conduct. The retrospect goes further by virtue of the mind's power to reflect on itself, and to recall all past images to itself; the review may go forward by the exectise of the senses on external objects. The historian takes a retrospect of all the events which have happened within a given period; the journalist takes a review of all the events that are passing within the time in which he is living; 'Believe me, my lord, I look upon you as a spirit entered into another life, where you ought to despise all little views and mean retrospects.'—Pork (Letters to Atterbury). 'The retrospect of life is seldom wholly unattended by uneasiness and shame. It too much resembles the review which a traveller takes from some eminence of a barren country.'—BLAIR.

The review may be said of the past as well as the present; it is a view not only of what is, but what has been: the survey is entirely confined to the present; it is a view only of that which is; 'Every man accustomed to take survey of his own notions, will, by a slight retrospection, be able to discover that his mind has undergone many revolutions.'—Johnson. We take a review of what we have already riewed,

We take a renew of what we have already riewed, in order to get a more correct insight into it; we take a survey of a thing in all its parts in order to get a comprehensive view of it, in order to examine it in all its bearings. A general occasionally takes a review of all his army; he takes a survey of the fortress which he is going to besiege or attack.

REVISAL, REVISION, REVIEW.

Revisal, revision, and review, all come from the Latin video to see, and signify looking back upon a thing or looking at it again: the terms revisal and revision are however mostly employed in regard to what is written; review is used for things in general. The revisal of a book is the work of the author, for the purposes of correction; 'There is in your persons a

difference and a peculiarity of character preserved through the whole of your actions, that I could never imagine but that this proceeded from a long and careful revisal of your work.'—Lortus. The review of a book is the work of the critick, for the purpose of estimating its value; 'A commonplace book accustoms the mind to discharge itself of its reading on paper, instead of relying on its natural powers of retention aided by frequent revisions of its ideas.'—Earl of Chatham. Revisal and revision differ neither in sense nor application, unless that the former is more frequently employed abstractedly from the object revised, and revision mostly in conjunction: whoever wishes his work to be correct, will not spare a revisal; the revision of classical books ought to be intrusted only to men of profound erudition. The term revision may also sometimes be applied to other objects besides those of literature; 'How enchanting must such a review (of their menorandum books) prove to those who make a figure in the polite world.'—Hawkes-worth.

TO ECLIPSE, OBSCURE.

Eclipar, in Greek ἐκλείψις, comes from ἐκλείπω to fail, signifying to cause a failure of light: abscure, from the adjective obscure (v. Dark), signifies to cause the intervention of a shadow.

In the natural as well as the moral application, eclipse is taken in a particular and relative signification; obscure is used in a general sense. Heavenly bodies are eclipsed by the intervention of other bodies between them and the beholder; things are in general obscured which are in any way rendered less striking or visible. To eclipse is therefore a species of obscuring; that is always obscured which is eclipsed; but every thing is not eclipsed which is obscured.

So figuratively real merit is eclipsed by the interven-

tion of that which is superiour;

Sarcasms may eclipse thine own,
But cannot blur my lost renown.—BUTLER.

Merit is often obscured by an ungracious exteriour in the possessor, or by the unfortunate circumstances of his life; 'Among those who are the most richly endowed by nature and accomplished by their own industry, how few are there whose virtues are not obscured by the ignorance, prejudice, or envy of their beholders.'—Addison.

DARK, OBSCURE, DIM, MYSTERIOUS.

Dark, in Saxon deore, is doubtless connected with the German dunkel dark and dunst a vapour, which is a cause of darkness; obscure, in Latin obscurus, compounded of ob and scurus, Greek σκιρρός and σκία a shadow, signifies literally interrupted by a shadow; dim is but a variation of dark, dunkel, &c.

Darkness expresses more than obscurity: the former denotes the total privation of light; the latter only the

diminution of light.

Dark is opposed to light; obscure to bright; what is dark is altogether hidden; what is obscure is not to be

seen distinctly, or without an effort.

Darkness may be used either in the natural or moral sense; obscurity only in the moral sense; in this case the former conveys a more unfavourable idea than the latter: darkness serves to cover that which ought not to be hidden; obscurity intercepts our view of that which we would wish to see: the former is the consequence of design; the latter of neglect or accident: the letter sent by the conspirator in the gunpowder plot to his friend was dark;

Why are thy speeches dark and troubled,
As Cretan seas when vex'd by warring winds?

SMITH

All passages in ancient writers which allude to circumstances no longer known, must necessarily be observe; 'He that reads and grows no wiser seldom suspects his own deficiency, but complains of hard words and observer sentences.'—Johnson. A corner may be said to be dark or obscure; but the former is used literally and the latter figuratively: the owl is obliged, from the weakness of its visual organs, to seek the darkest corners in the daytime; men of distorted minds often seek obscure corners, only from disappointed ambition. Dim expresses a degree of darkness, but it is em

ployed more in relation to the person seeing than to the object seen. The eyes are said to grow dim, or the sight dim. The light is said to be dim, by which things are but dimly seen;

The stars shall fade away, the sun himself Grow dim with age, and nature sink in years; But thou shalt flourish in immortal youth. ADDISON.

Mysterious denotes a species of the dark, in relation to the actions of men: where a veil is intentionally thrown over any object so as to render it as incom-

thrown over any object so as to render it as incomprehensible as that which is sacred. Dark is an epithet taken always in the bad sense, but mysterious is always in an indifferent sense. We are told in the Sacred Writings, that men love darkness rather than light, because their deeds are evil. Whatever, therefore, is dark in the ways of men, is naturally presumed to be evil; but things may be mysterious in the events of human life, without the express intention of an individual to render them so. The specches of an assassin and conspirator will be dark; 'Randolph, an agent extremely proper for conducting any dark intrigue, was despatched into Scotland, and, residing secretly among the lords of the congregation, observed and quickened their motions.'-ROBERTSON. Any intricate affair which involves the characters and conduct of men may be mysterious; 'The affection which Mary in her letter expresses for Bothwell, fully accounts for every subsequent part of her conduct, which, without admitting this circumstance, appears altogether mysterious and inconsistent.'-Robertson

The same distinction exists between these terms when applied to the ways of Providence, which are said to be sometimes dark, inasmuch as they present a cloudy aspect; and mostly mysterious, inasmuch as they are past finding out.

UNSEARCHABLE, INSCRUTABLE.

These terms are both applied to the Almighty, but not altogether indifferently; for that which is unsearchable is not set at so great a distance from us as that which is inscrutable: for that which is searched is in common concerns easier to be found than that which requires a scrutiny. The ways of God are all, to us finite creatures, more or less unsearchable;

Things else by me unsearchable, now heard With wonder .- MILTON.

The mysterious plans of Providence as frequently evinced in the affairs of men are altogether inscrutable; To expect that the intricacies of science will be pierced by a careless glance, is to expect a particular privilege; but to suppose that the maze is inscrutable to diligence, is to enchain the mind in voluntary shackles.'-Johnson

OPAQUE, DARK.

Opaque, in Latin opacus, comes from ops the earth, because the earth is the darkest of all bodies; the word opaque is to dark as the species to the genus, for it expresses that species of darkness which is inherent in solid bodies, in distinction from those which emit light from themselves, or admit of light into themselves is therefore employed scientifically for the more vul-gar and familiar term dark. On this ground, the earth is termed an opaque body in distinction from the sun, moon, or other luminous bodies: any solid substance, 23 a tree or a stone, is an opaque body, in distinction from glass, which is a clear or transparent body.

But all sunshine, as when his beams at noon, Culminate from th' equator as they now Shot upward still, whence no way round Shadow from body opaque can fall .- MILTON.

SHADE, SHADOW.

Shade and shadow, in German schatten, are in all probability connected with the word shine, show, (v. To show, &c.)

Both these terms express that darkness which is occasioned by the sun's rays being intercepted by any body; but shade simply expresses the absence of the light, and shadow signifies also the figure of the body which thus intercepts the light. Trees naturally produce a shaae, by means of their branches and leaves: and wherever the image of the tree is reflected on the earth, that forms its shadew. It is agreeable in the heat of summer to sit in the shade;

Welcome, ye shades! ye bowery thickets, hail!

The constancy with which the shadow follows the man has been proverbially adopted as a simile for one who clings close to another;

At every step, Solemn and slow, the shadows blacker fall, And all is awful listening gloom around. THOMSON.

The distinction between these terms, in the moral sense, is precisely the same: a person is said to be in the *shade*, if he lives in obscurity, or unnoticed; "the law (says St. Paul) is a *shadow* of things to come."

TO DISAPPEAR, VANISH.

To disappear signifies not to appear (v. Air); vanish, in French evanir, Latin evaneo or evanesco, compounded of e and vaneo, in Greek φαίνω to appear, signifies to go out of sight.

To disappear comprehends no particular mode of action; to vanish includes in it the idea of a rapid motion. A thing disappears either gradually or suddenly; it vanishes on a sudden: it disappears in the ordinary course of things; it vanishes by an unusual effort, a supernatural or a magick power. Any object that recedes or moves away will soon disappear;

Red meteors ran across th' ethereal space, Stars disappear'd, and comets took their place DRYDEN.

In fairy tales things are made to vanish the instant they are beheld; 'While I was lamenting this sudden desolation that had been made before me, the whole seene vanished.—Addison. To disappear is often a temporary action; to vanish generally conveys the idea of being permanently lost to the sight. The stars appear and disappear in the firmament; lightning vanishes with a rapidity that is unequalled.

TO LOOK, APPEAR.

Look is here taken in the neuter and improper sense, signifying the act of things figuratively striving to be seen; appear, from the Latin appareo or pareo, Greek πάρειμι, signifies to be present or at hand, within sight.

The look of a thing respects the impressions which it makes on the senses, that is, the manner in which it looks; its appearance implies the simple act of its coming into sight; the look of any thing is therefore characterized as good or bad, mean or handsome, ugly or beautiful; the appearance is characterized as early or late, sudden or unexpected: there is something very unseemly in the look of a clergyman affecting the airs of a fine gentleman; the appearance of the stars in an evening presents an interesting view even to the ordinary beholder. As what appears must appear in some form, the signification of the term has been extended to the manner of the appearance, and brought still nearer to look in its application; in this case, the term look is rather more familiar than that of appearance: we may speak either of regarding the look or the appearance of a thing, as far as it may impress others; but the latter is less colloquial than the former: a man's conduct is said to look rather than to appear ill; but on the other hand, we say a thing assumes an appearance, or has a certain appearance

Look is always employed for what is real; what a thing looks is that which it really is: appear, however, sometimes refers not only to what is external, but to what is superficial. If we say a person looks ill, it supposes some positive and unequivocal evidence of supposes some positive and integritiveal evidence or illness: if we say he appears to be ill, it is a less positive assertion than the former; it leaves room for doubt, and allows the possibility of a mistake. We are at liberty to judge of things by their looks, without being chargeable with want of judgement; but as ap pearances are said to be deceifful, it becomes necessary to admit them with caution as the rule of our judge ment. Look is employed mostly in regard to objects of sense; appearance respects natural and moral ob

jects indifferently: the sky looks lowering; an object | appears through a microscope greater than it really is;

Distressful nature pants;
The very streams look languid from afar. THOMSON.

A person's conduct appears in a more culpable light when seen through the representation of an enemy; Never does liberty appear more amiable than under the government of a pious and good prince.'-Addison.

LOOK, GLANCE.

Look .v. Air) is the generick, and glance (v. To glance at) the specifick term; that is to say, a casual or momentary look: a look may be characterized as severe or mild, fierce or gentle, angry or kind; a glance as hasty or sudden, imperfect or slight; so likewise we speak of taking a look, or catching a glance;

Here the soft flocks, with the same harmless look They were alive.—Thomson.

The tiger, darting fierce Impetuous on his prey, the glance has doom'd. THOMSON.

TO LOOK, SEE, BEHOLD, VIEW, EYE

To Look, SEE, BEHOLD, VIEW, EY.

Look, in Saxon locan, Upper German lugen, comes from lux light, and the Greek $\lambda d\omega$ to see; see, in German schen, probably a variation from the Latin rideo to see behold, compounded of the intensive be and hold, signifies to hold or fix the eye on an object; view, from the French voir, and the Latin video, signifies simply to see; to eye, from the noun eye, naturally signifies to fathom with the eye.

We look voluntarily; we see involuntarily: the eye sees; the person looks: absent people often see things before they are fully conscious that they are at hand;

before they are fully conscious that they are at hand: we may look without seeing, and we may see without looking; near-sighted people often look at that which is too distant to strike the visual organ. To behold is to look at for a continuance; to view is to look at in all directions; to eye is to look at earnestly, and by side glances: that which is seen may disappear in an instant; it may strike the eye and be gone; but what is looked at must make some stay; consequently, lightning, and things equally fugitive and rapid in their flight, may be seen, but cannot be looked at.

To look at is the familiar, as well as the general term, in regard to the others; we look at things in general. which we wish to see, that is, to see them clearly, fully, and in all their parts; but we behold that which excites a moral or intellectual interest; 'The most unpardon able malefactor in the world going to his death, and bearing it with composure, would win the pity of those who should behold him.'-STEELE. We view that

which demands intellectual attention;

They climb the next ascent, and, looking down, Now at a nearer distance view the town; The prince with wonder sees the stately tow'rs (Which late were huts and shepherds' bow'rs). DRYDEN.

We eye that which gratifies any particular passion; Half afraid, he first Against the window beats, then brisk alights

On the warm hearth; then, hopping o'er the floor, Eyes all the smiling family askance.—Thomson.

An inquisitive child looks at things which are new to z, but does not behold them; we look at plants, or finery, or whatever gratifies the senses, but we do not behold them: on the other hand, we behold any spectacle which excites our admiration, our astonishment, our pity, or our love: we look at objects in order to observe their external properties; but we view them in conserve their external properties, on we brew their internal properties, their powers of motion and action, &c.: we look at things to gratify the curiosity of the moment, or for mere amusement; but the jealous man eyes his rival, in order to mark his movements, his designs, and his successes; the envious man eyes him who is in prosperity, with a malignant desire to see him humbled.

To look is an indifferent, to behold and view are good and honourable actions; to eye, as the act of persons, is commonly a mean, and even base action. LOOKER-ON, SPECTATOR, BEHOLDER, OBSERVER.

The looker-on and the spectator are both opposed to the agents or actors in any scene; but the former is still more abstracted from the objects he sees than the

A looker-on (v. To look) is careless; he has no part and takes no part in what he sees; he looks on, because the thing is before him, and he has nothing else to do: a spectator may likewise be unconcerned, but to do: a spectator may likevise be inconcerned, out in general he derives annusement, if nothing else, from what he sees. A clown may be a looker on, who with open mouth gapes at all that is before him, without understanding any part of it; but he who looks on to draw a moral lesson from the whole is in the moral lesson and the second of the look of the second of the look of the second of the look o sense not an uninterested spectator; 'Look many times see more than gamesters.'—Bacon. Lookers-on

But high in heaven they sit, and gaze from far, The tame spectators of his deeds of war .- POPE.

The beholder has a nearer interest than the specta tor; and the observer has an interest not less near than that of the beholder, but somewhat different the beholder has his affections roused by what he sees; Objects imperfectly discerned take forms from the hope or fear of the beholder."—Johnson. The observer has his understanding employed in that which passes before him; 'Swift was an exact observer of life.'—Johnson. The beholder indulges himself in life.'- Johnson. contemplation; the observer is busy in making it sub-servient to some proposed object; every beholder of our Saviour's sufferings and patience was struck with the conviction of his Divine character, not excepting even some of those who were his most prejudiced adversaries; every calm observer of our Saviour's words and actions was convinced of his Divine mission

TO SEE, PERCEIVE, OBSERVE.

See, in the man sehen, Greek θεάομαι, Hebrew is a general term; it may be either a voluntary or involuntary action; perceive, from the Latin per-cipio or per and capio to take into the mind, is always a voluntary action; and abserve (v. To notice) is an intentional action. The eye sees when the mind is absent; the mind and the eye perceive in conjunction: hence, we may say that a person sees, but does not perceive; we observe, not merely by a simple act of the mind, but by its positive and fixed exertion. We see a thing without knowing what it is; we perceive a thing, and know what it is, but the impression passes away; we observe a thing, and afterward retrace the image of it in our mind. We see a star when the eye image of it in our mind. We see a star when the eye is directed towards it; we perceive it move if we look at it attentively; we observe its position in different parts of the heavens. The blind cannot see, the absent cannot perceive, the dull cannot observe.

Seeing, as a corporeal action, is the act only of the eye; perceiving and observing are actions in which all the senses are concerned. We see colours, we perceive the state of the atmosphere, and observe its changes. Seeing is sometimes extended to the mind's operations, in which it has an indefinite meaning; but perceive and observe have both a definite sense may see a thing distinctly and clearly, or otherwise; we perceive it always with a certain degree of diswe perceive it always with a certain degree of dis-tinctness; and observe it with a positive degree of mi-nuteness: we see the truth of a remark; we perceive the force of an objection; we observe the reluctance of a person. It is farther to be observed, however, that when see expresses a mental operation, it expresses what is purely mental; perceive and observe are applied to such objects as are seen by the senses as well as the mind.

See is either employed as a corporeal or incorporeal action; perceive and observe are obviously a junction of the corporeal and incorporeal We see the light with our eyes, or we see the truth of a proposition with our mind's eye;

There plant eyes, all mist from thence Purge and disperse, that I may see and tell Of things invisible to mortal sight.—MILTON.

We perceive the difference of climate, or we perceive the difference in the comfort of our situation;

Sated at length, ere long I might perceive Strange alteration in me. - MILTON.

We observe the motions of the heavenly hodies; 'Every part of your last letter glowed with that warmth of friendship, which, though it was by no means new to e, I could not but observe with peculiar satisfaction.
MELMOTH (Letters of Cicero).

TO SEEM, APPEAR.

The idea of coming to the view is expressed by both these terms; but the word seem rises upon that of appear. Seem, from the Latin similis like, signifies literally to appear like, and is therefore a species of appearance, which is from the Latin apparco or pareo, and the Greek $\pi a p e t \mu n$ to be present, signifies to be present, or before the eye. Every object may appea x; but nothing seems, except that which the mind admits to appea r in any given form. To seem requires some reflection and comparison of objects in the mind one with another; this term is, therefore, peculiarly appli-cable to matters that may be different from what they appear, or of an indeterminate kind: that the sun seems to move, is a conclusion which we draw from the exercise of our senses, and by comparing this case with others of a similar nature; it is only by a farther re-search into the operations of nature that we discover this to be no conclusive proof of its motion. To appear, on the contrary, is the express act of the things themselves on us; it is, therefore, peculiarly applicable to such objects as make an impression on us: to appear is the same as to present itself; the stars appear in the firmament, but we do not say that they seem there; the sun appears dark through the clouds.

They are equally applicable to moral as well as natural objects with the above-mentioned distinction. Seem is said of that which is dubious, contingent, or future; appear of that which is actual, positive, and past. A thing seems strange which we are led to conclude as strange from what we see of it; a thing appears clear when we have a clear conception of it; a plan seems practicable or impracticable; an author appears to understand his subject, or the contrary. It seems as if all efforts to reform the bulk of mankind will be found inefficient; it appears from the long catalogue of vices which are still very prevalent, that little progress has hitherto been made in the work of

reformation;

Lash'd into foam, the fierce conflicting brine Seems o'er a thousand raging waves to burn. THOMSON!

O heavenly poet! such thy verse appears, So sweet, so charming to my ravish'd ears.—Drynen.

TO PERCEIVE, DISCERN, DISTINGUISH

Perceive, in Latin percipio, or per and cap's, signifies to take hold of thoroughly; discern, v. Discernment.

To perceive (r. To see) is a positive, to discern a relative, action: we perceive things by memselves; we discern them amid many others: we perceive that which is obvious; we discern that which is remote, which is obvious; we discern that which is remote, or which requires much attention to get an idea of it. We perceive by a person's looks and words what he intends; we discern the drift of his actions. We may perceive sensible or spiritual objects; we commonly discern only that which is spiritual; we perceive light, darkness, colours, or the truth or falsehood of any thing:

And lastly, turning inwardly her eyes, Perceives how all her own ideas rise .- JENYNS.

We discern characters, motives, the tendency and consequences of actions, &c.; One who is actuated by party spirit, is almost under an incapacity of discerning either real blemishes or beauties.—Addison. is the act of a child to perceive according to the quick-ness of its senses; it is the act of a man to discern according to the measure of his knowledge and under-

To discern and distinguish (v. Difference) approach the nearest in sense to each other; but the former signifies to see only one thing, the latter to see two or more in quick succession. We discern what lie in more in quick succession. We discern what lie in things; we distinguish things according to their outthings; we assinguish things according to the con-ward marks; we discern things in order to under-tand their essences; we distinguish in order not to con-tound them together. Experienced and discreet people

may discern the signs of the times; it is just to distinguish between an action done from inadvertence and that which is done from design. The conduct of people is sometimes so veiled by art, that it is not easy to discern their object; 'The custom of arguing on any side, even against our persuasions, dims the under-standing, and makes it by degrees lose the faculty of discerning between truth and falsehood.'—Locke. It is necessary to distinguish between practice and profession; 'Mr. Boyle observes, that though the mole be not totally blind (as is generally thought), she has not sight enough to distinguish objects.'—Addison

TO OBSERVE, WATCH.

These terms agree in expressing the act of looking at an object; but to observe (v. To notice) is not to look after so strictly as is implied by to vatch (v. To watch); a general observes the motions of an enemy when they are in no particular state of activity; he watches the motions of an enemy when they are in a state of commotion: we observe a thing in order to draw an inference from it; we watch any thing in order to discover what may happen: we observe with coolness; we watch with eagerness: we observe carefully; we watch narrowly: the conduct of mankind in general is observed;

Nor must the ploughman less observe the skies.

The conduct of suspicious individuals is watched:

For thou know'st What hath been warn'd us, what malicious foe Watches, no doubt, with greedy hope to find, His wish and best advantage, us asunder.—MILTON

WAKEFUL, WATCHFUL, VIGILANT.

We may be wakeful without being watchful; but we cannot be watchful without being wakeful

Wakejuluess is an affair of the body, and depends upon the temperament; watchfuluess is an affair of the will, and depends upon the determination. Some persons are more wakeful than they wish to be;

Musick shall wake her, that hath power to charm Pale sickness, and avert the stings of pain; Can raise or quell our passions, and becalm In sweet oblivion the too wakeful sense.—Fenton.

Few persons are as watchful as they ought to be; He who remembers what has fallen out will be watchful against what may happen. —South. Vigi-lance, from the Latin vigil, and the Greek ἀγαλλιάω to be on the alert, expresses a high degree of watchfulness; a sentinel is watchful who on ordinary oc-casions keeps good watch; but it is necessary for him, on extraordinary occasions, to be vigilant, in order to

off extraordinary occasions, to be organic, in order to detect whatever may pass.

We are watchful mostly in the proper sense of watching; but we may be vigilant in detecting moral as well as natural evils; 'Let a man strictly observe the first hints and whispers of good and evil that pass in his heart: this will keep conscience quick and vigi-lant.'—South.

TO ABSTRACT, SEPARATE, DISTINGUISH.

To abstract, from the Latin abstractum, participle of abstraho to draw from, signifies to draw one thing from another; separate, in Latin separatus, participle of separo, is compounded of se and paro to dispose apart, signifying to put things asunder, or at a distance from each other; distinguish, in French distinguer, Latin distingue, is compounded of the separative pre position dis and tingo to tinge or colour, signifying to give different marks by which things may be known from each other.

Abstract is used for the most part in the moral or spiritual sense; separate mostly in a physical sense: distinguish either in a moral or physical sense; we abstract what we wish to regard particularly and individually; we separate what we wish not to be united; we distinguish what we wish not to confound. The mind performs the office of abstraction for itself; separating and distinguishing are exerted on external objects.* Arrangement, place, time, and circum-

* Vide Abbe Girard: "Distinguer, separer,

stances serve to separate: the ideas formed of things, the outward marks attached to them, the qualities at

tributed to them serve to distinguish.

By the operation of abstraction the mind creates for itself a multitude of new ideas: in the act of separation bodies are removed from each other by distance of place: in the act of distinguishing objects are discovered to be similar or distinguishing. covered to be similar or dissimilar. Qualities are abstracted from the subjects in which they are in-Qualities are their inhabitants are separated by mountains or seas: their inhabitants are distinguished by their dress, language, or manners. The mind is never less abstracted from one's friends than when separated from them by immense oceans: it requires a keen eye to distinguish objects that bear a great resemblance to each other. Volatile persons easily abstract their minds from the most solemn scenes to fix them on trifling objects that pass before them; 'We ought to abstract our minds from the observation of an excellence in those we con-Verse with, till we have received some good informa-tion of the disposition of their minds.'—STEELE. An unsocial temper leads some men to separate them-selves from all their companions; 'It is an eminent instance of Newton's superiority to the rest of man-kind that he was able to separate knowledge from those weaknesses by which knowledge is generally disgraced.—Jounson. An absurd ambition leads disgraced.—Joinson. An absurd ambition leads others to distinguish themselves by their eccentricities; 'Fontenelle, in his panegyrick on Sir Isaac Newton, closes a long enumeration of that philosopher's virtues and attainments with an observation that he was not distinguished from other men by any singularity either natural or affected.'-Johnson.

ABSENT, ABSTRACTED, DIVERTED, DISTRACTED.

Absent, in French absent, Latin absens, comes from ab and sum to be from, signifying away or at a distance from all objects; abstracted, in French abstrait, Latin abstractus, participie of abstraho, or ab and traho to draw from, signifies drawn or separated from all objects; diverted, in French divertir, Latin diverto, compounded of di or dis asunder and verto to turn, signifies to turn aside from the object that is present; distracted of course implies drawn asunder by different

A want of attention is implied in all these terms, but in different degrees and under different circum-

Absent and abstracted denote a total exclusion of present objects; diverted and distracted a misapplied attention to surrounding objects, an attention to such things as are not the immediate object of concern.

Absent and abstracted differ less in sense than in application: the former is an epithet expressive either of a habit or a state, and precedes the noun; the latter expresses a state only, and is never adjoined to the noun: we say, a man is absent or an absent man; he is abstracted, but not an abstracted man, although when applied to other objects it may be applied to denote a temporary state;

A voice, than human more, th' abstracted ear Of fancy strikes, "Be not afraid of us, Poor kindred man."—Thomson.

We are absent or abstracted when not thinking on what passes before us; we are diverted when we listen to any other discourse than that which is addressed to we are distracted when we listen to the discourse

of two persons at the same time.

The absent man has his mind and person never in the same place: he is abstracted from all the surroundthe same place: he is abstracted from an ine source ing scenes; his senses are locked up from all the objects that seek for admittance; he is often at Rome while walking the streets of London, or solving a replace of Euclid in a social party; 'Theophrasus problem of Euclid in a social party; 'Theophrastus called one who barely rehearsed his speech, with his eyes fixed, an "absent actor." — HUGHES. The man who is diverted seeks to be present at every thing; he is struck with every thing, and ceases to be attentive to one thing in order to direct his regards to another; he turns from the right to the left, but does not stop to hink on any one point; 'The mind is refrigerated by netruption; the thoughts are discreted from the prindpal subject; the reader is weary, he knows not why.'

—Johnson (Preface to Shakspeare). The distracted former to persons, as well as things: a thing becomes

man can be present at nothing, as all objects strike him with equal force; his thoughts are in a state of vacil-lation and confusion; 'He used to rave for his Ma-rianne, and call upon her in his distracted fits.'-ADDISON

A habit of profound study sometimes causes ab sence; it is well for such a mind to be sometimes diverted: the ardent contemplation of any one subject occasions frequent abstractions; if they are too frequent, or ill-timed, they are reprehensible: the juvenile and versatile mind is most prone to be diverted; it follows the bias of the senses, which are caught by the outward surface of things; it is impelled by curiosity to look rather than to think: a well-regulated mind is rarely exposed to distractions, which result from con trariety of feeling, as well as thinking, peculiar to persons of strong susceptibility or dull comprehension.

The absent man neither derives pleasure from so

ciety, nor imparts any to it; his resources are in him-self. The man who is easily dwerted is easily pleased; but he may run the risk of displeasing others by the distractions of his mind. The distracted man is a

burden to himself and others.

TO DISTINGUISH, DISCRIMINATE.

To distinguish (v. To abstract) is the general, to discriminate (v. Discernment) is the particular, term. the former is an indefinite, the latter a definite, action To discriminate is in fact to distinguish specifically; hence we speak of a distinction as true or false, but

of a discrimination as nice.

We distinguish things as to their divisibility or unity; we discriminate them as to their inherent properties: we distinguish things that are alike or unlike to separate or collect them; we discriminate those that are different, for the purpose of separating one from the other: we distinguish by means of the senses as well as the understanding; we discriminate by the understanding only: we distinguish things by their colour, or we distinguish moral objects by their truth or falsehood:

'T is easy to distinguish by the sight The colour of the soil, and black from white

We discriminate the characters of men, or we dis criminate their merits according to circumstances; 'A satire should expose nothing but what is corrigible, and make a due discrimination between those who are and those who are not the proper objects of it.'-ADDISON.

TO DIVIDE, SEPARATE, PART.

To divide signifies the same as in the preceding; to scparule, in Latin separatus, participle of separo, or se apar, and paro to dispose, signifies to put things asunder, or at a distance from each other; to part

That is saw to be divided which has been, or is conceived to be, a whole; that is separated which might be joined: a river divides a town by running through it;

Nor cease your sowing till mid-winter ends, For this, through twelve bright signs Apollo guides The year, and earth in several climes divide.

DRYDEN.

Mountains or seas separate countries; 'Can a body he inflammable from which it would puzzle a chymist to separate an inflammable ingredient?'—BOYLE. To divide does not necessarily include a separation; although a separation supposes a division; an army may be divided into larger or smaller portions, and yet remain united; but during a march, or an engagement,

these companies are frequently separated.

Opinions, hearts, minds, &c. may be divided; corporeal bodies only are separated: the minds of men are often most divided, when in person they are least separated; and those, on the contrary, who are sepa-rated at the greatest distance from each other may be the least divided; 'Where there is the greatest and most honourable love, it is sometimes better to be joined in death, than separated in life.'—STEELE. To part approaches pages to separate this.

smaller oy being divided; 'If we divide the life of most men into twenty parts, we shall find at least nineteen of them filled with gaps and chasms, which are neither filled up with pleasure or business.'—
Addison. One thing loses its junction with, or cohesion to, another, by being parted: a loaf of bread is divided by being cut into two; two loaves are parted

which have been baked together.

Sometimes part, as well as divide, is used in the application of that which is given to several, in which ease they bear the same analogy as before: several case they bear the same analogy as before; several things are parted, one thing is divided; a man's personal effects may be parted, by common consent, among his children; but his estate, or the value of it, must be divided; whatever can be disjoined without lesing its integrity is parted, otherwise it is divided; in this sense our Saviour's garments are said to have been parted, because they were distinct things; but the ves ture which was without seam must have been divided if they had not cast lots for it.

As disjunction is the common idea attached to both separate and part, they are frequently used in relation to the same objects: houses may be both separated and parted; they are parted by that which does not keep them at so great a distance, as when they are said to be separated: two houses are parted by a small opening between them; they are separated by an intervening garden: fields are with more propriety said to be separated; rooms are said more properly to be

parted.

With regard to persons, part designates the actual leaving of the person; separate is used in general for that which lessens the society: the former is often casual, temporary, or partial; the latter is positive and serious: the parting is momentary;

The prince pursu'd the parting deity With words like these, "Ah, whither do you fly?

Unkind and cruel to deceive your son."-DRYDEN. The separation may be longer or shorter; 'I pray let me retain some room, though never so little, in your thoughts, during the time of this our separation.'— HOWELL. Two friends part in the streets after a casual meeting; two persons separate on the road who had set out to travel together: men and their wives often part without coming to a positive separation; some couples are separated from each other in every respect but that of being directly parted; the moment of parting between friends is often more painful than the separation which afterward ensues.

TO DIVIDE, DISTRIBUTE, SHARE.

To divide, in Latin divido, from di or dis and vido, in the Etruscan iduo to part, which comes from the Greek ϵ_{ls} $\delta \delta \omega$ into two, signifies literally to make into two; distribute, in Latin distributus, from distribuo, or dis and tribuo, signifies to bestow apart; share, from the word shear, and the German scheeren, signifies sim-

ply to cut.

The act of dividing does not extend beyond the thing divided; that of distributing and sharing comprehends also the purpose of the action: we divide the thing; we distribute to the person: we may divide therefore without distributing; or we may divide in order to distribute: thus we divide our land into distinct fields for our private convenience; or we divide a sum of money into so many parts, in order to distribute it among a given number of persons;

Let old Timotheus yield the prize, Or both divide the crown

He rais'd a mortal to the skies She drew an angel down .- DRYDEN.

Two urns by Jove's high throne have ever stood The source of evil one, and one of good; From thence the cup of mortal man he fills Blessings to these, to those distributes ill. - POPE.

On the other hand, we may distribute without dividing : for guineas, books, apples, and many other things may be distributed, which require no division.

To share is to make into parts the same as divide, and it is to give those parts to some persons, the same as distribute: but the person who shares takes a part

Why grieves my son? Thy anguish let me share, Reveal the cause, and trust a parent's care.—Pope.

He who distributes gives it always to others; 'Provi dence has made an equal distribution of natural gifts whereof each creature severally has a share.'--L'Es TRANGE. A loaf is divided in order to be eaten bread is distributed in loaves among the poor; the loaf is shared by a poor man with his poorer neighbour, or the profits of a business are shared by the partners.

To share may imply either to give or receive; to distribute implies giving only: we share our own with another, or another shares what we have; but we distribute our own to others; 'They will be so much the more careful to determine properly as they shall (will) be obliged to share the expenses of maintaining the masters.'—Melmoth (Letters of Pliny).

TO DISPENSE, DISTRIBUTE.

Dispense, from the Latin pendo to pay or bestow, signifies to bestow in different directions; and distribute, from the Latin tribuo to bestow, signifies the same

Dispense is an indiscriminate action; distribute is a particularizing action: we dispense to all; we distri-bute to each individually: nature dispenses her gifts bountifully to all the inhabitants of the earth;

Though Nature weigh our talents, and dispense To every man his modicum of sense

Yet much depends, as in the tiller's toil,

On culture, and the sowing of the soil.

A parent distributes among his children different tokens of his parental tenderness; 'Pray be no niggard in distributing my love plentifully among our friends at the inns of court.'—Howell.

Dispense is an indirect action that has no immediate

reference to the receiver; distribute is a direct and personal action communicated by the giver to the receiver: Providence dispenses his favours to those who put a sincere trust in him; 'Those to whom Christ has committed the dispensing of his Gospel.'—Decay or Piety. A prince distributes marks of his favour and preference among his courtiers; 'The king sent over a great store of gentlemen and warlike people, among whom he distributed the land.'—Spenser on Ireland.

PART, DIVISION, PORTION, SHARE.

Part, in Latin pars, comes from the Hebrew to divide, signifying the thing divided or parted from another; division signifies the same as portion; por-tion, in Latin portio, is supposed to be changed from partio, which comes from partior to distribute, and originally from the Hebrew, as the word part; share, in Saxon scyran to divide, comes in all probability from the Hebrew שרך to remain, that is, what remains after a division.

Part is a term not only of more general use, but of more comprehensive meaning than division; it is always employed for the thing divided, but division may be either employed for the act of dividing, or the thing that is divided: but in all cases the word division has always a reference to some action, and the agent by whom it has been performed; whereas part, which is perfectly abstract, has altogether lost this idea. We always speak of a part as opposed to the whole, but of a division as it has been made of the whole.

A part is formed of itself by accident, or made by design; a division is always the effect of design: a part is indefinite as to its quantity or nature, it may be large or small, round or square, of any dimension, of any form, of any size, or of any character; but a division is always regulated by some certain principles, it de-pends upon the circumstances of the divisor and thing to be divided. A page, a line, or a word is the part of any book; but the books, chapters, sections, and para-graphs are the divisions of the book. Stones, wood, water, air, and the like, are parts of the world; fire, air, earth, and water are physical divisions of the globe; continents, seas, rivers, mountains, and the like, are geographical divisions, under which are likewise included its political divisions into countries, kingdoms, &c.;

Shall little haughty Ignorance pronounce His works unwise, of which the smallest part Exceeds the narrow vision of her mind?—Thomson

ple.'-BLAIR

A part may be detached from the whole; a division is always conceived of in connexion with the whole; portion and share are particular species of divisions, which are said of such matters as are assignable to individuals; portion respects individuals without any distinction:

The jars of gen'rous wine, Acestes' gift, He set abroach, and for the feast prepar'd. In equal portions with the ven'son shar'd. DRYDEN.

Share respects individuals specially referred to;

The monarch, on whom fertile Nile bestows All which that grateful earth can bear, Deceives himself if he suppose

That more than this falls to his share .- COWLEY.

The portion of happiness which falls to every man's lot is more equal than is generally supposed; the share which partners have in the profits of any undertaking depends upon the sum which each has contributed towards its completion. The portion is that which simply comes to any one; but the share is that which samply comes to any one; but the share is that which belongs to him by a certain right. According to the ancient customs of Normandy, the daughters could have no more than a third part of the property for their share, which was divided in equal portions between them.

PART, PIECE, PATCH.

Part signifies the same as in the preceding article; piece, in French piece, comes from the Hebrew DD to diminish; whence also comes patch, signifying the The part in its strict sense is taken in connexion with the whole; the piece is the part detached from the whole; the patch is that piece which is distinguished from others. Things may be divided into parts without any express separation; but when divided into preces they are actually cut asunder. Hence we may speak of a loaf as divided into twelve parts when it is conceived only to be so; and divided into twelve pieces, when it is really so. On this ground, we talk of the parts of a country, but not of the pieces; and of a piece of land, not a part of land: so likewise letters said to be the component parts of a word, but the half or the quarter of any given letter is called a piece. The chapters, the pages, the lines, &c. are the various The chapters, the pages, the lines, &c. are the various parts of a book; certain passages or quantities drawn from the book are called pieces: the parts of matter may be infinitely decomposed; various bodies may be formed out of so ductile a piece of matter as clay. The piece is that which may sometimes serve as a whole; but the patch is that which is always broken and disjointed,—something imperfect: many things may be formed out of a piece; but the patch only serves to fill up a classur. serves to fill up a chasm.

TO PARTAKE, PARTICIPATE, SHARE.

Partake and participate, the one English, and the other Latin, signify literally to take a part in a thing. The former is employed in the proper or improper sense; and the latter in the improper sense only; may partake of a feast, or we may partake of pleasure; we participate only in pleasure or pain, &c.

To partake is a selfish action; to participate is either a selfish or a benevolent action: we partake of that

which pleases ourselves;

All else of nature's common gift partake, Unhappy Dido was alone awake. - DRYDEN. We participate in that which pleases another;

Our God, when heav'n and earth he did create, Form'd man, who should of both participate DENHAM.

We partake of a meal with a friend; we participate in gifts of Providence, or in the enjoyments which another feels.

To partake is the act of taking the thing, or getting to partane is the act of taking the unity, or getting the thing to one's self; to share is the act of having a title to a share, or being in the habits of receiving a share's we may, therefore, partake of a thing without sharing it, and share it without partaking. We par-

A division (in a discourse) should be natural and sim- | take of things mostly through the medium of the senses; whatever, therefore, we take part in, whether gratuitously or casually, that we may be said to partake of in this manner we partake of an entertainment with out sharing it; or we partake in a design, &c.;

> By-and-by, thy bosom shall partake The secrets of my heart .- SHAKSPEARE.

On the other hand, we share things that promise to be of advantage or profit, and what we share is what we claim; in this manner we share a sum of money which has been left to us in common with others;

Avoiding love, I had not found despair, But shar'd with savage beasts the common air. DRYDEN.

DEAL, QUANTITY, PORTION.

Deal, in Saxon dæl, Dutch deel, and German theil, from dælen, theilen, &cc. to divide, signifies literally the thing divided or taken off; quantity, in Latin quantitas, comes from quantum, signifying how much; portion, through the Latin pars and portio, comes from the Hebrew 27 3 to divide, signifying, like the word deal, the thing taken off.

Deal always denotes something great, and cannot be coupled with any epithet that does not express much: quantity is a term of relative import; it either marks definitely the how, or so much of a thing, or may be defined by some epithet to express much or little: portion is of itself altogether indefinite, and admits of being qualified by any epithet to express much or little: deal is a term confined to familiar use, and sometimes substituted for quantity, and son.etimes for portion. It is common to speak of a deal or a quantity of paper, a great deal or a great quantity of money; likewise of a great dead or a great portion of pleasure, a great dead or a great portion of wealth: and in some cases dead is more usual than either quantity or portion, as a dead of heat, a deal of rain, a deal of frost, a deal of noise, and the like; but it is altogether inadmissible in the higher style of writing; 'This, my inquisitive temper, nigner style of writing; Ins, my mighistive temper, or rather impertinent humour, of prying into all sorts of writing, with my natural aversion to loquacity, gives me a good deal of employment when I enter any house in the country.—Addison. 'There is never room in the world for more than a certain quantity or measure of renown.'—Johnson.

Portion is employed only for that which is detached Fortion is simplyed only to that which is extended from the whole; quantity may sometimes be employed for a number of wholes. We may speak of a large or a small quantity of books; a large or a small quantity of plants or herbs; but a large or a small portion of food, a large or small portion of colour. Quantity is used only in the natural sense: portion also in the moral application, and mostly in the sense of a stated quantity. Material substances, as wood, stone, metals, and liquids, are necessarily considered with regard to quantity; the qualities of the mind and the circumstances of human life are divided into portions. builder estimates the quantity of materials which he will want for the completion of a house; the work man estimates the portion of labour which the work

will require:

In battles won, fortune a part did claim, And soldiers have their portion in the fame.

WALLER

TO COMMUNICATE, IMPART.

Communicate, in Latin communicatus, participle of communico, contracted from communifico, signifies to make common property with another; impart, compounded of in and part, signifies to give in part to

Imparting is a species of communicating; one alays communicates in imparting, but not vice versa. Whatever can be enjoyed in common with others is

communicated; whatever can be shared by another is imparted; what one knows or thinks is communicated, or made commonly known; what one feels is imparted and participated in: intelligence or information is communicated; 'A man who publishes his works in a volume has an infinite advantage over one who communicates his writings to the world in loose tracts'-Addison. Secrets or sorrows are imparted;

Let hear what an unskilful friend may say,

As if a blind man should direct your way: So I myself, though wanting to be taught,

May yet impart a hint that's worth your thought.

Golding.

Those who always communicate all they hear, sometimes communicate more than they really know; it is the characteristick of friendship to allow he votaries to impart their joys and sorrows to each other.

A person may communicate what belongs to another, as well as that which is his own; but he imparts that only which concerns or belongs to himself: an openness of temper leads some men to communicate their intentions as soon as they are formed; loquacity impels others to communicate whatever is told them: a generosity of temper leads some men to impart their substance for the relief of their fellow-creatures; a desire for sympathy leads others to impart their sentiments. There is a great pleasure in communicating good intelligence and in imparting good advice.

COMMUNICATIVE, FREE,

Are epithets that convey no respectful sentiment of the object to which they are applied: a person is communicative, who is ready to tell all he knows; he is free, when he is ready to say all he thinks: the communicative person has no regard for himself; the free person has no regard for others.

A communicative temper leads to the breach of all confidence; a free temper leads to violation of all decency: communicativeness of disposition produces much mischief; freedom of speech and behaviour occasions much offence. Communicativeness is the excess of sincerity; it offends by revealing what it ought to conceal: freedom is the abuse of sincerity; it offends by speaking what it ought not to think.

These terms are sensitive taken in a read.

These terms are sometimes taken in a good sense; when a person is communicative for the instruction or anusement of others, and is free in imparting to others whatever he can of his enjoyments; 'The most miserable of all beings is the most envious; as on the other hand the most communicative is the happiest.'—Grove. 'Aristophanes was in private life of a free, open, and companionable temper.'—Cumberland.

COMMUNION, CONVERSE.

Communion, from commune and common, signifies the act of making common (v. Common); converse, from the Latin converto to convert or translate, signifies a transferring.

Both these terms imply a communication between minds; but the former may take place without corporeal agency, the latter never does; spirits hold communion with each other, or men may hold spiritual communion with God; 'Where a long course of piety and close communion with God has purged the heart and rectified the will, knowledge will break in upon such a soul.'—South. People hold converse together;

In varied converse softening every theme, You frequent pausing turn; and from her eyes, Where meeken'd sense, and amiable grace, And lively sweetness dwell, enraptured trink

That nameless spirit of ethereal joy.—Thomson.

For the same reason a man may hold communion with himself; he holds converse always with another.

COMMUNITY, SOCIETY.

Both these terms are employed for a body of rational beings; community, from communitas and communis common (v. Common), signifies abstractedly the state of being common, and in an extended sense those who are in a state of common possession; society, in Latin societas, from socius a companion, signifies the state of being companions, or those who are in that state.

Community in any thing constitutes a community; a common interest, a common language, a common government, is the basis of that community which is formed by any number of individuals; communities are therefore divisible into large or small; the former may be states, the latter families; 'Was there ever any community so corrupt as not to include within it individuals of real worth?—Blair. The coming to-

gether of many constitutes a society; societies are either private or publick, according to the purpose for which they meet together; friends form societies for the purpose of pleasure; indifferent persons form societies for the purposes of business; 'The great community of mankind is necessarily broken into smaller independent societies.'—Johnson.

Community has always a restrictive and relative sense; society has a general and unlimited import: the most dangerous members of the community are those who attempt to poison the minds of youth with contempt for religion and disaffection to the state; the morals of society are thus corrupted as it were at the fountain-head.

Community refers to spiritual as well as corporeal agents; society mostly to human beings only: the agnels, the saints, and the spirits of just men made perfect, constitute a community; with them there is more communion than association.

CONVIVIAL, SOCIAL, SOCIABLE.

Convivial, in Latin convivialis, from convivo to live together, signifies being entertained together; social, from socius a companion, signifies pertaining to company

The prominent idea in convivial is that of sensual indulgence; the prominent idea in social is that of enjoyment from an intercourse with society. The convivial is a species of the social; it is the social in matters of festivity. What is convivial is social, but what is social is something more; the former is excelled by the latter as much as the body is excelled by the latter as much as the body is excelled enjoyments, or the convivial meetings, convivial enjoyments, or the convivial more productions, social pleasure, social amusements, and the like; it is related by Carte, of the Duke of Ormond, that he used often to pass a night with Dryden, and those with whom Dryden consorted; who they were Carte has not told, but certainly the convivial table at which Ormond sat was not surrounded with a plebelan society.—Johnson. 'Plato and Socrates shared many social hours with Aristophanes.'—Cumberland.

Social signifies belonging or allied to a companion, having the disposition of a companion; sociable, from the same root, signifies able or fit to be a companion; the former is an active, the latter a passive quality: social people seek others; sociable people are sought for by others. It is possible for a man to be social and not sociable; to be sociable and not social: he who draws his pleasures from society without communicating his share to the common stock of entertainments is social but not sociable; men of a tacitum disposition are often in this case; they receive more than they give: he, on the contrary, who has talents to please company, but not the inclination to go into company, may be sociable, but is seldom social; of this description are humorists who go into company to gratify their pride, and stay away to indulge their humour. Social and sociable are likewise applicable to things, with a similar distinction; social intercourse is that intercourse which men have together for the purposes of society; social pleasures are what they enjoy by associating together;

Social friends, Attun'd to happy unison of soul.—Thomson.

A path or a carriage is denominated sociable which encourages the association of many; 'Sciences are of a sociable disposition, and flourish best in the neighbourhood of each other.'—BLACKSTONE.

SOCIETY, COMPANY.

Society (v. Association) and company (v. Association) here express either the persons associating or the act of associating.

In either case, society is a general, and company a particular, term; as respects persons associating, society comprehends either all the associated part of mankind, as when we speak of the laws of society, the well-being of society; or it is said only of a particular number of individuals associated: in which latter case it comes nearest to company, and differs from it only as to the purpose of the association. A society is always formed for some solid purpose, as the Humane Society: and

the company is always brought together for pleasure or | an association for the support of one another against

profit, as has already been observed.

Good sense teaches us the necessity of conforming to the rules of the society to which we belong; good breeding prescribes to us to render ourselves agreeable to the company of which we form a part.

When expressing the abstract action of associating, society is even more general and indefinite than before it expresses that which is common to mankind; and company that which is peculiar to individuals. The love of society is inherent in our nature; it is weakened or destroyed only by the vice of our constitution or the derangement of our system;

Solitude sometimes is best society, And short retirement urges sweet return.—MILTON. Every one naturally likes the company of his own friends and connexions in preference to that of strangers. Society is a permanent and habitual act; company is only a particular act suited to the occasion; it behooves us to shun the society of those from whom we can learn no good, although we may sometimes be obliged to be in their company. The societ of intelligent men is desirable for those who are en The society tering life; the company of facetious men is agreeable in travelling; 'Company, though it may reprieve a man from his melancholy, cannot secure him from his conscience.'-South.

ASSOCIATE, COMPANION.

Associate, in Latin associatus, participle of associo, compounded of as or ad and socio to ally, signifies one united with a person; companion, from company, signifies one that bears company (v. To accompany)

Associates are habitually together; companions are only occasionally in each other's company: as our habits are formed from our associates, we ought to be particular in our choice of them; as our companions contribute much to our enjoyments, we ought to choose such as are suitable to ourselves; 'We see many strug-gling single about the world, unhappy for want of an associate, and pining with the necessity of confining their sentiments to their own bosoms.'-Johnson. Many men may be admitted as companions, who would not altogether be fit as associates; 'There is a degree of want by which the freedom of agency is almost destroyed, and long association with fortuitous companions will at last relax the strictness of truth, and abate

the fervour of sincerity."—Johnson.

An associate may take part with us in some business, and share with us in the labour; 'Addison contributed more than a fourth part (of the last volume of the Spectator), and the other contributors are by no means unworthy of appearing as his associates.'-JOHNSON. A companion takes part with us in some concern, and shares with us in the pleasure or the pain;

Thus while the cordage stretch'd ashore may guide Our brave companions through the swelling tide; This floating lumber shall sustain them o'er

The rocky shelves, in safety to the shore .- FALCONER.

ASSOCIATION, SOCIETY, COMPANY, PARTNERSHIP.

All these terms denote a union of several persons

into one body.

Association (v. To associate) is general, the rest Whenever we habitually or frequently meet specifick. Whenever we habitually or frequently meet together for some common object, it is an association. Associations are therefore political, religious, commercial, and literary; a society is an association for some specifick purpose, moral or religious, civil or political; a company is, in this application of the term, an asso-

a company is, in this application of the term, an asso-ciation of many for the purpose of trade; a partner-ship is an association of a few for the same object. Whenever association is used in distinction from the others, it denotes that which is partial in its ob-ject and temporary in its duration. It is founded on unity of sentiment as well as unity of object; but it is mostly unorganized, and kept together only by the spirit which gives rise to it. It is not, however, the less dangerous on this account; and when politicks are the subject, it commonly breathes a spirit hostile to the established order of things; as the last thirty years have evinced to us by woful experience; 'For my own part, I could wish that all honest men would enter into

the endeavours of those whom they ought to look upon as their common enemies, whatever side they may belong to.'-Addison.

A society requires nothing but unity of object, which is permanent in its nature; it is well organized, and commonly set on foot to promote the cause of humanity, literature, or religion. No country can boast such numerous and excellent societies, whether of a charitable, a religious, or a literary description, as England; 'What I humbly propose to the publick is, that there may be a society erected in London to consist of the most skilful persons of both sexes, for the inspection of modes and fashions.'-Budgell

Companies are brought together for the purposes of interest, and are dissolved when that object ceases to exist; their duration depends on the contingencies of profit and loss. The South Sea Company, which was founded on an idle speculation, was formed for the ruin of many, and dispersed almost as soon as it was formed. The East India Company, on the other hand, which is one of the grandest that ever was raised, promises as much permanency as is commonly allotted to human transactions; 'The nation is a company of players.'-

ADDISON.

Partnerships are altogether of an individual and private nature. As they are without organization and system, they are more precarious than any other association. Their duration depends not only on the chances of trade, but the compatibility of individuals to co-operate in a close point of union. They are often begun rashly and end ruinously; 'Gay was the general favourite of the whole association of wits; but they regarded him as a playfellow rather than a part-ner, and treated him with more fondness than respect.' -Johnson. The term partnership is sometimes used figuratively, in reference to other objects; 'Society is a partnership in all science; a partnership in every virtue and in all perfection.'—BURKE

ASSOCIATION, COMBINATION.

Association, v. Associate; combination, from the Latin combino, or con and binus, signifies tying two into one

An association is something less binding than a com-bination; associations are formed for purposes of convenience; combinations are formed to serve either the interests or passions of men. The word associa-tion is therefore always taken in a good or an indifferent sense; combination in an indifferent or bad sense. An association is publick; it embraces all classes of men: a combination is often private, and includes only a particular description of persons. Associations are formed for some general purpose; 'In my yesterday's paper I proposed that the lonest men of all parties should enter into a kind of association for the defence of one another."—Addison. Combinations are frequently formed for particular purposes, which respect the interest of the few, to the injury of many; 'The cry of the people in cities and towns, though unfortunately (from a fear of their multitude and combination) the most regarded, ought in fact to be the least regarded, on the subject of monopoly.'-BURKE. Associations on the sunject of inclinations, are formed by good citizens; combinations by discontented mechanicks, or low persons in general. ter term may, however, be used in a good sense when taken for the general act of combining, in which case it expresses a closer union than association; 'There is no doubt but all the safety, happiness, and convenience that men enjoy in this life, is from the combination of particular persons into societies or corporations. -SOUTH.

When used for things, association is a natural action; combination an arbitrary action. Things associate of themselves, but combinations are formed either by design or accident. Nothing will associate but what harmonizes: things the most opposite in their nature are combined together. We associate persons with places, or events with names: discordant proper ties are combined in the same body. With the name of one's birthplace are associated pleasurable recollections; virtue and vice are often so combined in the same character as to form a contrast. The association of ideas is a remarkable phenomenon of the human mind, but it can never be admitted as solving any dif ficulty respecting the structure and composition of the soul; 'Meekness and courtesy will always recommend the first address, but soon pall and nauseate unless they are associated with more sprightly qualities;— Jounson. The combination of letters forms syllables, and that of syllables forms words; 'Before the time of Dryden, those happy combinations of words which distinguish poetry from prose had been rarely attempted.'—Jounson.

COMBINATION, CABAL, PLOT, CONSPIRACY.

Combination, v. Association, combination; cabal, in French cabale, comes from the Hebrew kabala, signifying a secret science, pretended to by the Jewish Rabbi, whence it is applied to any association that has a pretended secret; plot, in French complot, is derived, like the word complicate, from the Latin plico to entangle, signifying any intricate or dark concern; conspiration, from con and spiro to breathe together, signifies the having one spirit.

An association for a bad purpose is the idea common to all these terms, and peculiar to combination. A combination may be either secret or open, but secreey forms a necessary part in the signification of the other terms; a cabal is secret as to its end; a plot and conspiracy are secret both as to the means and the end.

Combination is the close adherence of many for their mutual defence in obtaining their demands, or resisting the claims of others. A sabal is the intrigue of a party or faction, formed by cunning practices in order to give a turn to the course of things to its own advantage: the natural and ruling idea of cabal is that of assembling a number, and maneuvring secretly with address. A plot is a clandestine union of some persons for the purpose of mischief: the ruling idea in a plot is that of a complicated enterprise formed in secret, by two or more persons. A conspiracy is a general intelligence among persons united to effect some serious change: the ruling and natural idea in this word is that of unanimity and concert in the prosecution of a plan.

A combination is seldom of so serious a nature as a cabat or a plot, though always objectionable; a combination may have many or few. A cabat requires a number of persons sufficient to form a party, it gains strength by numbers; a plot is generally confined to a few, it diminishes its security by numbers; a conspiracy mostly requires many for the fulfilment of its purposes, although it is thereby the more exposed to

discovery.

Selfishness, insubordination, and laxity of morals give rise to combinations; they are peculiar to mechanicks, and the lower orders of society; 'The protector, dreading combinations between the parliament and the malecontents in the army, resolved to allow no leisure for forming conspiracies against him.'—Hume. Restless, jealous, ambitious, and little minds are ever forming cabals; they are peculiar to contriers;

I see you court the crowd,
When with the shouts of the rebellious rabble,
I see you borne on shoulders to cabuls.—DRYDEN.

Malignity, revenge, and every foul passion is concerned in forming plots;

Oh! think what anxious moments pass between The birth of plots, and their last fatal periods.

Approximately, and their last fatal periods.

Disaffected subjects and bad citizens form conspiracies, which are frequently set on foot by disappointed ambition;

O Conspiracy! Sham'st thou to show thy dangerous brow by night, When evils are most free.—Shakspeare.

The object of a combination, although not less formidable than the others, is not always so criminal; it rests on a question of claims which it proposes to decide by force; the end is commonly as unjustifiable as the means: to this description are the combinations formed by journeymen against their masters, which are expressly contrary to law. The object of a cabal is always petty, and mostly contemptible; its end is to gain favour, credit, and influence; to be the distributor of places, honours, emoluments, reputation, and all

* Vide Roubaud: "Cabale, complot, conspiration,

such contingencies as are eagerly sought for by the great mass of mankind: at court it makes and unmakes ministers, generals, and officers; in the republick of letters it destroys the reputation of authors, and blasts the success of their works; in publick societies it stops the course of equity, and nips merit in the bud; in the world at large it is the never-ending source of vexation, broils, and animosities. A plot has always the object of committing some atrocity, whether of a private or publick nature, as the murder or plunder of individuals, the traitorous surrender of a town, or the destruction of something very valuable. Astarba in Telema-chus is represented as having formed a plot for the poisoning of Pygmalion: the annihilation of the English government was the object of that plot which re ceived the name of gunpowder treason. of a conspiracy is oftener to bring about some evil change in publick than in private concerns; it is com monly directed against the governour, in order to over turn the government: in a republick, conspiracies are justified and hailed as glorious events when sanctioned by success: the conspiracy of Brutus against Cresar is always represented by the favourers of a republick as a magnanimous exploit. Where every man can rule, there will always be usurpers and tyrants, and where every man has an equal right to set himself up against his ruler, there will never be wanting conspiracies to crush the usurpers; hence usurpations and conspiracies succeed each other as properly and naturally in republicks as cause and effect; the right of the strongest, the most daring, or the most unprincipled, is the only right which can be acknowledged upon the principles of republican equality: on the contrary, in a monarchy, where the person of the sovereign and his authority are alike sacred, every conspirator to his country, and every conspiracy, does no less violence to the laws of God, than to those of man.

FELLOWSHIP, SOCIETY.

Both these terms are employed to denote a close intercourse; but fellowship is said of men as individuals, society of them collectively: we should be careful not to hold fellowship with any one of bad character, or to join the society of those who profess bad principles;

To wear at once thy garter and thy chains;
Though by my former dignity I swear,
That were I reinstated in my throne,
Thus to be join'd in fellowship with thee
Would be the first ambition of my soul.
Gibbert West.

Unhappy he! who from the first of joys, Society, cut off, is left alone,
Amid this world of death.—Thomson.

TO ASSEMBLE, MUSTER, COLLECT.

Assemble, in French assembler, Latin adsimulars, or assimulars, from simils like and simul together, signifies to make alike or bring together; muster, it German mustern to set out for inspection, comes from the Latin monstor to show or display; collect, in Latin collectus, participle of colligo, compounded of col or con and lego to bind, signifies to bring together, or into one point.

Assemble is said of persons only; muster and collect of persons or things. To assemble is to bring together by a call or invitation; to muster is to bring together by an act of authority, into one point of view, at one time, and from one quarter; to collect is to bring together at different times, and from different quarters; the parliament is assembled; soldiers are mustered every day in order to ascertain their numbers;

Assemble all their choirs, and with their notes, Salute and welcome up the rising sun.—CTV, AY.

An army is collected in preparation for war: s king assembles his council in order to consult with them or publick measures; a general musters his forces before he undertakes an expedition, and collects those troops if he finds himself too weak.

Collect is used for every thing which can be brought together in numbers; muster is used figuratively for bringing together, for an introduction purpose, what we

is in one's possession: books, coins, curiosities, and the like, are collected; a person's resources, his strength, courage, resolution, &c., are mustered: some persons

O Hertford! fitted or to shine in courts have a pleasure in collecting all the pieces of antiquity which tall in their way;

Each leader now his scatter'd force conjoins In close array, and forms the deep'ning lines Not with more ease the skilful shepherd swain Collects his flock, from thousands on the plain. POPE

On a trying occasion it is necessary to muster all the fortitude of which we are master

Oh! thou hast set my busy brain at work! And now she musters up a train of images

TO ASSEMBLE, CONVENE, CONVOKE.

Assemble, v. To assemble, muster; convene, in Latin convenio, signifies to come or bring together; convoke,

in Latin convoco, signifies to call together.

The idea of collecting many persons into one place, for a specifick purpose, is common to all these terms.

Assemble conveys this sense without any addition: convene and convoke include likewise some collateral idea: people are assembled, whenever they are connear people are assembled, whenever they are con-vened or convoked, but not vice versd. Assembling is mostly by the wish of one; convening by that of seve-ral: a crowd is assembled by an individual in the streets; a meeting is convened at the desire of a certain number of persons: people are assembled either on publick or private business; they are always convened on a publick occasion. A king assembles his partiament; a particular individual assembles his friends;

He ceas'd; the assembled warriours all assent, All but Atrides .-- CUMBERLAND.

The inhabitants of a district are convened:

They form one social shade, as if conven'd By magick summons of the Orphean lyre.

Animals also as well as men may be said to be assembled or convened :

Where on the mingling boughs they sit embowered All the hot noon, till cooler hours arrive, Faint underneath, the household fowls connene THOMSON

There is nothing imperative on the part of those that assemble or convene, and nothing binding on those assembled or convened: one assembles or convenes by invitation or request; one attends to the notice or not at pleasure. To convoke, on the other hand, is an act of authority: it is the call of one who has the authority to give the call; it is heeded by those who feel themselves bound to attend. Assembling and convening are always for domestick or civil purposes: convoking always employed in civil or spiritual matters; dying man assembles his friends round his death-bed; a meeting is convened in order to present an address; the dignitaries in the church are convoked by the suprème authority, or a king convokes his council;

Here cease thy fury, and the chiefs and kings, Convoke to council, weigh the sum of things.

ASSEMBLY, ASSEMBLAGE, GROUP, COLLECTION.

Assembly, assemblage, are collective terms derived from the verh assemble; group comes from the Italian gruppo, which among paniers signifies an assemblage of figures in one place; collection expresses the act of collecting, or the body collected (v. To assemble,

Assembly respects persons only; assemblage, things casemoty respects persons only; assemblage, things only; group and collection, persons or things; an assembly is any number either brought together, or come together of themselves; an assemblage is any number standing together; a group is come together by accident, or put together by design; a collection is mostly put or brought together by design.

A general alarm will cause an assembly to disperse Love and marriage are the natural effects of these inniversary assemblies.'—Budgell. An agreeable

O Hertford! fitted or to shine in courts With unaffected grace, or walk the plain With innocence and meditation join'd In soft assemblage, listen to my song. THOMSON.

A painting will sometimes consist only of a group of figures, but if they be well chosen it will sometimes produce a wonderful effect: a collection of evil-minded persons ought to be immediately dispersed by the authority of the magistrate. In a large assembly you may sometimes observe a singular assemblage of characters, countenances, and figures; when people come together in great numbers on any occasion, they will often form themselves into distinct groups;

A lifeless group the blasted cattle lie. THOMSON

The collection of scarce books and curious editions has become a passion, which is justly ridiculed under the title of bibliomania; 'There is a manuscript at Oxford containing the lives of a hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets, most of whom left very ample collections of their poems behind them.'-SIR W. JONES.

ASSEMBLY, COMPANY, MEETING, CONGREGATION, PARLIAMENT, DIET, CONGRESS, CONVENTION, SYNOD, CONVOCATION, COUNCIL.

An assembly (v. To assemble, muster) is simply the assembling together of any number of persons, or the persons so assembled: this idea is common to all the rest of these terms, which differ in the object, mode, and other collateral circumstances of the action; company, a body linked together (v. To accompany), is an assembly for purposes of amusement: meeting, a body met together, is an assembly for general purposes of business; congregation, a body flocked or gathered together, from the Latin grex a flock, is an assembly brought together from congeniality of sentiment, and community of purpose; purliament, in French parlement, from parter to speak, signifies an assembly for speaking or debating on important matters; diet, from the Greek διαιτάω to govern, is an asters; atel, from the Greek oldataw to govern, is an assembly for governing or regulating affairs of state; congress, from the Latin congredior to march in a body, is an assembly coming together in a formal manner from distant parts for the special purposes; convention, from the Latin convenie to come together, is an assembly coming together in an unformal and promiscuous manner from a neighbouring quarter; synod, in Greek σύνοδος, compounded of σύν and δόδς, signifies literally going the same road, and has been employed to signify an assembly for consultation on mat-ters of religion; convocation is an assembly convoked

ters of rengion; convolution is an assembly for consultation either on civil or ecclesiastical affairs. An assembly is, in its restricted sense, publick, and under certain regulations; 'Lucan was so exasperated with the repulse, that he muttered something to himwith the repulse, that he muttered something to himself, and was heard to say, "that since he could not have a seat among them himself, he would bring in one who alone had more merit than their whole assembly;" upon which he went to the door and brought in 'tato of Utica."—Addition. A company is private, and confined to friends and acquaintances; 'As I am insignificant to the company in publick places, and as it is visible I do not come thither as most do to show myself, I gratify the vanity of all who pretend to make an appearance.'—Steele. A meeting is either publick or private: a congregation is always publick lick or private: a congregation is diverged.

Meetings are held by all who have any common busi

A ceragge or pleasure to enjoy; 'It is very na ness to arrange or pleasure to enjoy; 'It is very na tural for a man who is not turned for mirthful meetings of men, or assemblies of the fair sex, to delight in that sort of conversation which we meet with in coffee-houses.'—Steele. A congregation in its limited sense consists of those who follow the same form of doctrine and discipline; 'As all innocent means are to he used for the propagation of truth, I would not deter those who are employed in preaching to common congregations from any practice which they may find

persunsive.'-Johnson. But the term may be extended to bodies either of men or brutes congregated for some common purpose;

Their tribes adjusted, clean'd their vig'rous wings, And many a circle, many a short essay,
Wheel'd round and round: in congregation full
The figur'd flight ascends.—Thomson.

All these different kinds of assemblies are formed by individuals in their private capacity; the other terms designate assemblies that come together for national purposes, with the exception of the word convention, which may be either domestick or political.

A parliament and diet are popular assemblies under a monarchical form of government; congress and convention are assemblies under a republican government: of the first description are the parliaments of England and France, the diets of Germany and Poland, which consisted of subjects assembled by the monarch, to deliberate on the affairs of the nation; 'The word parliament was first applied to general assemblies of the states under Louis VII. in France, about the middle of the tweifth century,'—Blackstone. 'What further provoked their indignation was that instead of twenty-five pistoles formerly allowed to each member for their charge in coming to the diet, he had presented them with six only."—Stelle. Of the latter description are the congress of the United Provinces of Holland, and that of the United States of America, and the late national convention of France: but there is this difference observable between a congress and a convention, that the former consists of deputies or delegates from higher authorities, that is, from inde-pendent governments already established; but a convention is a self-constituted assembly, which has no power but what it assumes to itself; Prior had not, however, much reason to complain; for he came to London, and obtained such notice, that (in 1691) he was sent to the congress at the Hague, as secretary to the embassy.'—Johnson. 'The office of conservators of the peace was newly erected in Scotland; and these, instigated by the clergy, were resolved, since they could not obtain the king's consent, to summon in his name, but by their own authority, a convention of states.'—Hume.

A synod and convocation are in religious matters what a diet and convention are in civil matters: the former exist only under an episcopal form of government; the latter may exist under any form of church discipline, even where the authority lies in the whole body of the ministry; 'A synod of the celestials was convened, in which it was resolved that patronage should descend to the assistance of the sciences.—
Johnson. 'The convocation is the miniature of a parliament, wherein the archbishop presides with regal state.'—BLACKSTONE.

A council is more important than all other species of assembly; it consists of persons invested with the highest authority, who, in their consultations, do not so much transact ordinary concerns, as arrange the forms and fashions of things. Religious councils used to determine matters of faith and discipline; political councils frame laws and determine the fate of empires:

Inspir'd by Juno, Thetis' godlike son Conven'd to council all the Grecian train.

GUEST, VISITER, OR VISITANT.

Guest, from the northern languages, signifies one who is entertained; wister is the one who pays the visit. The guest is to the visiter as a species to the genus: every guest is a visiter, but every visiter is not a guest. The visiter simply comes to see the person, and enjoy social intercourse; but the guest also partakes of hospitality. We are visiters at the teatable, at the card-table, and round the fire: we are researched the feature hard. guests at the festive board;

Some great behest from heav'n To us perhaps he brings, and will vouchsafe This day to be our guest.—MILTON.

No palace with a lofty gate he wants, T' admit the tides of early visitants.—DRYDEN.

COLLEAGUE, PARTNER, COADJUTOR, ASSISTANT.

Colleague, in French collegue, Latin collega, compounded of col or con and legatus sent, signifies sent or employed upon the same business; partner, from the word part, signifies one having a part or share.

Colleague is more noble than partner: men in the highest offices are colleagues; tradesmen, niechanieks, and subordinate persons are partners: every Roman consul had a colleague; every workman has com-

monly a partner.

Colleague is used only with regard to community of office; partner is most generally used with regard to community of interest: whenever two persons are commonly of the test, whethere is two persons are employed to act the entry of the same business they stand in the relation of colleagues to each other; whenever two persons unite their endeavours either in trade or in games they are denominated partners; ministers, judges, commissioners, and plenipotentia-ries are colleagues;

But from this day's decision, from the choice Of his first colleagues, shall succeeding times Of Edward judge, and on his frame pronounce.

Bankers, merchants, chess-players, card-players, and the like, have partners;

And lo! sad partner of the general care, Weary and faint I drive my gom.

Coadjutor, compounded of co or con and adjutor a helper, signifying a fellow-labourer, is more noble than assistant, which signifies properly one that assists or takes a part; the latter being mostly in a subordinate

station, but the former is an equal.

The assistant performs menial offices in the minor concerns of life, and a subordinate part at all times; the coadjutor labours conjointly in some concern of common interest and great importance. An assistant is engaged for a compensation; a coadjutor is a voluntary fellow-labourer. In every publick concern where the purposes of charity or religion are to be promoted, coadjutors often effect more than the original pro-moters; 'Advices from Vienna import that the Arch ishop of Saltzburg is dead, who is succeeded by Count Harrach, formerly bishop of Vienna, and for these last three years coadjutor to the said Archbishop.'—
STEELE. In the medical and scholastick professions assistants are indispensable to relieve the pressure of business; 'As for you, gentlemen and ladies, my as-sistants and grand juries, I have made choice of you on my right-hand, because I know you to be very jealous of your honour; and you on my left, because I know you are very much concerned for the reputa-tion of others.'—Addison. Coadjutors ought to be zealous and unanimous; assistants ought to be assi duous and faithful.

ALLY, CONFEDERATE, ACCOMPLICE.

Although the terms ally and confederate are derived from the words alliance and confederacy (v. Alliance), they are used only in part of their acceptations.

An ally is one who forms an alliance in the political sense; a confederate is one who forms confederacies in general, but more particularly when such confede-

racies are unauthorized.

The Portuguese and English are allies; 'We could hinder the accession of Holland to France, either as subjects with great immunities for the encouragement of trade, or as an inferiour and dependent ally under their protection.—Temple. William Tell had some few particular friends who were his confederates; 'Having learned by experience that they must expect a vigorous resistance from this warlike prince, they entered into an alliance with the Britons of Cornwall, and landing two years after in that country made an inroad with their confederates into the county of Devon. Hume. This latter term is however used with more propriety in its worst sense, for an associate in a rebellious faction, as in speaking of Cromwell and his confederates who were concerned in the death

of the king.

Confederate and accomplice both imply a partner in some proceeding, but they differ as to the nature of the proceeding: in the former case it may be lawful or

unlawful; in the latter unlawful only. In this latter sense a confederate is a partner in a plot or secret association: an accomplice is a partner in some active vio-lation of the laws. Guy Fawkes retained his resolution till the last extremity, not to reveal the names of his confederates; it is the common refuge of all robbers and desperate characters to betray their accom plices in order to screen themselves from punishment;

Now march the bold confed'rates through the plain, Well hors'd, well clad, a rich and shining train.

'It is not improbable that the Lady Mason (the grandmother of Savage) might persuade or compel his mother to desist, or perhaps she could not easily find accomplices wicked enough to concur in so cruel an action, as that of banishing him to the American plantations. -JOHNSON.

ALLIANCE, LEAGUE, CONFEDERACY.

Alliance, in French alliance, from the Latin alligo to Munce, in French autance, room the Bath autorio knit or tie together, signifies the moral state of being tied; league, in French ligue, comes from the same verb ligo to bind; confederacy or confederation, in Latin confederatio, from con and fædus an agreement, or fides faith, signifies a joining together under a cer-

* Relationship, friendship, the advantage of a good understanding the prospect of aid in case of necessity, are the ordinary motives for forming alliances. A league is a union of plan, and a junction of force, for purpose of effectuating some common enterprise, or obtaining some common object. A confederacy is a union of interest and support on particular occasions, for the purpose of obtaining a redress of supposed wrong, or of defending right against usurpation and

oppression.

Treaties of alliance are formed between sovereigns; it is a union of friendship and convenience concluded upon precise terms, and maintained by honour or good faith. Leagues are mostly formed between parties or small communities; as they are occasioned by circumstances of an imperative nature, they are in this manare formed between individuals or communities; they continue while the impelling cause that set them in motion remains; and every individual is bound more by a common feeling of safety, than by any express contract.

History mentions frequent alliances which have been formed between the courts of England and Por-

tugal:

Who but a fool would wars with Juno choose, And such alliances and such gifts refuse?

The cautons of Switzerland were bound to each other by a famous league, which was denominated the Helvetic league, and which took its rise in a confederacy formed against the Austrian government by Tell and his companions;

Rather in leagues of endless peace unite, And celebrate the hymenial rite. - Addison.

The history of mankind informs us that a single power is very seldom broken by a confederacy. JOHNSON.

Confederacy is always taken in a civil or political sense: alliance and brague are sometimes employed in a moral sense; the former being applied to marriage, the latter to plots or factions. Alliance is taken only in a good acceptation; Lague and confederacy frequently in relation to that which is bad. Alliances are formed for the mutual advantage of the parties concerned; "Though domestick misery must follow an alliance with a gamester, matches of this sort are made every day.'-Cumberland. Leagues may have plunder for their object, and confederacies may be treasonable;

Tiger with tiger, bear with bear, you'll find In leagues offensive and defensive join'd.

When Babel was confounded, and the great Confederacy of projectors wild and vain

* Vide Girard and Roubaud: "Alliance, ligue, confederation.

Was split into diversity of tongues, Then, as a shepherd separates his flock, These to the upland, to the valley those, God drave asunder.-Cowper.

ALLIANCE, AFFINITY.

Alliance, v. Alliance, league; affinity, in Latin affinitas, from af or ad and finis a border, signifies a con-

tiguity of borders

Alliance is artificial: affinity is natural; an alliance is formed either by persons or by circumstances; an affinity exists of itself: an alliance subsists between persons only in the proper sense, and between things figuratively; 'Religion (in England) has maintained a probetween things as well as persons; 'It cannot be doubted but that signs were invented originally to express the several occupations of their owners; and to bear some affinity, in their external designations, with the wares to be disposed of.'—Bathurst. The alliance between families is matrimonial;

O horrour! horrour! after this alliance Let tigers match with hinds, and wolves with sheep, And every creature couple with its foe .- DRYDEN

The affinity arises from consanguinity

BAND, COMPANY, CREW, GANG.

Band, in French bande, in German, &c. band, from binden to bind, signifies the thing bound; company, a To accompany; crew, from the French cru, participle of croitre, and the Latin cresco to grow or gather, signifies the thing grown or formed into a mass; gang, in Saxon, German, &c. gang a walk, from gehen to go, signifies a body going the same way.

All these terms denote a small association for a par-

ticular object: a band is an association where men are bound together by some strong obligation, whether taken in a good or bad sense, as a band of soldiers, a

band of robbers;

Behold a ghastly band Each a torch in his hand!

These are Grecian ghosts that in battle were slain. And unbury'd remain,

Inglorious in the plain .- DRYDEN.

A company marks an association for convenience without any particular obligation, as a company of travel-lers, a company of strolling players; 'Chaucer supposes in his prologue to his tales that a company of pilgrims going to Canterbury assemble at an Inn in Southwark, and agree that for their common amusement on the road each of them shall tell at least one tale in going to Canterbury, and another in coming back from thence.'-TYRWHIT.

Crew marks an association collected together by some external power, or by coincidence of plan and motive: in the former case it is used for a ship's crew; in the latter and bad sense of the word it is employed for any number of evil-minded persons met together from different quarters, and co-operating for some bad purpose:

The clowns, a boist'rous, rude, ungovern'd crew, With furious haste to the loud summons flew.

Gang is mostly used in a bad sense for an association of thieves, murderers, and depredators in general; for such an association is rather a casual meeting from the similarity of pursuits, than an organized body under any leader it is more in common use than band: the robbers in Germany used to form themselves into bands that set the government of the country at defiance; housebreakers and pickpockets commonly associate now in gangs;

Others again who form a gang, Yet take due measures not to hang; In magazines their forces join, By legal methods to purloin .- MALLET.

TROOP, COMPANY.

In a military sense a troop is among the horse what a company is among the foot; but this is only a partial acceptation of the terms. Troop, in French troupe

Spanish tropa, Latin turba, signifies an indiscriminate Spanish tropa, Latin carva, signifies an indeterminate multitude; company (v. To accompany) is any number joined together, and bearing each other company; hence we speak of a troop of hunters, a company of players; a troop of horsemen, a company of travellers.

ACCOMPANIMENT, COMPANION, CONCOMITANT.

Accompaniment is properly a collective term to express what goes in company, and is applied only to things; companion, which also signifies what is in the company, is applied either to persons or to things; con-comitant, from the intensive syllable con and comes a companion, implies what is attached to an object, or goes in its train, and is applied only to things.

When said in relation to things, accompaniment implies a necessary connexion; companion an incidental connexion; the former is as a part to a whole, the latter is as one whole to another: the accompaniment belongs to the thing accompanied, inasmuch as it serves to ren der it more or less complete; the companion belongs to the thing accompanied, inasmuch as they correspond: in this manner singing is an accompaniment in instrumental musick; subordinate ceremonies are the accompaniments in any solemn service; 'We may well be-lieve that the ancient heathen bards, who were chiefly Asiatick Greeks, performed religious rites and ceremonies in metre with accompaniments of musick, to which they were devoted in the extreme.'—Cumber-LAND. A picture may be the companion of another picture from their fitness to stand together; 'Alas, my soul! thou pleasing companion of this body, thou fleeting thing that art now deserting it, whither art thou flying ?-STEELE.

The concomitant is as much of an appendage as the accompaniment, but it is applied only to moral objects: thus morality is a concemitant to religion; beauty of the body accompanies the health of it, so certainly is decency concomitant to virtue.'-HUGHES.

TO ACCOMPANY, ATTEND, ESCORT, WAIT ON.

Accompany, in French accompagner, is compounded of ac or ad and compagner, in Latin compagne to put or join together, signifying to give one's company and presence to any object, to join one's self to its company; attend, in French attendre, compounded of at or ad and tendo to tend or incline towards, signifies to direct one's notice or care towards any object; escort, in French escorter, from the Latin cohors a cohort or band of soldiers that attended a magistrate on his going into a province, signifies to accompany by way of safeguard.

We accompany* those with whom we wish to go: we attend those whom we wish to serve; we escort those whom we are called upon to protect or guard. We accompany our equals, we attend our superiours, and escort superiours or inferiours. The desire of pleasing or being pleased actuates in the first case; the desire of serving or being served, in the second case; he fear of danger or the desire of security, in the last

One is said to have a numerous company, a crowd of attendants, and a strong escort: but otherwise one Derson only may accompany or attend, though several are wanting for an escort. Friends accompany each other in their excursions; 'This account in some measure excited our curiosity, and at the entreaty of the ladies I was prevailed upon to accompany them to he playhouse, which was no other than a barn.'—Goldsmith. Princes are attended with a considerable retinue whenever they appear in publick, and with a remue whenever they appear in publick, and with a strong escort when they travel through unfrequented and dangerous roads, 'When the Marquis of Wharon was appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, Addison attended him as his secretary.'—Johnson. Creüsa the wife of Ænesa accompanied her husband on his eaving Troy; Socrates was attended by a number of his illustrious pupils, whom he instructed by his example and his doctrines; St. Paul was escorted as a prisoner by a band of three hundred men; 'He very prudently called up four or five of the hostlers that be-onged to the yard, and engaged them to enlist under

* Vide Girard: "Accompagner, escorter."

his command as an escort to the coach.'-HAWKES WORTH.

Accompany and attend may likewise be said of per sons as well as things. In this case the former is applied to what goes with an object so as to form a part of it; the latter to that which follows an object as a dependant upon it; 'The old English plainuess and sincerity, that generous integrity of nature and honesty of disposition, which always argues true greatness of mind, and is usually accompanied with undaunted courage and resolution, is in a great measure lost among us.'-Tillotson. 'Humility lodged in a worthy mind is always attended with a certain homage, which no haughty soul, with all the arts imaginable, can purchase?—Hughes. Pride is often accompanied with meanness, and attended with much inconvenience to the possessor; 'The practice of religion will not only be attended with that pleasure which naturally accompanies those actions to which we are habituated, but

pames those actions to which we are habituated, but with those supernumerary joys that rise from the consciousness of such a pleasure?—Additional (v. To attend to) is here employed in the improper sense for the devotion of the person to an object. To wait on is the same as to wait for or expect the wishes of another.

Attendance is an act of obligation; waiting on that of choice. A physician attends his patient; a member attends in parliament; one gentleman waits on another. We attend a person at the time and place ap pointed; we wait on those with whom we wish to speak. Those who dance attendance on the great must expect every mortification; it is wiser, therefore,

only to wait on those by whom we can be received upon terms of equality.

Attend and wait on are likewise used for being about the person of any one; to attend is to bear com pany or be in readiness to serve; to wait on is actually to perform some service. A nurse attends a patient in order to afford him assistance as occasion requires; the servant waits on him to perform the menial duties. Attendants about the great are always near the person; but men and women in waiting are always at call. People of rank and fashion have a crowd of attend ants.

At length, her lord descends upon the plain In pomp, attended with a num'rous train .- DRYDEN.

Those of the middle classes have only those who wait on them; 'One of Pope's constant demands was of office in the night; and to the woman that waited on him in his chamber he was very burdensome; but he was careful to recompense her want of sleep."— JOHNSON.

PROCESSION, TRAIN, RETINUE.

Procession, from the verb proceed, signifies the act of going forward or before, that is, in the present instance, of going before others, or one before another; train in all probability comes from the Latin traho to draw, signifying the thing drawn after another, and in the present instance the persons who are led after, or follow, any object; retinue, from the verb to retain, signifies those who are retained as attendants.

All these terms are said of any number of persons who follow in a certain order; but this, which is the leading idea in the word procession, is but collateral in the terms train and retinue; on the other hand, the procession may consist of persons of all ranks and stations; but the train and retinue apply only to such as follow some person or thing in a subordinate capacity: the former in regard to such as make up the concluding part of some procession; the latter only in regard to the servants or attendants on the great. At funerals there is frequently a long train of coaches belonging to the friends of the deceased, which close the procession: princes and nobles never go out on state or publick occasions, without a numerous retinue.

The beauty of every procession consists in the order with which every one keeps his place, and the regularity with which the whole goes forward;

And now the priests, Potitius at their head, In skins of beasts involv'd, the long procession led.

The length of the train is what renders it most worthy of notice:

My train are men of choice and rarest parts, That in the most exact regard support The worships of their names.—Shakspeare.

Train is also applied to other objects besides persons;

The moon, and all the starry train,

Hung the vast vault of heav'n .- GAY.

The number of the retinue in Eastern nations is one criterion by which the wealth of the individual is estimated:

Him and his sleeping slaves, he slew; then spies Where Remus with his rich retinue lies .- DRYDEN.

MULTITUDE, CROWD, THRONG, SWARM.

The idea of many is common to all these terms, and peculiar to that of multitude, from the Latin multus, round, from the verb to crowd, signifies the many that crowd together; throng, from the German drängen to press, signifies the many that press together; and swarm, from the German schwärmen to fly about, signifies running together in numbers.

These terms vary, either in regard to the object, or the circumstance: multitude is applicable to any object; crowd, throng, and swarm are in the proper sense applicable only to animate objects: the first two in regard to persons; the latter to animals in general, but particularly brutes. A multitude may be either in a stagnant or a moving state; all the rest denote a multitude in a moving state;

A multitude is incapable of framing orders. TEMPLE.

A crowd is always pressing, generally eager and tumultuous;

The crowd shall Cæsar's Indian war behold.

A throng may be busy and active, but not always pressing or incommodious. This term is best adapted to poetry to express a multitude of agreeable objects;

I shone amid the heavenly throng .- MASON.

It is always inconvenient, sometimes dangerous, to go into a crowd; it is amusing to see the throng that is perpetually passing in the streets of the city: the swarm is more active than either of the two others: it is commonly applied to bees which fly together in numbers, but sometimes to human beings, to denote their very great numbers when scattered about; thus the children of the poor in low neighbourhoods swarm in the streets:

Numberless nations, stretching far and wide, Shall (I foresee it) soon with Gothick swarms come forth.

From ignorance's universal North .- Swift.

MEETING, INTERVIEW.

Meeting, from to meet, is the act of meeting or coming into company, interview compounded of inter between, and view to view, is a personal view of each other. The meeting is an ordinary concern, and its purpose familiar; meetings are daily taking place between friends;

I have not joy'd an hour since you departed, For publick miseries and private fears But this bless'd meeting has o'erpaid them all.

The interview is extraordinary and formal; its object is commonly business; an interview sometimes takes place between princes or commanders of armies:

His fears were, that the interview between England and France might through their amities Breed him some prejudice.-SHAKSPEARE.

TO FREQUENT, RESORT TO, HAUNT.

Frequent comes from frequent, in Latin frequens crowded, signifying to come in numbers, or come often to the same place; resort, in French resortir, compounded of re and sortir, signifies to go backward and forward; haunt comes from the French hanter, which is of uncertain original.

Frequent is more commonly used for an individual who does often to a place; resort and haunt for a

number of individuals. A man is said to frequent a publick place; but several persons may resort to a pri vate place: men who are not fond of home frequent taverns; in the first ages of Christianity, while per-secution raged, the disciples used to resort to private places for purposes of worship.

Frequent and resort are indifferent actions; but haunt is always used in a bad sense. A man may frequent a theatre, a club, or any other social meeting, innocent or otherwise; 'For my own part I have ever regarded our inns of court as nurseries of statesmen and lawgivers, which makes me often frequent that part of the town.'—Budgell. People from different quarters may resort to a fair, a church, or any other place where they wish to meet for a common purpose;

Home is the resort Of love, of joy, of peace, and plenty, where, Supporting and supported, polish'd friends And dear relations mingle into bliss.—Thomson.

Those who haunt any place go to it in privacy for some bad or selfish purpose

But harden'd by affronts, and still the same, Lost to all sense of honour and of fame,

Thou yet canst love to haunt the great man's board, And think no supper good but with a lord.-LEWIS.

Our Saviour frequented the synagogues; the followers of the prophet Mahomet resort to his tomb at Mecca; thieves haunt the darkest and most retired parts of the city in order to concert their measures for obtaining plunder.

PEOPLE, NATION.

People, in Latin populus, comes from the Greek hads people, in Kang by a multitude, and $\pi o \lambda b_{5}$ many. Hence the simple idea of numbers is expressed by the word people; but the term nation, from natus, marks the connexion of numbers by birth: people is, therefore, the generick, and nation the specifick term. A nation is a people connected by birth; there cannot, therefore, strictly speaking, be a nation without a people; but there may be a people where there is not a notion. *The Jews are distinguished as a people or a nation, according to the different aspects under which they are viewed: when considered as an assemblage, under the special direction of the Almighty, they are termed the people of God; but when considered in regard to their common origin, they are denominated the Jewish na-The Americans, when spoken of in relation to Britain, are a distinct people, because they have each a distinct government; but they are not a distinct nation, because they have a common descent. On this ground the Romans are not called the Roman nation, because their origin was so various, but the Roman people, that is, an assemblage living under one form of government.

In a still closer application people is taken for a part of the state, namely, that part of a state which consists of a multitude, in distinction from its government; whence arises a distinction in the use of the terms; for we may speak of the British people, the French or the Dutch people, when we wish merely to talk of the mass, but we speak of the British nation, the French nation, and the Dutch nation, when publick measures are in question, which emanate from the government, or the whole pcople. The English people have ever been remarkable for their attachment to liberty; 'It is too flagrant a demonstration how much vice is the darling of any pcople, when many among them are preferred for those practices for which in other places they can scarce be pardoned.'—SOUTH. The abolition of the slave trade is one of the most glorious acts of publick justice, which was ever performed by the British nation; 'When we read the history of nations, what do we read but the crimes and follies of men?—BLAIR. The impetuosity and volatility of the French people render them peculiarly unfit to legislate for themselves; the military exploits of the French nation have rendered them a highly distinguished people in the annals of history. Upon the same ground republican states are distinguished by the name of Upon the same ground people: but kingdoms are commonly spoken of in history as nations. Hence we say, the Spartan people,

* Vide Roubaud: " Nation, people."

the Athenian people, the people of Genoa, the people of Venice; but the nations of Europe, the African nations, the English, French, German, and Italian nations.

PEOPLE, POPULACE, MOB, MOBILITY.

People and populace are evidently changes of the same word to express a number. The signification of these terms is that of a number gathered together. People is said of any body supposed to be assembled, as well as really assembled;

The people like a headlong torrent go, And every dam they break or overflow.

SHAKSPEARE.

Populace is said of a body only, when actually assembled:

The pliant populace,
Those dupes of novelty, will bend before us. MALLET.

The voice of the people cannot always be disregarded; the populace of England are fond of dragging their favourities in carriages.

Mab and mobility are from the Latin mobilis, signifying moveableness, which is the characteristick of the multitude; hence Virgil's mobile vulgus. These terms, therefore, designate not only what is low, but tunult-uous. A mob is at all times an object of terrour: the mobility, whether high or low, are a fluttering order that mostly run from bad to worse; 'By the senseless and insignificant clink of misapplied words, some restless demagogues had inflamed the mind of the sottish mobile to a strange, unaccountable abhorrence of the best of men.'—South.

PEOPLE, PERSONS, FOLKS.

The term people has already been considered in two acceptations (v. People, nation; People, populace), under the general idea of an assembly; but in the present case it is employed to express a small number of individuals: the word people, however, is always considered as one undivided body, and the word person may be distinctly used either in the singular or plural; as we cannot say one, two, three, or four people; but we may say one, two, three, or four persons: yet on the other hand, we may indifferently say, such people or persons; many people or persons; some people or persons, and the like.

With regard to the use of these terms, which is altogether colloquial, people is employed in general proand persons in those which are specifick or referring directly to some particular individuals: people are generally of that opinion; some people think so; some people attended;

Performance is even the duller for Ilis act; and, but in the plainer and simple Kind of the people, the deed is quite out of Use.-SHAKSPEARE.

There were but few persons present at the entertainment; the whole company consisted of six persons; You may observe many honest, inoffensive persons

strangely run down by an ugly word. —South.

As the term people is employed to designate a promiscuous multitude, it has acquired a certain meanness of acceptation which makes it less suitable than the word persons, when people of respectability are referred to: were I to say, of any individuals, I do not know who those people are, it would not be so respectful as to say, I do not know who those persons are: in like manner, one says, from people of that stamp better is not to be expected; persons of their appearance

ter is not to be expected; persons of their appearance do not frequent such places.

Folks, through the medium of the northern languages, comes from the Latin vulgus, the common people: it is not unusual to say good people, or good folks; and in speaking jocularly to one's friends, the latter term is likewise admissible; but in the serious stells it is never employed execution. style it is never employed except in a disrespectful manner: such folks (speaking of gamesters) are often put to sorry shifts; 'I paid some compliments to great folks, who like to be complimented.'—Herring.

GENTILE, HEATHEN, PAGAN.

*The Jews comprehended all strangers under the name of יות nations or gentiles; among the Greeks and Romans they were designated by the name of barbarians. By the name Gentile was understood especially those who were not of the Jewish religion, in cluding, in the end, even the Christians; for, as Fleury remarks, there were some among these uncircuncised Gentales, who worshipped the true God, and were permitted to dwell in the holy land, provided they observed the law of nature and abstinence; 'There might be several among the Gentiles in the same condition that Cornelius was before he became a Christian.'-Tillotson.

Some learned men pretend that the Gentiles were so named from their having only a natural law, and such as they imposed on themselves, in opposition to the Jews and Christians, who have a positive revealed law to which they are obliged to submit.

Frisch and others derive the word heathen from the Greek \$60795, a nation, which derivation is corroborated by the translation in the Anglo-saxon law of the word haethne by the Greek \$69.00. Adelung, however, thinks it to be more probably derived from the word heide a field, for the same reason as pagan is derived from pagus a village, because when Constantine banished idolaters from the towns they repaired to the villages, and secretly adhered to their religious worship, whence they were termed by the Christians of the fourth century Pagani, which, as he supposes, was translated literally into the German heidener a villager or worshipper in the field. Be this as it may, it is evident that the word Heathen is in our language more applicable than Pagan, to the Greeks, the Romans, and the cultivated nations who practised idolatry; and, on the other hand, Pagan is more properly employed for any rude and uncivilized people who worship false gods.

The Gentile does not expressly believe in a Divine Revelation; but he either admits of the truth in part, or is ready to receive it: the Heathen adopts a positively false system that is opposed to the true faith: the Pagan is the species of Heathen who obstinately persists in a worship which is merely the truit of his own imagination. The Heathers or Pagans are Gentiles; but the Gentiles are not all either Heathers or Pagans. Confucius and Sociates, who rejected the plurality of gods, and the followers of Mahomet, who adore the true God, are, properly speaking, Gentiles. The wortrue God, are, properly speaking, Gentiles. shippers of Jupiter, Juno, Minerva, and all the deition of the ancients, are termed Heathens. The worship The worshippers of Fo, Brama, Xaca, and all the deities of savage nations, are termed Pagans.

The Gentiles were called to the true faith, and obeyed the call: many of the illustrious Heathers would have doubtless done the same, had they enjoyed the same privilege; 'Not that I believe that all the virtues of the Heathers were counterfeit, and destitute of an inward principle of goodness. God forbid we should pass so had a judgement upon those excellent men, Socrates, and Epictetus, and Antoninus.'-TIL-

There are many Pagans to this day who reject this advantage, to pursue their own blind imaginations;

And nations laid in blood; dread sacrifice To Christian pride! which had with horror shock' The darkest Pagans, offered to their gods.—Young.

FAMILY, HOUSE, LINEAGE, RACE.

Divisions of men, according to some rule of relationship or connexion, is the common idea in these

Family, from the Latin familia a family, and famulus a servant, in Greek δμιλία an assembly, and the Hebrew ממל to labour, is the most general term, being applicable to those who are bound together upon the principle of dependence; house figuratively denotes those who live in the same house, and is commonly extended in its signification to all that passes under the same roof: hence we rather say that a woman manages her family; that a man rules his house.

The family is considered as to its relationships

the number, union, condition, and quality of its riem

^{*} Vide Roubaud: "Gentils, palens"

bers: the house is considered more as to what is transacted within its walls. We speak of a numerous family, a united or affectionate family, a mercantile house; the house (meaning the members of the house of parliament). If a man cannot find happiness in the bosom of his family, he will seek for it in vain elsewhere; 'To live in a family where there is but one heart and as many good strong heads as persons, and to have a place in that enlarged single heart, is such a state of happiness as I cannot hear of without feeling the utmost pleasure.—FIELDING. The credit of a house is to be kept up only by prompt payments, or, in a general sense of the term, the business of the house is performed by the domesticks; 'They two together rule the house. The house I call here the man, the woman, their children, their servants.—Smyth.

In an extended application of these words they are made to designate the quality of the individual, in which case family bears the same familiar and indiscriminate sense as before: house is employed as a term

of grandeur.

When we consider the family in its domestick relations; in its habits, manners, connexions, and circumstances; we speak of a genteel family, a respectable family, the royal family: 'An empty man of a great family is a creature that is scaree conversible.'—Addison. When we consider the family with regard to its political and civil distinctions, its titles, and its power, then we denominate it a house, as an illustrious house; the house of Bourbon, of Brunswick, or of Hanover; the imperial house of Austria. Any subject may belong to an ancient or noble family. Princes are said to be descended from ancient houses; 'The princes of the house of Tudor, partly by the vigour of their administration, partly by the concurrence of favourable circumstances, had been able to establish a more regular system of government."—Hume. A man is said to be of a family or of no family: we may say likewise that he is of a certain house; but to say that he is of no house would be superfluous.† In republicks there are families but not houses, because there is no nobility; in China likewise, where the private virtues only distinguish the individual or his family, the term house is altogether inapplicable.

Family includes in it every circumstance of connexion and relationship; lineage respects only consanguinity: family is employed mostly for those who are coeval; lineage is generally used for those who have gone before. When the Athenian general Iphicrates, son of a shoemaker, was reproached by Hermodius with his birth, he said, I had rather be the first than the last of my family. David was of the lineage of Abraham, and our Saviour was of the lineage.

David:

We want not cities, nor Sicilian coasts, Where king Acestes Trojan lineage boasts.

DRVDEN.

Race, from the Latin radix a root, denotes the origin or that which constitutes their original point of resemblance. A family supposes the closest alliance; a race supposes no closer connexion than what a common property creates. Family is confined to a comparatively small number; 'A nation properly signifies a great number of families derived from the same blood, born in the same country, and living under the same government and civil constitutions.'—TEMPLE. Race is a term of extensive import, including all mankind, as the human race; or particular radions, as the race of South Sea islanders; or a particular family, as the race of the Heraclides: from Hercules sprung a race of heroes;

Nor knows our youth of noblest race,
To mount the manag'd steed or urge the chase;
More skill'd in the mean arts of vice,
The whirling troque or law-forbidden dice.
Francis.

NATAL, NATIVE, INDIGENOUS.

Natal, in Latin natalis, from natus, signifies belonging to one's birth, or the act of one's being born; but native, in Latin natives, likewise from natus, signifies having the origin or beginning; indigenous, in

* Vide Abbe Girard: "Famille, maison."
† Atbe Roubaud: "Race lineage, famille, maison."

Latin indigena, from inde and genitus, signifies sprung from a particular place.

The epithet natal is applied only to the circumstance of a man's birth, as his natal day; his natal hour a natal song; a natal star;

Safe in the hand of one disposing pow'r, Or in the natal or the mortal hour.—Pops.

Native has a more extensive meaning, as it comprehends the idea of one's relationship by origin to an object; as one's native country, one's native soil, native village, or native place, native language, and the like;

Nor can the grov'ling mind
In the dark dungeon of the limbs confin'd,
Assert the native skies or own its heav'nly kind.
DRYDEN.

Indigenous is the same with regard to plants, as native in regard to human beings or animals; but it is sometimes applied to people when taken in a collective sense, 'Negroes were all transported from Africa, and are not indigenous or proper natives of America.'

NATIVE, NATURAL.

Mative (v. Natal) is to natural as a species to the genus: every thing native is according to its strict signification natural; but many things are natural which are not native. Of a person we may say that his worth is native, to designate that it is some valuable property which is born with him, not foreign to him, or ingratied upon his character: but we say of his disposition, that it is natural, as opposed to that which is acquired by habit. Native is always employed in a good sense, in opposition to what is artful, assumed, and unreal; 'In heaven we shall pass from the darkness of our native ignorance into the broad light of everlasting day.'—SOUTH. Natural is used in an indifferent sense, as opposed to whatever is the effect of habit or circumstances; 'Scripture ought to be understood according to the familiar, natural way of construction.'—South. When children display them selves with all their native simplicity, they are interesting objects of notice: when they display their natural turn of mind, it is not always that which tends to raise human nature in our esteem.

RELATION, RELATIVE, KINSMAN, KINDRED.

Relation is here taken to express the person related, and is the general term both in sense and application; relative is employed only as respects the particular individual to whom one is related; kinsman designates the particular kind of relation; and kindred is a collective term to comprehend all one's relations, or those who are akin to one. In abstract propositions we speak of relations; a man who is without relations feels himself an outcast in society; 'You are not to imagine that I think myself discharged from the duties of gratitude, only because my relations do not adjust their looks to my expectation.'—Johnson. In designation of the state nating one's close and intimate connexion with persons we use the term relative; our near and dear relatives are the first objects of our regard; 'It is an evil undutifulness in friends and relatives, to suffer one to perish without reproof.'—'TAYLOR. In designating one's relationship and connexion with persons, kins-man is preferable; when a man has not any children he frequently adopts one of his kinsmen as when the ties of relationship are to be specified in the persons of any particular family, they are denominated kindred; a man cannot abstract himself from his kindred while he retains any spark of human feeling; 'Herod put all to death whom he found in Trechorilis of the families and kindred of any of those at Repta' -PRIDEAUX

KIND, SPECIES, SORT.

Kind comes most probably from the Teutonick kind a child, signifying related, or of the same faminy; species, in Latin species, from specio to behold, signifies literally the form or appearance, and in an extended sense that which comes under a particular form; sort, in Latin sors a lot, signifies that which constitutes a particular lot or parcel.

Kind and species are both employed in their proper tense; sort has been diverted from its original meaning by colloquial use; kind is properly employed for minimate objects, particularly for mankind, and improminance objects, particularly for mankind, and improperly for moral objects; species is a term used by philosophers, classing things according to their external or internal properties. Kind, as a term in vulgar use, has a less definite meaning than species, which serves to form the groundwork of science: we discriminate things in a loose or general manner by saying that they are of the animal or vegetable kind, of the canine or feline kind; but we discriminate them precisely if we tetine kind; but we discriminate them precisely if we say that they are a species of the arbutus, of the pomegranate, of the dog, the horse, and the like. By the same rule we may speak of a species of madness, a species of fever, and the like; 'If the French should succeed in what they propose, and establish a democracy in a country circumstanced like France, they will setablish a very bad government. establish a very bad government, a very bad species of tyranny.'—BURKE. Because diseases have been brought under a systematick arrangement: but, on the other hand, we should speak of a kind of language, a kind of feeling, a kind of influence; and in similar cases where a general resemblance is to be expressed; 'An ungrateful person is a kind of thoroughfare or common shore for the good things of the world to pass into.'-South.

Sort may be used for either kind or species; it does not necessarily imply any affinity, or common property in the objects, but simple assemblage, produced as it were by sors, chance: hence we speak of such sort of folks or people; such sort of practices; different sorts of grain; the various sorts of merchandises: and in or grain; the various sorts of inerchantises; and in similar cases where things are sorted or brought together, rather at the option of the person, than according to the nature of the thing; 'The French made and recorded a sort of institute and digest of anarchy, called the rights of man.'—Burke.

KINDRED, RELATIONSHIP, AFFINITY, CONSANGUINITY.

The idea of a state in which persons are placed with regard to each other is common to all these terms, which differ principally in the nature of this state. Kindred signifies that of being of the same kind (v. Kind): relationship signifies that of holding a nearer relation than others (v. To connect); affanty (v. Alliane) signifies that of being affined or coming close to each check that each other's boundaries; consanguinity, from sanguis the blood, signifies that of having the same blood.

The kindred is the most general state here expressed: it may embrace all mankind, or refer to particular families or communities; it depends upon possessing the common property of humanity, or of being united

by some family tie;

Like her, of equal kindred to the throne. You keep her conquests, and extend your own. DRYDEN.

The philanthropist claims kindred with all who are unfortunate, when it is in his power to relieve them. The term kindred is likewise distinguished from the rest, as it expresses not only a state, but the persons collectively who are in that state; 'Though separated from my kindred by little more than half a century of miles, I know as little of their concerns as if oceans and continents were between us.'-Cowper.

Relationship is a state less general than kindred, but more extended than either affinity or consanguinity; i apriles to particular families only, but it applies to all of the same family, whether remotely or distantly related; 'Herein there is no objection to the succession of a relation of the half blood, that is, where the relationship proceeds not from the same couple of ancest tors (which constitutes a kinsman of the whole blood), but from a single ancestor only.'-BLACKSTONE. but from a single ancestor only. —BLACKSTONE. The term relationship is likewise extended to other subjects besides that of families. Men stand in different relations to each other in society; 'The only general private relation now remaining to be discussed is that of guardian and ward.—In examining this species of relationship. I shall first consider the different kind of guardians.'—BLACKSTONE.

Affinity denotes a close relationship, whether of an artificial or a natural kind. there is an affinity between the husband and the wife in consequence of the mar-

riage tie; and there is an affinity between those who descend from the same parents or relations in a direct line. Consunguinty is, strictly speaking, this latter species of descent; and the term is mostly employed in all questions of law respecting descent and inheritance; 'Consanguinity or relation by blood, and affinity or relation by marriage, are canonical disabilities (to contract a marriage).'—BLACKSTONE.

RACE, GENERATION, BREED.

Race, v. Family; generation, in Latin generation from genero, and the Greek γεννάω, to engender or beget, signifies the thing begotten; breed signifies that which is bred (v. To breed.)

These terms are all employed in regard to a number

of animate objects which have the same origin; the former is said only of human beings, the latter only of brutes: the term is employed in regard to the dead as brutes: the term is employed in regard to the dead as well as the living; generation is employed only in regard to the living: hence we speak of the race of the Heraclidæ, the race of the Bourbons, the race of the Stuarts, and the like; but the present generation, the whole generation, a worthless generation, and the like; Where races are thus numerous and thus combined, none but the chief of a clan is thus addressed by his name.'-Johnson.

Like leaves on trees the race of man is found, Now green in youth, now with ring on the ground, So generations in their course decay So flourish these when those are pass'd away

Breed is said of those animals which are brought forth, and brought up in the same manner. Hence we denominate some domestick animals as of a good breed, where particular care is taken not only as to the ani mals from which they come, but also of those which are brought forth;

Nor last forget thy faithful dogs, but feed With fatt'ning whey the mastiff's gen'rous breed.

TO BREED, ENGENDER.

Breed, in Saxon breetan, is probably connected with braten to roast, being an operation principally per formed by fire or heat; engender, compounded of en and gender, from genitus participle of gigno, signifies to lay or communicate the seeds for production.

These terms are figuratively employed for the act of procreation.

To breed is to bring into existence by a slow operation: to engender is to be the author or prime cause of existence. So, in the metaphorical sense, frequent quarrels are apt to breed hatred and animosity: the levelling and inconsistent conduct of the higher classes in the present age serves to engender a spirit of insub ordination and assumption in the inferiour order.

Whatever breeds acts gradually; whatever engen ders produces immediately, as cause and effect. Uncleanliness breeds diseases of the body; want of occupation breeds those of the mind; 'The strong desire of fame breeds several vicious habits in the mind,'-Ap-DISON. Playing at chance games engenders a love of money; 'Eve's dream is full of those high conceits engendering pride, which, we are told, the Devil on deayoured to instil into her.'—Addison.

LAND, COUNTRY.

Land, in German land, &c. from lean and line, sig-nifies an open, even space, and refers strictly to the earth; country, in French contrée, from con and terra, signifies lands adjoining so as to form one portion. The term land, therefore, properly excludes the idea of habitation; the term country excludes that of the earth, or the parts of which it is composed. hence we speak of the land, as rich or poor, according to what it yields; of a country, as rich or poor, according to what its inhabitants possess: so, in like manner, we say, the land is ploughed or prepared for receiving the grain; but the country is cultivated; the country is under a good government; or, a man's country is dear to him In an extended application, however, these words may be put for one another: the word land may sometimes be put for any portion of land that is under a government, as the land of liberty; 'You are still in the land of the living, and have all the means that can be desired, whereby to prevent your failing into condemnation.'—BEVERIDGE. Country may be put for the soil, as a rich country; 'We love our country as the seat of religion, liberty, and laws.'—BLAIR.

NEIGHBOURHOOD, VICINITY.

Neighbourhood, from nigh, signifies the place which is nigh, that is, nigh to one's habitation; vicinity, from vicus a village, signifies the place which does not ex-

ceed in distance the extent of a village.

Meighburhood, which is of Saxon origin, and first admitted into our language, is employed in reference to the inhabitants, or in regard to inhabited places; that is, it signifies either a community of neighbours, or the place they occupy: but vicinity, which in Latin bears the same acceptation as neighbourhood, is employed in English for the place in general, that is, near to the person speaking, whether mhabited or otherwise: hence the propriety of saving, a populous neighbourhood, a quiet neighbourhood, as respectable neighbourhood, and a pleasant neighbourhood, either as it respects the people or the country; to live in the neinity of a man-factory, to be in the vicinity of the metropolis or of the sea; 'Though the soul be not actually debauched, yet it is something to be in the neighbourhood of destruction.—South. 'The Dutch, by the vicinity of their settlements to the coast of Caraccas, gradually engrossed the greatest part of the cocoa trade.'—Ro-BERTSON.

DISTRICT, REGION, TRACT, QUARTER.

Pistrict, in Latin districtus, from distringo to bind separately, signifies a certain part marked off specincally; region, in Latin regio from rego to rule, signifies a portion that is within rule; tract, in Latin tractus, from trab to draw, signifies a part drawn out; quarter

signifies literally a fourth part

These terms are all applied to country: the former two comprehending divisions marked out on political grounds; the latter a geographical or an indefinite division: district is smaller than a region; the former refers only to part of a country, the latter frequently applies to a whole country: a quarter is indefinite, and may be applied either to a quarter of the world or a particular neighbourhood: a tract is the smallest portion of all, and comprehends frequently no more than what may fall within the compass of the eye. We consider a district only with relation to government; every magistrate acts within a certain district; 'The very inequality of representation, which is so foolishly complained of, is perhaps the very thing which prevents us from thinking or acting as members for districts.'—Burke. We speak of a region when considering the circumstances of climate, or the natural properties which distinguish different parts of the earth, as the regions of heat and cold;

Between those regions and our upper light Deep forests and impenetrable night Possess the middle space.—DRYDEN.

We speak of a tract to designate the land that runs on in a line, as a mountainous tract; so likewise figuratively to pursue a tract or a line of thinking:

My timorous muse Unambitious tracts pursues.—Cowley.

We speak of the quarter simply to designate a point of the compass; as a person lives in a certain quarter of the town that is north, or south-east, or west, &c. and so also in an extended application, we say, to meet with opposition in an unexpected quarter; "There is no man in any rank who is always at liberty to act as he would incline. In some quarter or other he is limited by circumstances."—BLAIR.

TO FOUND, GROUND, REST, BUILD.

Found, in French fonder, Latin fundo, comes from fundus the ground, and, like the verb ground, properly eignifies to make firm in the ground, to make the ground the support.

"To found implies the exercise of art and contrivance in making a support; to ground signifies to lay a thing so deep that it may not totter; it is merely in the meral

sense that they are here considered, as the verb to ground with this signification is never used otherwise. Found is applied to outward circumstances; ground to what passes inwardly: a man founds his charge against another upon certain facts that are come to his knowledge; he grounds his belief upon the most substantial evidence: a man should be cautious not to make any accusations which are not well founded; nor to indulge any expectations which are not well grounded: monarchs commonly found their claims to a throne upon the right of prinogeniture; 'The only sure principles we can lay down for regulating our conduct must be founded on the Christian religion.'—BLAIR. Christians ground their hopes of immortality on the word of God; 'I know there are persons who look upon these wonders of art (in ancient history) as fabulous; but I cannot find any ground for such a suspiction.'—Aprison.

To found and ground are said of things which demand the full exercise of the mental powers; to rest is an action of less importance: whatever is founded requires and has the utmost support: whatever is rested s more by the will of the individual: a man founds his reasoning upon some unequivocal fact; he rests his assertion upon mere hearsay; 'Our distinction must rest upon a steady adherence to rational religion, when the multitude are deviating into licentious and criminal conduct.'-Blair. The words found, ground, and rest have always an immediate reference to the thing that supports; to build has an especial reference to that which is supported, to the superstructure that is raised: we should not say that a person founds an hypothesis, without adding something, as observa-tions, experiments, and the like, upon which it was founded; but we may speak of his simply building systems, supposing them to be the mere fruit of his distempered imagination; or we may say that a system of astronomy has been built upon the discovery of Copernicus respecting the motion of the earth; 'They who from a mistaken zeal for the honour of Divine revelation, either deny the existence, or vilify the authority, of natural religion, are not aware, that by disallowing the sense of obligation, they undermine the foundation on which revelation builds its power of commanding the heart.—BLAIR.

FOUNDATION, GROUND, BASIS.

Foundation and ground derive their meaning and application from the preceding article: a report is said to be without any foundation, which has taken its rise in mere conjecture, or in some arbitrary cause independent of all fact; 'If the foundation of a high name be virtue and service, all that is offered against it is but rumour, which is too short lived to stand up in competition with glory, which is everlasting.'—STELLE. A man's suspicion is said to be without ground, which is not supported by the shadow of external evidence: unfounded clamours are frequently raised against the measures of government; groundless jealousies frequently arise between families, to disturb the harmony of their intercourse; 'Every subject of the British gother than the specific property.'—BLAM.

Foundation and basis may be compared with each other, either in the proper or the improper signification: both foundation and basis are the lowest parts of any structure; but the former lies under ground, the latter stands above: the foundation supports some large and artificially erected pile; the basis supports a simple pillar: hence we speak of the foundation of St. Paul's, and the base or basis of the monument: this distinction is likewise preserved in the moral application of the terms: disputes have too often their foundation in frivolous circumstances; treaties have commonly their basis in acknowledged general principle; with governments that are at war pacifick negotiations may be commenced on the basis of the utipossidetis; 'It is certain that the basis of all lasting reputation is laid in moral worth.—Balar.

TO BUILD, ERECT, CONSTRUCT.

Build, in Saxon byttian, French batir, German bauen, Gothick boa, bua, bygga, to erect houses, from the Hebrew A: 2 a habitation; erect, in French eriger,

Latin erectus, participle of erigo, compounded of e and rego, comes from the Greek doctor to stretch or extend, signifies literally to carry upward; construct, in Latin constructus, participle of construo, compounded of con together, and struo to put, in Greek spoursfut to strow, in Hebrew 77 to dispose or put in order, signifies to form together into a mass

The word build by distinction expresses the purpose of the action; erect indicates the mode of the action; construct indicates contrivance in the action

Construct indicates contrivance in the action.

What is built is employed for the purpose of receiving, retaining, or confining; what is creeted is placed in an elevated situation; what is constructed is

put together with ingenuity.

All that is built may be said to be erected or constructed; but all that is erected or constructed; in all that is erected or constructed, though not vice versā. We build from necessity; we erect for ornament; we construct for utility and convenience. Houses are built, monuments erected, machines are constructed; 'Montesquieu wittly observes, that by building professed madhouses, men tacitly insinuate that all who are out of their senses are to be found only in those places.'—Warton. 'It is as rational to live in caves till our own hands have erected a place, as to reject all knowledge of architecture which our understandings will not supply.'—Johnson. 'From the raft or cance, which first served to carry a savage over the river, to the construction of a vessel capable of conveying a numerous crew with safety to a distant coast, the progress in improvement is immense.—Robertson.

ARCHITECT, BUILDER.

Architect, from architecture, in Latin architectus, from architectura, Greek $\dot{a}_{D}\chi_{1}\kappa\kappa ro\nu \kappa \dot{r}$, compounded of $\dot{a}_{D}\chi_{0}$, the chief, and $r\kappa \chi \nu \dot{\eta}$ art or contrivance, signifies the chief of contrivers; builder, from the verb to build, denotes the person concerned in buildings, who causes the structure of houses, either by his money or his personal service.

An architect is an artist employed only to form the plans for large buildings; 'Rome will bear witness that the English artists are as superiour in talents as they are in numbers to those of all nations besides. I reserve the mention of her architects as a separate tlass.'—CUMBERLAND. A builder is a simple tradesman, or even workman, who builds common dwellinghouses; 'With his ready money, the buildier, mason, and carpenter are enabled to make their market of gentlemen in his neighbourhood who inconsiderately employ them.'—STRELE.

EDIFICE, STRUCTURE, FABRICK.

Edifice, in Latin ædificium, from ædifico or ædes and acio, to make a house, signifies properly the house made; structure, from the Latin structura and struo or raise, signifies the raising a thing, or the thing aised: fabrick, from the Latin fabrico, signifies the

'abricating or the thing fabricated.

Edifice in its proper sense is always applied to a milding; structure and fabrick are either employed as abstract actions, or the results and fruits of actions: in the former case they are applied to many objects besides buildings; structure referring to the act of raising or setting up together; fabrick to that of framing or contriving.

As the edifice bespeaks the thing itself, it requires no modification, since it conveys of itself the idea of something superiour; 'The levellers only pervert the natural order of things; they load the edifice of society, by setting up in the air what the solidity of the structure requires to be on the ground.'—BURRE. The word structure must always be qualified; it is employed only to designate the mode of action; 'In the whole structure and constitution of things, God hath shown himself to be favourable to virtue, and inimical to vice and guilt.'—BLAIR. The fabrick is itself a species of epithet; it designates the object as something ontrived by the power of art or by design;

By destiny compell'd, and in despair, The Greeks grew weary of the tedious war, And, by Minerva's aid, a fabrick rear'd. The edifices dedicated to the service of religion have in all ages been held sacret: it is the business of the architect to estimate the merits or dements of the structure; when we take a survey of the vast fabrick of the universe, the mind becomes bewildered with contemplating the infinite power of its Divine Author.

When semployed in the abstract source of its.

When employed in the abstract sense of actions, structure is limited to objects of magnitude, or such as consist of complicated parts; fabrick is extended to every thing in which art or contrivance is requisite; hence we may speak of the structure of vessels, and the like

CORNER, ANGLE.

Corner answers to the French coin, and Greek γωνία, which signifies either a corner or a hidden place; angle, in Latin angulus, comes in all probability from αγκών the elbow.

The vulgar use of *corner* in the ordinary concerns of life, and the technical use of *angle* in the science of mathematicks, is not the only distinction between

these terms.

Corner properly implies the outer extreme point of any solid body; angle, on the contrary, the inner extremity produced by the meeting of two right lines. When speaking therefore of solid bodies, corner and angle may be both employed; but in regard to simple right lines, the word angle only is applicable: in the former case a corner is produced by the meeting of the different parts of a body whether inwardly or outwardly; but an angle is produced by the meeting of two bodies: one house has many corners; two houses or two walls, at least, are requisite to make an angle; 'Jewellers grind their diamonds with many sides and angles, that their lustre may appear many ways.'—Derham.

We likewise speak of making an angle by the direction that is taken in going either by land or sea, because such a course is equivalent to a right line; in that case the word corner could not be substituted; on the other hand, the word corner is often used for a place of secrecy or obscurity, agreeably to the derivation of the term; 'Some men, like pictures, are fitter for a corner than for a full light.'—Porm

PILLAR, COLUMN.

Pillar, in French pilier. in all probability comes from pile, signifying any thing piled up in an artificial manner. Column, in Latin columna, comes from columen a prop or support. In their original meaning, therefore, it is obvious that these words differ essentially, although in their present use they refer to the same object. The pillar mostly serves as a column or support, and the column is always a pillar; but sometimes a pillar does not serve as a prop, and then it is called by its own name; but when it supplies the place of a prop, then it is more properly denominated a column;

Whate'er adorns

The princely dome, the column, and the arch, The breathing marbles, and the sculptur'd gold, Beyond the proud possessor's narrow claim, His tuneful breast enjoys.—AKENSIDE.

Hence the monument is a pillar, and not a column; but the pillars on which the roofs of churches are made to rest, may with more propriety be termed co lumns. Pillar is more frequently employed in a moral application than column, and in that case it always implies a prop; 'Withdraw religion, and you shake all the pillars of morality.'—Blair. Government is the pillar on which all social order rests.

LODGINGS, APARTMENTS.

A lodging, or a place to lodge or dwell in, comprehends single rooms, or many rooms, or in fact any place which can be made to serve the purpose; apart ments respect only suits of rooms: apartments, there fore, are, in the strict sense, lodgings; but all lodgings are not apartments: on the other hand, the word lodgings is mostly used for rooms that are let out to hire, or that serve a temporary purpose; but the word apartments may be applied to the suits of rooms in any large house: hence the word lodging becomes on

one ground restricted in its use, and apartments on the other: all anartments to let out for hire are todgings; but apartments not to let out for hire are not lodgings.

MONUMENT, MEMORIAL, REMEMBRANCER.

Monument, in Latin monumentum or monimentum, from moneo to advise or remind, signifies that which puts us in mind of something; memorial, from memory, signifies the thing that helps the memory; and remembrancer, from remember (v. Memory), the thing that

causes to remember.

From the above it is clear that these terms have, in their original derivation, precisely the same significa-tion, and differ only in their collateral acceptations: monument is applied to that which is purposely set up to keep a thing in mind; memorials and remembrancers are any things which are calculated to call a thing to mind, a monument is used to preserve a publick object of notice from being forgotten; a memorial serves to keep an individual in mind: the monument is commonly understood to be a species of building; as a monly understood to be a species of building; as a tomb which preserves the memory of the dead, or a pillar which preserves the memory of some publick event: the memorial always consists of something which was the property, or in the possession, of another; as his picture, his handwriting, his hair, and the like. The Monument at London was built to commemorate the dreadful fire of the city in the year 1666: friends who are at a distance are happy to have some token of each other's regard, which they likewise keep as a memorial of their former intercourse.

The monument, in its proper sense, is always made of wood or stone for some specifick purpose; but, in the improper sense, any thing may be termed a monument when it serves the purpose of reminding the publick of any circumstance: thus, the pyramids are monuments of antiquity; the actions of a good prince are more lasting monuments than either brass or mar-ble; 'If (in the Isle of Sky) the remembrance of papal superstition is obliterated, the monuments of papal piety are likewise effaced.'—Johnson.

Memorials are always of a private nature, and at the same time such as remind us naturally of the object to which they have belonged; this object is generally some person, but it may likewise refer to some thing, some person, but it may likewise refer to some thing, if it be of a personal nature: our Saviour instituted the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper as a memorial of his death; 'Any memorial of your good-nature and friendship is most welcome to me.'—Pore.

A memorial respects some object external of ourselves; the remembrancer is said of that which directly

concerns ourselves and our particular duty; a man leaves memorials of himself to whomsoever he leaves his property; but the remembrancer is that which we acquire for ourselves: the memorial carries us back to another; the remembrancer brings us back to ourselves: the memorial revives in our minds what we owe to another; the remembrancer puts us in mind of what we owe to ourselves; it is that which recalls us to a sense of our duty: a gift is the best memorial we can give of ourselves to another: a sermon is often a good remembrancer of the duties which we have neglected to perform; 'When God is forgotten, his judgements are his remembrancers.'-Cowper.

GRAVE, TOMB, SEPULCHRE.

All these terms denote the place where bodies are deposited. Grave, from the German graben to dig, has a reference to the hollow made in the earth; tomb, from tumulus and tumeo to swell, has a reference to the rising that is made above it; sepulchre, from sepelio to bury, has a reference to the use for which it is employed. From this explanation it is evident, that these terms have a certain propriety of application; 'to sink into the grave' is an expression that carries the thoughts where the body must rest in death

The path of glory leads but to the grave. - GRAY. To inscribe on the tomb, or to encircle the tomb with flowers, carries our thoughts to the external of that place in which the body is interred;

Nor you, ye proud, impute to these the fault, If mem'ry o'er their tombs no trophies raise .- GRAY. To inter in a sepulchre, or to visit or enter a sepulchre, reminds us of a place in which bodies are deposited;

The Lay itself is either lost or buried, perhaps for ever, in one of those sepulchres of MSS, which by courtesy are called libraries."—TYRWHEFT

TO ADORN, DECORATE, EMBELLISH.

Adorn, in Latin adorno, is compounded of the intensive syllable ad and orno, in Greek ωραίω to make beautiful, signifying to dispose for the purpose of orna ment; decorate, in Latin decoratus, participle of decoro, from decorate becoming, signifies to make becoming, embellish, in French embellir, is compounded of the intensive syllable em or in and bellir or bel, in Latin bellus handsome, signifying to make handsome.

One adorns by giving the best external appearance

to a thing:

As vines the trees, as grapes the vines adorn.

One decorates by annexing something to improve its appearance; 'A few years afterward (1751), by the death of his father, Lord Lyttleton inherited a baronet's title, with a large estate, which, though perhaps he did not augment, he was careful to adorn by a house of great elegance, and by much attention to the decoration of his park.'—Johnson. One embellishes by giving a finishing stroke to a thing that is well executed; 'I shall here present my reader with a letter from a projector, concerning a new office which he thinks may very much contribute to the embellishment of the city. -Addison. Females adorn their persons by the choice and disposal of their dress; a headdress is decorated with flowers, or a room with paintings; fine writing is embellished by suitable flourishes.

Adorn and embellish are figuratively employed; decorate only in the proper sense. The mind is adorned by particular virtues which are implanted in it; a narrative is embellished by the introduction of some strik-

ing incidents.

OBLONG, OVAL.

Oblong, in Latin oblongus, from the intensive syllable ob, signifies very long, longer than it is broad; oval from the Latin ovum an egg, signifies egg shaped. The oval is a species of the oblong: what is oval is

oblong; but what is oblong is not always oval. long is peculiarly applied to figures formed by right lines, that is, all rectangular parallelograms, except squares, are oblong; but the oval is applied to curvi-linear oblong figures, as ellipses, which are distin-guished from the circle: tables are oftener oblong than oval; garden beds are as frequently oval as they are oblong.

GLOBE, BALL.

Globe, in Latin globus, comes probably from the Greek γήλοφος a hillock of earth; ball, in Teutonick ball, is doubtless connected with the words bowl, bow, bend, and the like, signifying that which is turned or rounded.

Globe is to ball as the species to the genus; a globe is a ball, but every ball is not a globe. The globe does not in its strict sense require to be of an equal rotundity in all its parts; it is properly an irregularly round body; 'It is said by modern philosophers, that not only the great globes of matter are thinly scattered through the universe, but the hardest bodies are so porous, that if all matter were compressed to perfect solidity, it might be contained in a cube of a few feet.'-Johnson. A ball on the other hand is generally any round body, but particularly one that is entirely regularly round, the earth itself is therefore properly denominated a globe, from its unequal rotundity; and for the same reason the mechanical body which is made to reprereason the inethalical body which is made to repre-sent the earth is also denominated a globe; but in the higher style of writing the earth is frequently deno-minated a ball, and in familiar discourse every solid body which assumes a circular form is entitled a ball;

What though in solemn silence all Move round the dark terraqueous ball, In reason's ear they all rejoice, And utter forth a glorious voice.-Appison.

TO EMIT, EXHALE, EVAPORATE.

Emit, from the Latin emitto, expresses properly the act of sending out. exhale, from halitus the breath, and evaporate, from vapor vapour or steam, are both modes of emitting.

Emit is used to express a more positive effort to send out; cxhale and evaporate designate the natural and progressive process of things; volcanoes emit fire and flames:

Full in the blazing sun great Hector shin'd Like Mars commission'd to comound mankind;

His nodding helm emits a streamy ray,

His piercing eyes through all the battle stray .- Pope.

The earth exhales the damps, or flowers exhale perfumes:

Here paus'd a moment, while the gentle gale Convey'd that freshness the cool seas exhale POPE.

Liquids evaporate; 'After allowing the first fumes and heat of their zeal to evaporate, she (Elizabeth) called into her presence a certain number of each house.'--ROBERTSON.

Animals may emit by an act of volition; things exhale or evaporate by an external action upon them: porate that which constitutes a part of their substance.

The pole-cat is reported to emit such a stench from itself when pursued, as to keep its pursuers at a distance from itself; bogs and fens exhale their moisture when acted upon by the heat; water evaporates by means of steam when put into a state of ebullition.

ERUPTION, EXPLOSION.

The eruption, from e and rumpo, signifies the breaking forth, that is, the coming into view by a sudden bursting; explosion, from ex and plaudo, signifies bursting out with a noise: hence of flames there will be properly an eruption, but of gunpowder an explosion; volcanoes have their eruptions at certain intervals, which are sometimes attended with explosions; on this account the term eruption is applied to the human body, for whatever comes out as the effects of humour, and may be applied in the same manner to any indications of humour in the mind; the term explasion is also applied to the agitations of the mind which burst out; 'Sin may truly reign where it does not actually rage and pour itself forth in continual eruptions.'—Sourn. 'A burst of fury, an exclamation seconded by a blow, is the first natural explosion of a soul so stung by scorpions as Macbeth's. —Cum-BERLAND.

BREACH, BREAK, GAP, CHASM.

Breach and break are both derived from the same verb break (v. To break), to denote what arises from being broken, in the figurative sense of the verb itself; gap, from the English gape, signifies the thing that gapes or stands open; chasm, in Greek $\chi \acute{a}\sigma \mu a$ from χαίνω, and the Hebrew [7] to be open, signifies the hing that has opened itself

The idea of an opening is common to these terms, but they differ in the nature of the opening. A breach and a gap are the consequence of a violent removal which destroys the connexion; a break and a chasm may arise from the absence of that which would form a connexion. A breach in a wall is made by means of

cannon:

A mighty breach is made; the rooms conceal'd Appear, and all the palace is reveal'd .- DRYDEN.

Gaps in fences are commonly the effects of some violent effort to pass through;

Or if the order of the world below Will not the gap of one whole day allow, Give me that minute when she made her yow. DRYDEN.

A break is made in a page of printing by leaving off in the middle of a line; Considering probably, how much Homer had been disfigured by the arbitrary compilers of his works, Virgil, by his will, obliged Tucca and Varius to add nothing, nor so much as fill up the breaks he had left in his poem.'—Walsh. A chasm is left in writing when any words in the sentence are omitted;

⁴ The whole *chasm* in nature, from a plant to a man, is filled up with diverse kinds of creatures. —Addison.

A breach and a chasm always imply a larger open-

ing than a break or gap. A gap may be made in a knife; a breach is always made in the walls of a building or fortification: the clouds sometimes separate so as to leave small breaks; the ground is sometimes so convulsed by earthquakes as to leave frightful chasms

Breach and chasm are used morally; break and gap seldom otherwise than in application to natural ob-Trifling circumstances occasion wide breaches

When breach of faith join'd hearts does disengage, The calmest temper turns to wildest rage.—LEE.

The death of relatives often produces a sad chasm in the enjoyments of individuals;

Some lazy ages, lost in ease, No action leave to busy chronicles; Such, whose supine felicity but makes In story chasms, in epochas mistakes .- DRYDEN.

TO BREAK, RACK, REND, TEAR.

Break, in Saxon brecan, Danish and Low German breken, High German brechen, Latin frango, Greek βρηγνύμι, βρηχνύω, Chaldee פרק to separate; rack comes from the same source as break; it is properly the root of this word, and an onomatopeia, conveying a sound correspondent with what is made by breaking; rak in Swedish, and racco in Icelandish, signifies a breaking of the ice; rend is in Saxon hrendan, hreddan, Low German ritan, High German reissen to split, Greek ρήσσω, Hebrew γυη to break in pieces; tear, in Saxon taeran, Low German tiren, High German zerren, is an intensive verb from ziehen to pull, Greek τρώω, τείρω to bruise, Hebrew און to split, divide, or

The forcible division of any substance is the com mon characteristick of these terms.

Break is the generick term, the rest specifick: every thing racked, rent, or torn is broken, but not vice versa. Break has however a specifick meaning, in which it is comparable with the others. Breaking requires less violence than either of the others: brittle things may be broken with the slightest touch, but nothing can be racked without intentional violence of an extraordinary kind. Glass is quickly broken; a table is racked. Hard substances only are broken or racked; but every thing of a soft texture and composition may be rent or torn.

Breaking is performed by means of a blow; racking by that of a violent concussion; but rending and tear ing are the consequences of a pull. Any thing of wood or stone is broken; any thing of a complicated wood or stone is broken; any thing of a complicated structure, with hinges and joints, is racked; cloth is rent, paper is torn. Rend is sometimes used for what is done by design; a tear is always faulty. Cloth is sometimes rent rather than cut when it is wanted to be divided; but when it is torn it is injured. These terms are similarly distinguished in their figurative application;

But out affection!

All bond and privilege of nature break.

SHAKSPEARE.

Long has this secret struggl'd in my breast; Long has it rack'd and rent my tortur'd bosom. SMITH.

The people rend the skies with loud applause, And heaven can hear no other name but yours.

She sigh'd, she sobb'd, and, furious with despair, She rent her garments, and she tore her hair. DRYDEN.

Who would not bleed with transport for his country Tear every tender passion from his heart? THOMSON.

TO BREAK, BRUISE, SQUEEZE, POUND, CRUSH.

Break, v. To break, rack; bruise, in French briser Saxon brysed, not improbably from the same source as nress: squeeze, in Saxon cwysin, Low German quietsen, quoesen, Swedish quæsa, Latin quatio to shake, or produce a concussion; pound, in Saxon punian, is not improbably derived by a change of letters from the Latin tundo to bruise; crush, in French coraser, is most probably only a variation of the word squeeze, like crash, or squash.

Break always implies the separation of the component parts of a body; bruise denotes simply the de-troying the continuity of the parts. Hard, brittle substances, as glass, are broken;

Dash my devoted bark! ye surges, break it!
'T is for my ruin that the tempest rises.—Rowe.

Soft, pulpy substances, as flesh or fruits, are bruised;

Yet lab'ring well his little spot of ground, Some scatt'ring potherbs here and there he found; Which, cultivated with his daily care,

And, bruis'd with vervain, were his daily fare. DRYDEN.

The operation of bruising is performed either by a violent blow or by pressure; that of squeezing by compression only. Metals, particularly lead and silver, may be bruised; fruits may be either bruised or squeezed. In this latter sense bruise applies to the harder substances, or indicates a violent compression; squeeze is used for soft substances or a gentle compression. The kernels of nuts are bruised; oranges or apples are squeezed;

He therefore first among the swains was found, To reap the produce of his labour'd ground, And squeeze the combs with golden liquor crown'd. DRYDEN.

To pound is properly to bruise in a mortar so as to produce a separation of parts; And where the rafters on the columns meet,

We push them headlong with our arms and feet: Down goes the top at once; the Greeks beneath Are piecemeal torn, or pounded into death.

DRVDEN.

To crush is the most violent and destructive of all operations, which amounts to the total dispersion of all the parts of a body; 'Such were the sufferings of our Lord, so great and so grievous as none of us are in any degree able to undergo. That weight under which he crouched, would crush us.'—Tillotson.

What is broken may be made whole again; what is what is oroken hay be restored to its former tone and consistency; what is pounded is only reduced to smaller parts for convenience; but what is reushed is destroyed. When the wheel of a carriage passes over any body that yields to its weight, it crushes it to powder; thus in the figurative sense this term marks a total annihilation: if a conspiracy be not crushed in the bud, it will prove fatal to the power which has suf fered it to grow

To crush rebellion every way is just .- DARCY.

TO BREAK, BURST, CRACK, SPLIT.

Break, v. To break, rack; burst, in Saxon beorstan, bersten, byrsten, Low German baisten, basten. High German bersten, Old German bresten, Swedish brysta, is but a variation of break; crack is in Saxon cearcian, is but a variation of break; crack is in Saxon cearcian, French cracquer, High German kraken, Dow German kraken, Danish krakke, Greek κρίκειν, which are in all probability but variations of break, &c.; split, in Dutch split, Danish splitter, Low German splitten, High German spalten, Old German spilten, Swedish splita, which are all connected with the German platzen to burst, from the Greek σπαλυσσομαι to tear or split, and the Hebrew pelah to separate, palect or palety to cut in pieces.

Break denotes a forcible separation of the constituent parts of a body. Burst and crack are onomatopelas or imitations of the sound which are made in bursting and cracking. Splitting is a species of cracking that takes place in some bodies in a similar manner without being accompanied with the noise.

Breaking is generally the consequence of some ex-ternal violence: every thing that is exposed to violence

may without distinction be broken;

Ambitious thence the manly river breaks, And gathering many a flood, and copious fed With all the mellowed treasures of the sky, Winds in progressive majesty along.-Thomson. Bursting arises mostly from an extreme tension: not low bodies, when over-filled, burst;

Off, traitors! Off! or my distracted soul Will burst indignant from this jail of nature.

THOMSON.

Cracking is caused by the application of excessive the defective texture of the substance; glass cracks; the earth cracks; leather cracks;

And let the weighty roller run the round, To smooth the surface of th' unequal ground; Lest crack'd with summer heats the flooring flies, Or sinks, and through the crannies weeds arise. DRYDEN.

Splitting may arise from a combination of external and internal causes: wood in particular is liable to split;

Is 't meet that he Should leave the helm, and like a fearful lad, With tearful eyes, add water to the sea? While in his mean, the ship splits on the rock, Which industry and courage might have saved. SHAKSPEARE.

A thing may be broken in any shape, form, and degree. bursting leaves a wide gap; cracking and splitting leave a long aperture; the latter of which is commonly wider than that of the former.

RUPTURE, FRACTURE, FRACTION.

Rupture; from rumpo to break or burst, and fracture or fraction, from frango to break, denote different kinds of breaking, according to the objects to which the action is applied. Soft substances may suffer a rupture; as the rupture of a blood-vessel: hard substances a fracture; as the fracture of a bone. Rup-ture and fraction, though not fracture, are used in an improper application; as the rupture of a treaty, or the fraction of a unit into parts; 'To be an enemy, and once to have been a friend, does it not imbitter the rupture?'-South.

And o'er the high-pil'd hills of fractur'd earth, Wide dash'd the waves .-- Thomson.

FRAGILE, FRAIL, BRITTLE.

Fragile and frail, in French frêle, both come from the Latin fragiles, signifying breakable; but the former is used in the proper sense only, and the latter more generally in the improper sense: man, corporeally considered, is a fragile creature, his frame is composed of fragile materials; mentally considered, he is a frail creature, for he is liable to every sort of frailty;

What joys, alas! could this frail being give, That I have been so covetous to live .- DRYDEN.

Brittle comes from the Saxon brittan to break, and by the termination le or lis, denotes likewise a capacity to break, that is, properly breakable; but it conveys a stronger idea of this quality than fragile: the latter applies to whatever will break from the effects of time; brittle to that which will not bear a temporary violence in this sense all the works of men are fragile, and in fact all sublunary things; 'An appearance of delicacy, and even of fragility, is almost essential to beauty.— Burke. But glass, stone, and ice are peculiarly de-nominated brittle; and friendships are sometimes termed brittle; 'The brittle chain of this world's friendships is as effectually broken when one is "obli-tus meorum," as when one is "obliviscendus et illis." -CROFT.

SAP, UNDERMINE.

San signifies the juice which springs from the root of a tree; hence to sap signifies to come at the root of any thing by digging: to undermine signifies to form a mine under the ground, or under whatever is upon the ground: we may sap, therefore, without undermining; and undermine without sapping: we may sap the foundation of a house million; and undermine in the same of the same of the same in the same of the same of the same in the same of the same of the same in the same of the same in the same of the same of the same in the same of the same of the same in the same of the foundation of a house without making any mine underneatl.; and in fortifications we may undermine either a mound, a ditch, or a wall, without striking immediately at the foundation: hence, in the moral application, to sap is a more direct and decisive mode

of destruction; undermine is a gradual, and may be a partial, action. Infidelity saps the morals of a nation;

With morning drams,

A filthy custom which he caught from thee, Clean from his former practice, now he saps His youthful vigour.—Cumberland.

Courtlers undermine one another's interests at court; 'To be a man of business is, in other words, to be a plague and spy, a treacherous supplanter and under-miner of the peace of families.'—South.

TO ERADICATE, EXTIRPATE, EXTERMINATE.

To eradicate, from radix the root, is to get out by the root; extirpate, from ex and stirps the stem, is to get out the stock, to destroy it thoroughly. In the natural out the stock, to destroy it thoroughly. zense we may cradicate noxious weeds whenever we pull them from the ground; but we can never extirpate all noxious weeds, as they always disseminate their seeds and spring up afresh. These words are seldomer used in the physical than in the moral sense; where the former is applied to such objects as are conceived to be plucked up by the roots, as habits, vices, abuses, evils; and the latter to whatever is united or supposed evils; and the latter to whatever is united to destroyed to be united into a race or family, and is destroyed root and branch. Youth is the season when vicious basis may be thoroughly eradicated; 'It must be habits may be thoroughly eradicated; 'It must be every man's care to begin by eradicating those corruptions which, at different times, have tempted him to violate conscience. BLAIR. By the universal deluge the whole human race was extirpated, with the exception of Noah and his family;

Go thou, inglorious, from th' embattled plain : Ships thou hast store, and nearest to the main:
A nobler care the Grecians shall employ,
To combat, conquer, and extirpate Troy.—Pore.

Exterminate, in Latin exterminatus, participle of exterminate, in Lam exterminatus, participie of extermino, from ex or extra, and terminus, signifies to expel beyond a boundary (of life), that is, out of existence. It is used only in regard to such things as have life, and designates a violent and immediate action; extirpate, on the other hand, may designate a progressive action: the former may be said of individuals, but the latter is employed in the collective sense only. Plague, pestilence, famine, extirpate: the sword exter-minates; 'So violent and black were Haman's passions, that he resolved to exterminate the whole nation to which Mordecai belonged.'—BLAIR.

TO DEFACE, DISFIGURE, DEFORM.

Deface, disfigure, and deform signify literally to

Spoil the face, figure, and form.

Deface expresses more than either deform or disfigure. To deface is an act of destruction; it is the actual destruction of that which has before existed: to disfigure is either an act of destruction or an erroneous execution, which takes away the figure: to deform is altogether an imperfect execution, which renders the form what it should not be. A thing is defaced by design; it is disfigured either by design or accident; it is deformed either by an errour or by the nature of the

Persons only deface; persons or things disfigure; things are most commonly deformed of themselves. That may be defaced, the face or external surface of which may be injured or destroyed;

Yet she had heard an ancient rumour fly (Long cited by the people of the sky), That times to come should see the Trojan race

Her Carthage ruin, and her tow'rs deface. - DRYDEN.

That may be disfigured or deformed, the figure or form of which is imperfect or may be rendered imperfect; It is but too obvious that errours are committed in this part of religion (devotion). These frequently disfigure its appearance before the world, and subject it to unjust repreach.—BLAIR.

A beauteous maid above; but magick art With barking dogs deform'd her nether part.

DRYDEN.

A fine painting or piece of writing is defaced which is A fine painting or piece of writing is aejocca which is torn or besmeared with dirt: a fine building is disfigured by any want of symmetry in its parts: a building is deformed that is made contrary to all form. A more or less gradual: but to overthrow is to throw

statue may be defaced, disfigured, and deformed; it is defaced when any violence is done to the face or any outward part of the body; it is disfigured by the loss of a limb; it is deformed if made contrary to the per fect form of a person or thing to be represented.

Inanimate objects are mostly defaced or disfigured, but seldom deformed; animate objects are either dis-figured or deformed, but not defaced. A person may disfigure himself by his dress; he is deformed by the hand of nature.

BANE, PEST, RUIN.

Bane, in its proper sense, is the name of a poisonous plant; pest, in French peste, Latin pestis a plague, from pastum, participle of pasco to feed upon or consume; ruin, in French ruine, Latin ruina, from ruo to rush, signifies the falling into a ruin, or the cause

These terms borrow their figurative signification from three of the greatest evils in the world; namely, poison, plague, and destruction. Bane is said of things only; pest of persons only: whatever produces a deadly corruption is the bane; whoever is as obnoxious as the plague is a pest; luxnry is the bane of civil society; gaming is the bane of all youth; sycophants are the pests of society;

First dire Chimæra's conquest was enjoined; 'This pest he slaughter'd (for he read the skies) And trusted heaven's informing prodigies .- POPE.

Be this, O mother! your religious care; I go to rouse soft Paris to the war. Oh! would kind earth the hateful wretch embrace,

That pest of Troy, that ruin of our race. Deep to the dark abyss might he descend Troy yet should flourish, and my sorrows end

Bane when compared with ruin does not convey so strong a meaning; the former in its positive sense is that which tends to mischief;

Pierc'd through the dauntless heart then tumbles slain, And from his fatal courage finds his bane .- POPE.

Ruin is that which actually causes ruin: a love of pleasure is the bane of all young men whose fortune depends on the exercise of their talents: drinking is the ruin of all who indulge themselves in it to excess

POISON, VENOM.

Poison, in French poison, comes from the Latin potia a mion or drink; venom, in French venin, Latin venenum, comes probably from venæ the veins, because it circulates rapidly through the veins, and infects the blood in a deadly manner.

Prison is a general term; in its original meaning it Person is a general term; in its original meaning it signifies any potion which acts destructively upon the system; venom is a species of deadly or malignant poison: a poison may be either slow or quick; a venom is always most active in its nature: a poison must be administered inwardly to have its effect: a venom will act by an external application: the juice of the hellebore is a poison; the tongue of the adder and the tooth of the viper contain venom: many plants are unfit to hexate on account of the noisonous. plants are unfit to be eaten on account of the poisonous quality which is in them; the Indians are in the habit of dipping the tips of their arrows in a venomous juice,

which renders the slightest wound mortal.

The moral application of these terms is clearly drawn from their proper acceptation: the poison must be infused or injected into the subject; the venom acts upon him externally: bad principles are justly compared to a poison, which some are so unhappy as to suck in with their mothers milk; 'The Devil can convey the poison of his suggestions quicker than the agitation of thought or the strictures of fancy.'-South. The shafts of envy are peculiarly venomous when directed against those in elevated situations;

As the venom spread Frightful convulsions writh'd his tortur'd limbs.

TO OVERTURN, OVERTHROW, SUBVERT, INVERT, REVERSE.

over, which will be more or less violent. To overturn is to turn a thing either with its side or its bottom upward; but to subvert is to turn that under which should be upward: to reverse is to turn that before which should be behind; and to invert is to place that on its head which should rest on its feet. These terms differ accordingly in their application and circumstances: things are overturned by contrivance and gradual means; infidels attempt to overturn Christianity by the arts of ridicule and falsehood;

An age is rip'ning in revolving fate, When Troy small overturn the Grecian state.

DRYDEN.

The French revolutionists overthrew their lawful government by every act of violence;

Thus prudes, by characters o'erthrown, Imagine that they raise their own .- GAY.

To overturn is said of small matters; to subvert only of national or large concerns : domestick economy may be overturned; religious or political establishments may be subverted; 'Others, from publick spirit, laboured to prevent a civil war, which, whatever party should prevail, and stake, and perhaps subsert, the Spainsh power.'—Robertson. That may be overturned which is simply set up; that is subserted which has been established: an assertion may be overturned; the

best sanctioned principles may by artifice be subverted.

To overturn, overthrow, and subvert generally involve the destruction of the thing so overturned, overthrown, or subnerted, or at least render it for the time useless, and are, therefore, mostly unallowed acts; but reverse and invert, which have a more particular application, have a less specifick character of propriety we may reverse a proposition by taking the negative instead of the affirmative; a decree may be reversed so as to render it nugatory; but both of these acts may be right or wrong, according to circumstances; Our ancestors affected a certain pomp of style, and this affectation, I suspect, was the true cause of their so requently inverting the natural order of their words, especially in poetry.'—Tyrrwhitt. The order of particular things may be inverted to suit the conparticular things may be inverted to suit the convenience of parties; but the order of society cannot be inverted without subverting all the principles on which civil society is built; 'He who walks not uprightly has neither from the presumption of God's mercy reversing the decree of his justice, nor from his own purposes of a future repentance, any sure ground to set his foot upon.'-South.

TO OVERWHELM, CRUSH.

To overwhelm (v. To overbear) is to cover with a heavy body, so that one should sink under it: to crush is to destroy the consistency of a thing by violent pressure. A thing may be crushed by being overwhelmed, but it may be overwhelmed without being crushed; and it may be crushed without being overwhelmed. The girl Tarpeia, who betrayed the Capitoline hill to the Sabines, is said to have been overwhelmed with their arms, by which she was crushed to death. many persons fall on one, he may be overwhelmed, but not necessarily crushed; when a wagon goes over a body, it may be crushed, but not overwhelmed; 'Let not the political metaphysicks of Jacobins break prison, to burst like a Levanter, to sweep the earth with their hurricane, and to break up the fountains of the great deep to overwhelm us.'—BURKE.

Melt his cold heart, and wake dead nature in him, Crush him in thy arms .- OTWAY.

TO ROT, PUTREFY, CORRUPT.

The dissolution of bodies by an internal process is implied by all these terms; but the first two are applied to natural bodies only; the last to all bodies natural Rot is the strongest of all these terms; it denotes the last stage in the progress of dissolution: putrefy expresses the progress towards rottenness; and corruption the commencement. After fruit has arrived at its maturity or proper state of ripeness, it rots;

Debate destroys despatch, as fruits we see Rot when they hang too long upon the tree.

DENHAM.

Meat which is kept too long putrefies;

And draws the copious stream from swampy fens, Where putrefaction into life ferments .- Thomson.

There is a tendency in all bodies to corruption; iron and wood corrupt with time; whatever is made, or done, or wished by men, is equally liable to be corrupt or to grow corrupt;

After that they again returned beene, That in that gardin planted be agayne And grow afresh, as they had never seene Fleshy corruption nor mortal payne .- SPENSER

DESTRUCTION, RUIN.

Destruction, from destroy, and the Latin destruo, signifies literally to unbuild that which is raised up; ruin, from the Latin ruo to fall, signifies to fall into pieces: destruction is an act of immediate violence; rum is a gradual process: a thing is destroyed by some external action upon it; a thing falls to ruin of itself. We witness destruction wherever war or the adverse elements rage; we witness ruin whenever the works of man are exposed to the effects of time. Nevertheless, if destruction be more forcible and rapid, ruin is on the other hand more sure and complete. What is destroyed may be rebuilt or replaced; but what is ruined is lost for ever; it is past recovery.

When houses or towns are destroyed, fresh ones

rise up in their place; but when commerce is ruined, it seldom returns to its old course.

Destruction admits of various degrees: ruin is some-thing positive and general. The property of a man may be destroyed to a greater or less extent without necessarily involving his ruin;

Destruction hangs o'er you devoted wall, And nodding Ilion waits th' impending fall.—Pope.

The ruin of a whole family is oftentimes the conse quence of destruction by fire;

The day shall come, that great avenging day Which Troy's proud glories in the dust shall ay; When Priam's pow'rs, and Priam's self, shall fall, And one prodigious ruin swallow all.-Pope.

The health is destroyed by violent exercise or some other active cause; it is ruined by a course of imprudent conduct.

The happiness of a family is destroyed by broils and discord; the morals of a young man are ruined by a continued intercourse with vicious companions.

Destruction may be used either in the proper, or the improper sense; ruin has mostly a moral application.
The destruction of both body and soul is the con-

sequence of sin; the ruin of a man, whether in his temporal or spiritual concerns, is inevitable, if he follow the dictates of misguided passion.

DESTRUCTIVE, RUINOUS, PERNICIOUS.

Destructive signifies producing destruction (v. Destruction); ruinous, either having or causing ruin (v. Destruction); pernicious, from the Latin pernicies or per and neco to kill violently, signifies causing violent and total dissolution.

Destructive and ruinous, as the epithets of the preceding terms, have a similar distinction in their sense and application: fire and sword are destructive things; a poison is destructive; consequences are ruinous; a condition or state is ruinous; intestine commotions are ruinous to the prosperity of a state;

'T is yours to save us if you cease to fear; Flight, more than shameful, is destructive here.

'There have been found in history few conquests more ruinous than that of the Saxons,'—Hume.

Pernicious approaches nearer to destructive than to ruinous; both the former imply tendency to dissolution, which may be more or less gradual; but the latter refers us to the result itself, to the dissolution as already having taken place: hence we speak of the instrument or cause as being destructive or pernicious, and the action or event as ruinous; destructive is applied in the most extended sense to every object which has the most extended sense to every object which has been created or supposed to be so; permicions is applicable only to such objects as act only in a limited way; sin is equally destructive to both body and soul; cer tain food is pernicious to the body; certain books are

permicious to the mind; 'The effects of divisions (in a state) are pernicuous to the last degree, not only with regard to those advantages which they give the common enemy; but to those private evils which they produce in the heart of almost every particular person.'--ADDISON.

TO CONSUME, DESTROY, WASTE.

Consume, in French consumer, Latin consumo, compounded of con and sumo, signifies to take away alto-gether; destroy, in Latin destruo, compounded of de privative and struo to build, signifies to undo or scatter that whice has been raised; waste, from the adjective waste or desert, signifies to make waste or naked.

The idea of bringing that to nothing which has been

something is common to all these terms.

What is consumed is lost for any future purpose; what is destroyed is rendered unfit for any purpose whatever: consume may therefore be to destroy as the means to the end; things are often destroyed by being consumed: when food is consumed it serves the intended purpose; but when it is destroyed it serves no purpose, and is likewise unfit for any.

When iron is consumed by rust, or the body by dis-

ease, or a house by the flames, the things in these cases are literally destroyed by consumption: on the other hand, when life or health is taken away, and when things are either worn or torn so as to be useless, they

are destroyed;

Let not a fierce unruly joy
The settled quiet of the mind destroy.—Addison.

In the figurative signification consume is synonymous with waste: the former implies a reducing to nothing; the latter conveys also the idea of misuse: to waste is to consume uselessly; much time is consumed in complaining, which might be employed in remedying the evils complained of; 'Mr. Boyle, speaking of a certain mineral, tells us that a man may consume his whole life in the study, without arriving at the knowledge of its qualities. —Addison. Idlers waste their time because they do not properly estimate its value: those who consume their strength and their resources in fruitless endeavours to effect what is impracticable, are unfitted for doing what might be beneficial to themselves: it is an idle waste of one's powers to employ them in building up new systems, and making men dissatisfied with those already established;

For this I mourn, till grief or dire disease Shall waste the form whose crime it was to please.

POPE.

TO DEMOLISH, RAZE, DISMANTLE, DESTROY.

The throwing down what has been built up is the

common idea included in all these terms.

Demotish, from the Latin demotior, and moles a mass, signifies to decompound what has been in a mass; raze like erase (v. To blot out) signifies the making smooth or even with the ground; dismantle, in French demanteler, signifies to deprive of the mantle or guard; destroy, from the Latin destruo, compounded of the privative de and struo to build, signifies properly to pull down.

A fabrick is demolished by scattering all its component parts; it is mostly an unlicensed act of caprice; it is * razed by way of punishment, that it may be left as a monument of publick vengeance; a fortress is disas a minument of pulmers are described in order to render it defenceless; places are destroyed by various means and from various motives, that they may not exist any

Individuals may demolish; justice causes a razure; a general orders towers to be dismantled and fortifications to be destroyed;

From the demolish'd tow'rs the Trojans throw Huge heaps of stones, that falling crush the foe DRYDEN.

Great Diomede has compass'd round with walls The city which Argyripa he calls,

From his own Argos nam'd; we touch'd with joy The royal hand that raz'd unhappy Troy .- DRYDEN

* Vide Abbe Girard: " Demolir, raser, demanteler, detruire.

O'er the drear spot see desolation spread. And the dismantled walls in ruin lie .-- MOORE. We, for myself I speak, and all the name Of Grecians who to Troy's destruction came, Not one but suffered and too dearly bought The prize of honour which in arms he sought. DRYDEN

TO BEREAVE, DEPRIVE, STRIP.

Bereave, in Saxon bereafian, German berauben, &c is compounded of be and reave or rob, Saxon reafian, German rauben, Low German roofen, &c. Latin ra-German raugen, Low German roofen, &C. Latin ra-pina and rapio to catch or seize, signifying to take away contrary to one's wishes; deprive, compounded of de and prive, French priver, Latin privo, from pri-vus private, signifies to make that one's own which was another's; strip is in German streifen, Low Ger-man streipen, stroepen, Swedish strifa, probably changed from the Latin surripio to snatch by stealth.

To bereave expresses more than deprive, but less than strip, which in this sense is figurative, and dethan strip, which in this sense is ngurative, and denotes a total bereavement; one is bereaved of children, deprived of pleasures, and stripped of property: we are bereaved of that on which we set most value; the act of bereaving does violence to our inclination: we are deprived of the ordinary comforts and conveniences of life; they cease to be ours: we are stripped of the things which we most want; we are thereby rendered as it were naked. Deprivations are preparatory to bereavements; if we cannot bear the one patiently, we may expect to sink under the other; com mon prudence should teach us to look with unconcern on our deprivations: Christian faith should enable us to consider every bereavement as a step to perfection; that when stripped of all worldly goods we may be invested with those more exalted and lasting honours which await the faithful disciple of Christ.

We are bereaved of our dearest hopes and enjoyments by the dispensations of Providence:

O first-created Being, and thou great Word, Let there be light, and light was over all; Why am I thus bereav'd thy prime decree? MILTON.

Casualties deprive us of many little advantages or gratifications which fall in our way :

Too daring bard! whose unsuccessful pride Th' immortal muses in their art defied Th' avenging muses of the light of day Depriv'd his eyes, and snatch'd his voice away.

Men are active in *stripping* each other of their jus rights and privileges; 'From the uncertainty of life, moralists have endeavoured to sink the estimation of its pleasures, and if they could not strip the seductions of vice of their present enjoyment, at least to load them with the fear of their end.'-MACKENZIE.

DEPREDATION, ROBBERY.

Depredation, in Latin deprædatio, from præda a prey, signifies the act of spoiling or laying waste, as well as taking away; robbery, on the other hand, sig nifies simply the removal or taking away from another by violence. Every depredation, therefore, includes a robbery, but not vice versa. A depredation is always attended with mischief to some one, though not always with advantage to the depredator; but the robber always calculates on getting something for himself. Depredations are often committed for the indulgence of private animosity; robbery is always committed from a thirst for gain.

Depredation is either the publick act of a community, or the private act of individuals; robbery mostly the private act of individuals. Depredations are committed wherever the occasion offers; in open or covert places: robberies are committed either on the persons or houses of individuals. In former times neighbour ing states used to commit frequent depredations on each other, even when not in a state of open hostility; robberies were, however, then less frequent than at present; 'As the delay of making war may sometimes be detrimental to individuals, who have suffered by depredations from foreign potentates, our laws have

in some respects, armed the subject with powers to | finished about half a century after the capture of Troy. impel the prerogative, by directing the ministers to issue letters of marque.'—BLACKSTONE. 'From all this, what is my inference? 'That this new system of .obbery in France cannot be rendered safe by any art.'

Depredation is used in the proper and bad sense, for animals as well as for men; robbery may be employed figuratively and in the indifferent sense. Birds are great depredators in the cornfields; bees may be said to plunder or rob the flowers of their sweets.

TO DEPRIVE, DEBAR, ABRIDGE.

Deprive (v. To bereave) conveys the idea of either taking away that which one has, or withholding that taking away that which one has, or withholding that which one may have; debar, from de and bar, signifying to prevent by means of a bar, conveys the idea only of withholding; abridge (v. To abridge) conveys that also of taking away. Depriving is a coercive measure; debar and abridge are merely acts of authority. We are deprived of that which is of the first processity. We are deprived of that which is of the first necessity; we are debarred of privileges, enjoyments, opportunities, &c.; we are abridged of comforts, pleasures, conveniences, &c. Criminals are deprived of their liberty; their friends are in extraordinary cases debarred the privilege of seeing them; thus men are often abridged of their comforts in consequence of their own faults.

Deprivation and debarring sometimes arise from things as well as persons; abridging is always the voluntary act of conscious agents. Misfortunes sometimes deprive a person of the means of living; the poor are often debarred, by their poverty, of the op-portunity to learn their duty; it may sometimes be necessary to abridge young people of their pleasures when they do not know how to make a good use of them. Religion teaches men to be resigned under the severest deprivations; it is painful to be debarred the society of those we love, or to abridge others of any advantage which they have been in the habit of en-

joying.
When used as reflective verbs they preserve the same analogy in their signification. An extravagant same analogy in their signification. An extravagant person deprives himself of the power of doing good; 'Of what small moment to your real happiness are many of those injuries which draw forth your resentment? Can they deprive you of peace of conscience, of the satisfaction of having acted a right part?'—BLAIR. A person may debar himself of any pleasure from particular motives of prudence; 'Active and masculine spirits, in the vigour of youth, neither can nor ought to remain at rest. If they debar themselves from aiming at a noble object, their desires will move from aiming at a noble object, their desires will move downward.'-Hughes. A miser abridges himself of every enjoyment in order to gratify his ruling passion; The personal liberty of individuals in this kingdom cannot ever be abridged at the mere discretion of the magistrate.'-BLACKSTONE.

CAPTURE, SEIZURE, PRIZE.

Capture, in French capture, Latin captura, from captus, participle of capio to take, signifies either the act of taking, or the thing taken, but mostly the former; seizure, from seize, in French suisir, signifies only the act of seizing; prize, in French prise, from pris, participle of prendre to take, signifies only the

thing taken.

Capture and scizure differ in the mode: a capture is made by force of arms; a seizure by direct and personal violence. The capture of a town or an island requires an army; the seizure of property is effected by the exertions of an individual. A seizure always requires some force, which a capture does not. capture may be made on an unresisting object; it is nevely the taking into possession: a seezure supposes much eagerness for possession on the one hand, and reluctance to yield on the other. Merchant vessels are cuptured which are not in a state to make resistance; contraband goods are seized by the police officers

A capture has always something legitimate init; it is a publick measure flowing from authority, or in the course of lawful warfare; 'The late Mr. Robert Wood, in his essay on the original genius and writings of Homer, inclines to think the Iliad and Odyssey were

-Cumberland. A seizure is a private measure, fre quently as unlawful and unjust as it is violent; it depends on the will of the individual; 'Many of the dangers imputed of old to exorbitant wealth are now at an end. The rich are neither waylaid by robbers, nor watched by informers; there is nothing to he dreaded from proscriptions or seizures.'—Johnson. A capture is general, it respects the act of taking: prize is particular, it regards the object taken, and its value to the captor: many captures are made by sea which never become prizes; 'Sensible of their own force, and allured by the prospect of so rich a prize, the northern barbarians, in the reign of Areadius and Honorius, assailed at once all the frontiers of the Roman empire.'-HUMK.

BOOTY, SPOIL, PREY.

These words mark a species of capture. Booty, in French butin, Danish bytte, Dutch buyt, Teutonick beute, probably comes from the Teutonick bat a useful thing, denoting the thing taken for its use; spoil, in French depouille, Latin spolium, in Greek σκύλον, signifies the things stripped off from the dead, from συλάω, Hebrew Ος το spoil; prey, in French proie, Latin præda, is not improbably changed from rændo, prendo, or prehendo to lay hold of, signifying the thing seized.

The first two are used as military terms or in attacks on an enemy, the latter in cases of particular violence. The soldier gets his booty; the combatant his spoils; the carnivorous animal his prey. Booty respects what is of personal service to the captor; spoils whatever serves to designate his triumph; prey includes whatever gratifies the appetite and is to be consumed. When a town is taken, soldiers are too busy in the work of destruction and mischief to carry away much booty; in every battle the arms and personal property of the slain enemy are the lawful spoils of the victor; the hawk pounces on his prey, and carries him up to his nest:

'T was in the dead of night, when sleep repairs Our bodies worn with toils, our minds with cares, When Hector's ghost before my sight appears: A bloody shroud he seem'd, and bath'd in tears, Unlike that Hector who return'd from toils Of war, triumphant in Æacian spoils.—DRYDEN.

Greediness stimulates to take booty; ambition produces an eagerness for spoils; a ferocious appetite impels to a search for prey. Among the ancients the prisoners of war who were made slaves constituted a part of their booty; and even in later periods such a capture was good booty, when ransom was paid for those who could liberate themselves. Anong some savages the head or limb of an enemy constituted part of their spoils. Among cannibals the prisoners of war are the prey of the conquerors.

Booty and prey are often used in an extended and figurative sense. Plunderers obtain a rich booty; the diligent bee returns loaded with its booty; "When they (the French National Assembly) had finally determined on a state resource from church booty, they came on the 14th of April, 1790, to a solemn resolution on the subject. - BURKE. It is necessary that animals should become a prey to man, in order that man may not become a prey to them; every thing in nature becomes a prey to another thing, which in its nature becomes a prey to another uning, when it is turn falls a prey to something else. All is change but order. Man is a prey to the diseases of his body or his mind, and after death to the worms;

The wolf, who from the nightly ford Forth drags the bleating prey, ne'er drank her milk. Nor wore her warming fleece.—Thomson.

RAVAGE, DESOLATION, DEVASTATION.

Ravage comes from the Latin rapio, and the Greek Advage comments from the Lattin rape, and the overall aboration, signifying a seizing or tearing away; desolation, from solus alone, signifies made solitary or reduced to solitude; devastotion, in Latin devastatio, from devasto to lay waste, signifies reducing to a waste

^{*} Vide Roubaud: " Proie, butin "

Ravage expresses less than either desolation or devastation: a breaking, tearing, or destroying is implied in the word ravage; but the desolation goes to the entire unpeopling a land, and the devastation to the entire clearing away of every vestige of cultivation. Torients, flames, tempests, and wild beasts ravage;

Beasts of prey retire, that all night long, Urg'd by necessity, had rang'd the dark, As if their conscious ravage shunn'd the light, Asham'd.—Thomson.

War, plague, and famine desolate;

Amid thy bow'rs the tyrant's hand is seen, And desolation saddens all thy green.

GOLDSMIT

Armies of barbarians, who inundate a country, carry devastation with them wherever they go; 'How much the strength of the Roman republick is impaired, and what dreadful devastation has gone forth into all its provinces!'—MELMOTH (Letters of Cicero), *Nothing resists ravages, they are rapid and terrible; nothing arrests desolation, it is cruel and unplying; devastation spares nothing, it is ferocious and indefatigable. Ravages spread alarm and terrour; desolation, grief and despair; devastation, dread and horrour.

Ravage is employed likewise in the moral application; desolation and devastation only in the proper application to countries. Disease makes its ravages on beauty; death makes its ravages among men in a more terrible degree at one time than at another;

Would one think 't were possible for love To make such ravage in a noble soul ?—Addison.

OVERSPREAD, OVERRUN, RAVAGE.

To overspread signifies simply to cover the whole surface of a body; but to overrun is a mode of spreading, namely, by running: things in general, therefore, are said to overspread which admit of extension; nothing can be said to overrun but what literally or figuratively runs: the face is overspread with spots; the ground is overrun with weeds. To overrun and extended destruction of an enemy; but the former expresses more than the latter; a small body may ravage in particular parts; but immense numbers are said to overrun, as they run into every part; the Barbarians overran all Europe, and settled in different countries; detachments are sent out to ravage the country or neighbourhood; 'The storm of hail and fire, with the darkness that overspread the land for three days, are described with great strength,'—Addison. 'Most despotick governments are naturally overrun with ignorance and barbarity.'—Addison. 'While Hetod was absent, the thieves of Trachonites ravaged with their depredations all the parts of Judea and Cœlo-Syria that lay within their reach. —Prideadx.

RAPINE, PLUNDER, PILLAGE.

The idea of property taken from another contrary to his consent is included in all these terms: but the term rapine includes most violence; pluader includes most removal or carrying away; pillage most search and scrutiny after. A soldier, who makes a sudden incursion into an enemy's country, and carries away whatever comes within his reach, is guilty of rapine;

Upon the banks
Of Tweed, slow winding thro' the vale, the seat
Of war and rapine once.—Somerville.

Robbers frequently carry away much plunder when they break into houses; 'Ship-money was pitched upon as fit to be formed by excise and taxes, and the burden of the subjects took off by plunderings and sequestrations.'—South. When an army sack a town they strip it of every thing that is to be found, and go away loaded with pillage; 'Although the Eretrians for a time stood resolutely to the defence of their city, it was given up by treachery on the seventh day, and pillaged and destroyed in a most barbarous manner by the Per-

* Vide Roubaud: "Ravager, desoler, devaster, saccager."

sians,'—CUMBERLAND. Mischief and bloodshed attend rapine; loss attends plunder; distress and rum follow wherever there has been pillage.

RAPACIOUS, RAVENOUS, VORACIOUS.

Rapacious, in Latin rapaz, from rapio to seize, signities seizing or grasping a thing with an eager desire to have; ravenous, from the Latin rabies a firty, and rapio to seize, signifies the same as rapacious; voracious, from voro to devour, signifies an eagerness to devour.

The idea of greediness, which forms the leading features in the subject and the object: rapacious is the quality peculiar to beasts of prey, or of men who are actuated by a similar spirit of plunder; 'A display of our wealth before robbers is not the way to restrain their boldness, or to lessen their rapacity.'—BURKE. Kavenous and voracious are common to all animals, when impelled by hunger. The beasts of the forest are rapacious at all times; all animals are more or less rapacitous, as circumstances may make them: the rapacious applies to the seizing of other animals as food; the ravenous applies to the seizing of any thing which one takes for one's food;

Again the holy fires on altars burn, And once again the rav'nous birds return.

DRYDEN.

A lion is rapacious when it seizes on its prey; it is ravenous in the act of consuming it. The word ravenous respects the haste with which one eats; the word varacious respects the quantity which one consumes:

Ere you remark another's sin, Bid thy own conscience look within; Control thy more voracious bill, Nor for a breakfast nations kill.—GAN.

A ravenous person is loath to wait for the dressing of his food; he consumes it without any preparation: a voracious person not only eats in haste, but he consumes great quantities, and continues to do so for a long time. Abstinence from food, for an unusual length, will make any healthy creature ravenous; habit ual intemperance in eating, or a diseased appetite, wilk produce voracity.

As the leading idea in the term rapacious is that of plunder, it may be extended to things figuratively. 'Any of these, without regarding the pains of church men, grudge them those small remains of ancient piety, which the rapacity of some ages has scarce left to the church.'—SPRAT.

SANGUINARY, BLOODY, BLOOD-THIRSTY.

Sanguinary, from sanguis, is employed both in the sense of bloody or having blood; blood-thirsty, or the thirsting after blood: sanguinary, in the first case, relates only to blood shed, as a sanguinary engagement, or a sanguinary conflict; 'They have seen the French rebel against a mild and lawful monarch with more fury than ever any people has been known to rise against the most illegal usurper or the most sanguinary tyrant.'—Burke. Bloody is used in the familiar application, to denote the simple presence of blood, as a bloody coal, or a bloody sword;

And from the wound,
Black bloody drops distill'd upon the ground.

DRYDEN.

In the second case, sanguinary is employed to characterize the tempers of persons only; blood-thirsty to characterize the tempers of persons or animals: the French revolution has given us many specimens how sanguinary men may become who are abandoned to their own furious passions; tigers are by nature the most blood-thirsty of all creatures; 'The Peruvians fought not like the Mexicans, to glut blood-thirsty divinities with human sacrinces.'—Robertson.

TO ENCROACH, INTRENCH, INTRUDE, INVADE, INFRINGE.

Encroach, in French encrocher, is compounded of en or in and crouch cringe or creep, signifying to creep into any thing; intrench, compounded of in and trench, sig

nifies to trench or dig beyond one's own into another's ground, intrude, from the Latin intrudo, signifies literally to thrust upon; and invade, from invado, signifies to march in upon; infringe, from the Latin infringe, compounded of in and frango, signifies to break in

All these terms denote an unauthorized procedure: but the two former designate gentle or silent actions, the latter violent if not noisy actions.

Encroach is often an imperceptible action, performed with such art as to clude observation; it is, according to its derivation, an insensible creeping into: intrench is in fact a species of encroachment, namely, that perceptible species which consists in exceeding the boundaries in marking out the ground or space: it should be one of the first objects of a parent to check the first indications of an encroaching disposition in their children; according to the building laws, it is made actionable for any one to intrench upon the street or publick

road with their houses or gardens.

In an extended application of these terms we may speak of encroaching on a person's time, or intrench-ing on the sphere, &c. of another: intrude and invade designate an unauthorized entry; the former in violation of right, equity, or good manners; the latter in violation of publick law: the former is more commonly applied to individuals; the latter to nations or large communities: unbidden guests intrude themselves sometimes into families to their no small annoyance; an army never invades a country without doing some mischief: nothing evinces a greater ignorance and impertinence than to intrude one's self into any company where we may of course expect to be unwelcome; in the feudal times, when civil power was invested in the hands of the nobility and petty princes, they were incessantly invading each other's territories; 'It is observed by one of the fathers that he who restrains himself in the use of things lawful will never encroach upon things forbidden.—Johnson. 'Religion intrenches upon none of our privileges, invades none of our pleasures.'—South. 'One of the chief characteristicks of the golden age, of the age in which neither care nor danger had intruded on mankind, is the community of possessions."—Johnson.

Invade has likewise an improper as well as a proper acceptation; in the former case it bears a close analogy we speak of invading rights, or infring to infringe; we speak of invading rights, or infring-ing rights; but the former is an act of greater violence than the latter: by an authorized exercise of power the rights of a people may be invaded; by gradual steps and imperceptible means their liberties may be infringed: invade is used only for publick privileges infringe is applied also to those which belong to indi-

viduals.

King John of England invaded the rights of the Barons in so senseless a manner as to give them a colour for their resistance; it is of importance to the peace and well-being of society that men should, in their different relations, stations, and duties, guard against any infringement on the sphere or depart-ment of such as come into the closest connexion with them:

No sooner were his eyes in slumber bound, When from above a more than mortal sound Invades his ears .- DRYDEN.

'The King's partisans maintained that, while the prince commands no military force, he will in vain by violence attempt an infringement of laws so clearly defined by means of late disputes.'-HUME.

TO INFRINGE, VIOLATE, TRANSGRESS.

Infringe, v. To encroach; riolate, from the Latin vis force, signifies to use force towards; transgress, v. Offence

Civil and moral laws are *infringed* by those who act in opposition to them; 'I hold friendship to be a very holy league, and no less than a piacle to *infringe* it.' -Howeld. Treaties and engagements are violated by those who do not hold them sacred;

No violated leagues with sharp remorse Shall sting the conscious victor. - Somerville.

The bounds which are prescribed by the moral law are transgressed by those who are guilty of any excess;

Why hast thou, Satan, broke the bounds prescrib'd To thy transgressions?-MILTON.

It is the business of government to see that the rights and privileges of individuals or particular bodies be not infringed: policy but too frequently runs counter to equity; where the particular interests of princes are more regarded than the dictates of conscience, treatics and compacts are first violated and then justified: the passions, when not kept under proper control, will ever hurry men on to transgress the limits of right reason.

INFRINGEMENT, INFRACTION.

Infringement and infraction, which are both derived from the Latin verb infringe or frange (v. Toinfringe), are employed according to the different senses of the verb infringe: the former being applied to the rights of individuals, either in their domestick or publick capacity; and the latter rather to national transactions. Politeness, which teaches us what is due to every man in the smallest concerns, considers any unasked-for interference in the private affairs of another as an infringement; 'We see with Orestes (or rather with Sophocles), that "it is fit that such gross infringements of the moral law (as parricide) should be punished with death." — MACKENZIE. Equity, which enjoins on nations as well as individuals, an attentive consideration to the interests of the whole, forbids the infraction of a treaty in any case;
'No people can, without the infraction of the universal league of social beings, incite those practices in an other dominion which they would themselves punish in their own.'-Johnson.

INVASION, INCURSION, IRRUPTION, INROAD.

The idea of making a forcible entrance into a foreign territory is common to all these. Invasion, from vado to go, expresses merely this general idea, without any particular qualification; incursion, from curre to run, signifies a hasty and sudden invasion; irruption, from rumpo to break, signifies a particularly violent invasion; inroad, from in and road, signifies a making a road or way for one's self, which includes invasion and occupation. Invasion is said of that which passes in distant lands; Alexander invaded India; Hannibal crossed the Alps, and made an invasion into Italy;

The nations of the Ausonian shore Shall hear the dreadful rumour, from afar, Of arm'd invasion, and embrace the war. DRYDEN.

Incursion is said of neighbouring states; the borderers on each side the Tweed used to make frequent incursions into England or Scotland; 'Britain by its situation was removed from the fury of these barbarous incursions.'-HUME. Invasion is the act of a regular army; it is a systematick military movement: irruption is the irregular and impetuous movement of undisciplined troops. The invasion of France by the allies was one of the grandest military movements that the world ever witnessed; the irruption of the Goths and Vandals into Europe has been acted over again by the late revolutionary armies of France; 'The study of ancient literature was interrupted in Europe, by the

irruption of the northern nations.—Johnson.

An invasion may be partial and temporary; one invades from various causes, but not always from hostility to the inhabitants: an inroad is made by a con-queror who determines to dispossess the existing oc cupier of the land: invasion is therefore to inroad only as a means to an end. He who invades a country, and gets possession of its strong places so as to have an entire command of the land, is said to make inroads into that country; but since it is possible to get forcible possession of a country by other means besides that of a military entry, there may be an inroad where there is no express invasion; 'From Scotland we have had in former times some alarms, and inroads into the northern parts of this kingdom.'—BACON. Alexander made such inroads into Persia, as to become master of the whole country; but the French republick, and all its usurped authorities, made inroads into different countries by means of spies and revolutionary incen them to the power of France.

These terms bear a similar distinction in the improper sense. In this case invasion is figuratively employed to express a violent seizure, in general of what belongs to individuals, particularly that which he enjoys by civil compact, namely, his rights and privi-The term may also be extended to other objects, as when we speak of invading a person's province, &c.; 'Encouraged with success, he invades the province of philosophy.'—DRYDEN. Things may likewise be said to invade;

Far off we hear the waves, which surly sound, Invade the rocks; the rocks their groans rebound.

In like manner we speak of the inroads which disease makes on the constitution; of the incursion or irruntion of unpleasant thoughts in the mind; 'Rest and labour equally perceive their reign of short dura-tion and uncertain tenure, and their empire liable to inroads from those who are alike enemies to both.'-JOHNSON.

I refrain, too suddenly, To utter what will come at last too soon: Lest evil tidings, with too rude irruption, Hitting thy aged ear should pierce too deep. MILTON.

Sins of daily incursion, and such as human frailty is unavoidably liable to.'-South.

INTRUDER, INTERLOPER.

An intruder (v. To intrude) thrusts himself in; an interloper, from laufen, runs in between and takes his station. The intruder may be so only for a short space of time, in an unimportant degree; or may intrude only in unimportant mavers; the interloper abridges another of his essemial rights and for a permanency. A man is an intruder who is an unbidden guest at the table of another

Will you, a bold intruder, never learn To know your basket and your bread discern? DRYDEN.

A man is an interloper when be joins any society in such manner as to obtain its privileges, without sharing its burdens; 'Some proposed to yest the trade to America in exclusive companies, which interest would render the most vigilant guardians of the Spanish commerce, against the encroachments of interlopers,' -Robertson. The term intruder may, however, be applied to any who takes violent or unauthorized posapplied to any who takes violent of matthorized pos-session of what belongs to another; 'I would not have you to offer it to the doctor, as entinent physicians do not love intruders.'—Johnson. 'They were but in-truders upon the possession during the minority of the heir; they knew those lands were the rightful inheritance of that young lady.'-DAVIES.

TO INTRUDE, OBTRUDE.

To intrude is to thrust one's self into a place; to obtrude is to thrust one's self in the way. It is intrusion to go into any society unasked and undesired; it is obtruding to join any company and take a part in the conversation without invitation or consent. We violate the rights of another when we intrude; we set up ourselves by obtruding; one intrudes with one's person in the place which does not belong to one's self;

person in the place which does not belong to one's self; one obtrudes with one's person, remarks, &c., upon another: a person intrudes out of curiosity or any other personal gratification; he obtrudes out of vanity. Politeness denominates it intrusion to pass the threshold of another, without having first ascertained that we are perfectly welcome; modesty denominates that we are perfectly welcome, mousely denominates it obtrading to offer an opinion in the presence of another, unless we are expressly invited or authorized by our relationship and situation. There is no thinking man who does not feel the value of having some place of retirement, which is free from the intrusion of all impertinent visitants; it is the fault or young persons, who have formed any opinions for themselves, to obtrude them upon every one who will give them a hearing.

In the moral acceptation they preserve the same dis-tinction. In moments of devotion the serious man endeavours to prevent the intrusion of improper ideas stripped of all their most important doctrines; How

diaries, who effected more than the sword in subjecting in his mind: 'The intrusion of scruples, and the recollection of better notions, will not suffer some to live contented with their own conduct.'-Johnson. 'The stings of conscience obtrude themselves upon the guilty even in the season of their greatest merriment; 'Artissare sometimes ready to talk to an incidental inquirer as they do to one another, and to make their know-ledge ridiculous by injudicious obtrusion.'—Johnson.

TO ABSORB, SWALLOW UP, INGULF, ENGROSS.

Absorb, in French absorber, Latin absorbeo, is com pounded of ab and sorbee to sup up, in distinction from swallow up; the former denoting a gradual consump tion; the latter a sudden envelopement of the whole object. The excessive heat of the sun absorbs all the nutritious fluids of bodies animal and vegetable. The gaming table is a vortex in which the principle of every man is swollowed up with his estate; 'Surely the bare remembrance that a man was formerly rich or great cannot make him at all happier there, where an infinite happiness or an infinite misery shall equally swallow up the sense of these poor felicities.'—SOUTH Ingulf, compounded of in and gulf, signifies to be enclosed in a great gulf, which is a strong figurative representation for being swallowed up. As it applies to grand and sublime objects, it is used only in the higher style;

Ingulf'd, all helps of art we vainly try To weather leeward shores, alas! too nigh. FALCONER.

Engross, which is compounded of the French words en gros in whole, signifies to purchase wholesale, so as to swallow up the profits of others. In the moral application, therefore, it is very analogous to absorb.

The mind is absorbed in the contemplation of any

subject, when all its powers are so bent upon it as not to admit distraction;

Absorbed in that immensity I see, I shrink abased, and yet aspire to thee.—Cowrer

The mind is engrossed by any subject when the thoughts of it force themselves upon its contemplation to the exclusion of others which should engage the attention. 'Those two great things that so engrows the desires and designs of both the nobler and ignoher sort of mankind, are to be found in religion, namely, wisdom and pleasure.'—South. The term engrows may also convey the idea of taking from another, as well as taking to ourselves, which it is still more dis-tinguished from the other terms; 'This inconvenience the politician must expect from others, as well as they have felt from him, unless he thinks that he can en gross this principle to himself, and that others cannot be as false and atheistical as himself.'-South.

TO MUTILATE, MAIM, MANGLE.

Mutilate, in Latin mutilatus, from mutilo and muulus, Greek μύτιλος or μίτυλος without horns, signifies to take off any necessary part; maim and mangle are in all probability derived from the Latin mancus, which comes from manus, signifying to deprive of a hand, or to wound in general.

Mutilate has the most extended meaning; it implies manager has the most extended meaning; it implies the abridging of any limb: mangle is applied to irregular wounds in any part of the body: maim is confined to wounds in the hands. Men are exposed to be mutilated by means of cannon balls; they are in danger of being mangled when attacked promiscuously with the sword; they frequently get maimed when boarding vessels or storning places. One is mutilated and mangled by active means; one becomes mained by natural infirmity

They are similarly distinguished in the moral application, but maining is the effect of a direct effort whereby an object loses its value; 'I have shown the evil of maining and splitting religion.'—Blair. Manevil of maximing and spinting religion.—BLAR. Mangling is a much stronger term than mutilating, the latter signifies to lop off an essential part; to mangle is to mutilate a thing to such a degree as to render it useless or worthless. Every sect of Christians is fond of mutilating the Bible by setting aside such parts as do not favour their own ideas, so that among them the sacred Scriptures have been literally mangled, and Hales would have borne the mutilations which his Plea of the Crown has suffered from the editor, they who know his character will easily conceive.'—Johnson. 'What have they (the French nobility) done that they should be hunted about, manufed, and for that they should be hunted about, mangled, tured ?'-BURKE.

TO KILL, MURDER, ASSASSINATE, SLAY OR SLAUGHTER.

Kill, which is in Saxon cyclan, and Dutch kelan, is of uncertain origin; murder, in German mord, &c. is connected with the Latin mors death; assassinate signifies to kill after the manner of an assassin; which word probably comes from the Levant, where a prince of the Arsacides or assassms, who was called the old man of the mountains, lived in a castle between Antioch and Damascus, and brought up young men to lie in wait for passengers; slay or slaughter, in German schlagen, &c. is probably connected with liegen to lie, signifying to lay low.

To kill is the general and indefinite term, signifying

simply to take away life; to murder is to kill with open violence and injustice; to assassinate is to murder by surprise, or by means of lying in wait; to slay is to kill in battle: to kill is applicable to men, animals and also vegetables; to murder and assassinate to and also vegetaines; to nuraer and assassinate to men only; to slay mostly to men, but sometimes to animals; to slaughter only to animals in the proper sense, but it may be applied to zien in the improper sense, when they are killed like brutes, either as to the numbers or to the manner of killing them; 'The fierce young hero who had overcome the Curiatti, being published by his sister for having also had. being upbraided by his sister for having slain her lover, in the height of his resentment kills her.'—Addison. 'Murders and executions are always transacted behind the scenes in the French theatre.—Addison.

'The women interposed with so many prayers and entreaties, that they prevented the mutual slaughter which threatened the Romans and the Sabines.—Additional threatened the Romans and the Sabines.—Additional threatened the Romans and the Sabines.—Additional threatened the Romans and the Sabines.

On this vain hope, adulterers, thieves rely, And to this alter vile assassins fly.—JENYNS.

CARNAGE, SLAUGHTER, MASSACRE, BUTCHERY.

Carnage, from the Latin caro carnis flesh, implies properly a collection of dead flesh, that is, the reducing to the state of dead flesh; slaughter, from slay, is the act of taking away life; massacre, in French massacre, comes from the Latin mactare, to kill for sacrifice; butchery, from to butcher, signifies the act of butche ing; in French boucherie, from bouche the mouth, signifies the killing for food.

Carnage respects the number of dead bodies made; it may be said either of men or animals, but more commonly of the former; slaughter respects the act of taking away life, and the circumstances of the agent; mussacre and butchery respect the circumstances of the objects who are the sufferers of the action: the three latter are said of human beings only-

Carnage is the consequence of any impetuous attack from a powerful enemy. Soldiers who get into a be-sieged town, or a wolf who breaks into a sheepfold. commonly make a dreadful carnage;

The carnage Juno from the skies survey'd. And, touch'd with grief, bespoke the blue-ey'd maid.

Slaughter is the consequence of warfare. In battles the slaughter will be very considerable where both parties defend themselves pertinaciously;

Yet, yet a little, and destructive slaughter Shall rage around and mar this beauteous prospect.

A massacre is the consequence of secret and personal resentment between bodies of people. It is always a stain upon the nation by whom it is practised, as it cannot be effected without a violent breach of confidence, and a direct act of treachery; of this description was the massacre of the Danes by the original Britons, and the massacre of the Hugenots in France;

Our groaning country bled at every vein; When murders, rapes, and massacres prevail'd. Rowe. Butchery is the general accompaniment of a massacre, defenceless women and children are commonly but chered by the savage furies who are most active in this work of blood :

Let us be sacrificers, but not butchers .- SHARSPEARE.

BODY, CORPSE, CARCASS.

. Body is here taken in the improper sense for a dead body; corpse, from the Latin corpus a body, has also been turned from its derivation to signify a dead body; carcass, in French carcasse, is compounded of caro and cassa vita, signifying flesh without life.

Body is applicable to either men or brutes, corpse to men only, and carcass to brutes only, unless when taken in a contemptuous sense. When speaking of any particular person who is deceased we should use the simple term body; the body was suffered to lie too long unburied: when designating its condition as lifeless, the term corpse is preferable; he was taken up as a corpse; when designating the body as a lifeless lump separated from the soul, it may be characterized (though contemptuously) as a carcass; the fowls devour the carcass;

A groan, as of a troubled ghost, renew'd My fright, and then these dreadful words ensued: Why dost thou thus my buried body rend, Oh! spare the corpse of thy unhappy friend. DRYDEN.

On the bleak shore now lies th' abandon'd king, On the bleak shore now has the describing.

A headless carcass, and a nameless thing.

DRYDEN.

EMBRYO, FŒTUS.

Embryo, in French embriox, Greek ἔμβρυον, from βρούω to germinate, signifies the thing germinated; fatus, in French fetus, Latin fatus, from force to cherish, signifies the thing cherished, both words referring to what is formed in the womb of the mother; but embryo properly implies the first fruit of conception, and the fatus that which is arrived to a maturity of formation. Appachmists tell us that the embryonic of formation. Anacomists tell us that the embryo in the human subject assumes the character of the fætus

about the forty second day after conception.

Fatus is applicable only in its proper sense to animals: emoryo has a figurative application to plants and fruits when they remain in a confused and imper-fect state, and also a moral application to plans, or whatever is roughly conceived in the mind.

CORPORAL, CORPOREAL, BODILY.

Cornoral, corporeal, and bodily, as their origin be-Corporal, corporeal, and bodily, as their origin bepeaks, have all relation to the same object, the body;
but the two former are employed to signify relating or
appertaining to the body; the latter to denote containing
or forming part of the body. Hence we say, corporal
punishment, bodily vigour or strength, corporeal substances; the Godhead bodily, the corporeal frame,
bodily exertion; 'Bettesworth was so little satisfied
with this account, that he publickly professed his
resolution of a violent and corporal revenge, but the
inhabitants of St. Parick's district inholied them-

resolution of a violent and corporal revenge, but the inhabitants of St. Patrick's district inhodied themselves in the Dean's (Swift's) defence."—JOHNSON. Corporal is only employed for the animal frame in its proper sense; corporeal is used for animal substance in an extended sense; hence we speak of corporal sufferance and corporeal agents; 'When the soul is freed from all corporeal alliance then it truly exists."—Hughes. Corporeal is distinguished from spiritual; bodily from mental. It is impossible to represent spiritual beings any other way than under a corporeal form; bodily pains, however severe, are frequently overpowered by mental pleasures; 'The soul is beset with a numerous train of temptations to evil, which arise from bodily appetities."—BLAIR. which arise from bodily appetites.'-BLAIR.

CORPOREAL, MATERIAL.

Corporeal is properly a species of material; what ever is corporeal is material, but not vice versă. Cor poreal respects animate bodies; material is used for every thing which can act on the senses, animate or inanimate. The world contains corporeal beings and consists of material substances;

Grant that corporcal is the human mind, H must have parts in infinitum join'd;
And each of these must will, perceive, design,
And draw confus'dly in a diff'rent line.—Jenyns.

'In the present material system in which we live, and where the objects that surround us are continually exposed to the examination of our senses, how many things occur that are mysterious and unaccountable,' BLAIR.

CORPULENT, STOUT, LUSTY.

Corpulent from corpus the body, signifies having subjects of body; stout, in Dutch stott, is no doubt a variation of the German stätig steady, signifying able to stand, sold, firm: lusty, in German, &c. lustig merry, cheerful, implies here a vigorous state of body.

Corpulent respects the fleshy state of the body; stout respects also the state of the muscles and bones: corpulence is therefore an incidental property; stoutness is a natural property; corpulence may come upon a person according to circumstances; 'Mallet's stature was diminutive, but he was regularly formed; his appearance, till he grew corpulent, was agreeable, and he suffered it to want no recommendation that dress could give it.'--Johnson. Stoutness is the natural make of the body which is born with us;

Hence rose the Marsian and Sabellian race, Strong limb'd and stout, and to the wars inclin'd. DRYDEN.

Corpulence and lustiness are both occasioned by the state of the health; but the former may arise from disease; the latter is always the consequence of good health: corpulence consists of an undue proportion of fat; lustiness consists of a due and full proportion of all the solids in the body;

Though I look old, yet I am strong and lusty, For in my youth I never did apply Hot and rebellious liquors to my blood.

SHAKSPEARE.

LEAN, MEAGRE.

Lean is in all probability connected with line, lank, and long, signifying that which is simply long without any other dimension; meagre, in Latin macer, Greek

μικρος small.

Lean denotes want of fat; meagre want of flesh: what is lean is not always meagre; but nothing can be meagre without being lean. Brutes as well as men are lean, but men only are said to be meagre; leanness is frequently connected with the temperament: meagreness is the consequence of starvation and dis-There are some animals by nature inclined to be lean; a meagre pale visage is to be seen perpetually in the haunts of vice and poverty;

Who ambles time withat With a priest that lacks Latin, And with a rich man that hath not the gout, The one lacking the burthen of lean and Wasteful learning; the other knowing nor Burthen of heavy tedious penury .- SHAKSPEARE. So thin, so ghastly meagre, and so wan, So bare of flesh, he scarce resembled man.

DRYDEN

MEMBER, LIMB.

Member, in Latin membrum, probably from the Greek μέρος a part, because a member is properly a part; limb is connected with the word lame.

Member is a general term applied either to the animal body or to other bodies, as a member of a family, or a member of a community: limb is applicable to animal bodies: limb is therefore a species of member; for every limb is a member, but every member is not a limb.

The members of the budy comprehend every part which is capable of performing a distinct office; but the limbs are those jointed members that are distinguished from the head and the body: the nose and guinea from the fleat and the body, the hose and the eyes are members but not limbs; the arms and legs are properly denominated limbs; 'A man's limbs (by which for the present we only understand those mem-bers the loss of which only amounts to mayhem by the

common law) are the gifts of the wise Creator to enable him to protect himself from external injuries.'-BLACKSTONE.

ANIMAL, BRUTE, BEAST.

Animal, in French animal, Latin animal, from animal life, signifies the thing having life; brute is in French brute, Latin brutus dull, Greek β ap \dot{v} η s, Chaldee הרות foolishness: beast, in French bête, Latin bestea, changed from bostoma, Greek βοσκήμα a beast of burden, and βόσκω to feed, signifies properly the thing that feeds.

Inimal is the generick, brute and beast are the specifick terms. The animal is the thing that lives and moves. If animal be considered as thinking, willing, reflecting, and acting, it is confined in its signification to the human exercise if it has been approximated. to the human species; if it be regarded as limited in all the functions which mark intelligence and will, if it be divested of speech and reason, it belongs to the brute; if animal be considered, moreover, as to its appetites, independent of reason, of its destination, and consequent dependence on its mental powers; it de-

scends to the heast.

Man and brute are opposed. To man an immortal soul is assigned; but we are not authorized by Scripture to extend this dignity to the brutes. "The brutes that perish" is the ordinary mode of distinguishing that part of the animal creation from the superiour order of terrestrial beings who are destined to exist in a future world. Men cannot be exposed to a greater degradation than to be divested of their particular characteristicks, and classed under the general name of aximal, unless we except that which assigns to them the epithet of brute or beast, which, as designating peculiar atrochy of conduct, does not always carry with it a reproach equal to the infamy of a thing; the perversion of the rational faculty is at all times more shocking and disgraceful than the absence of it by nature; 'Some would be apt to say, he is a conjurer; for he has found that a republick is not made up of every body of animals, but is composed of men only and not of horses .'- STEELE. 'As nature has framed the several species of beings as it were in a chain; so man seems to be placed as the middle link between angels and brutes.'—Addison.

Whom e'en the savage beasts had spar'd they kill'd, And strew'd his mangled limbs about the field.

DRYDEN.

SOUND, TONE.

Sound, in Latin sonus, and tone, in Latin tonus, may probably both come from the Greek $\tau\epsilon\ell\nu\omega$ to stretch or exert, signifying simply an exertion of the voice; but I should rather derive sound from the Hebrew you

Sound is that which issues from any body, so as to hecome audible; tone is a species of sound, which is produced from particular bodies: the sound may be accidental; we may hear the sounds of waters or leaves, of animals or men: tones are those particular leaves, of animals or men: tones are mose particular sounds which are made either to express a particular feeling, or to produce harmony; a sheep will cry for its lost young in a tone of distress; an organ is so formed as to send forth the most solemn tones; 'The sounds of the voice, according to the various touches which raise them, form themselves into an acute or grave, quick or slow, loud or soft, tone.'-HUGHES.

SMELL, SCENT, ODOUR, PERFUME, FRAGRANCE.

Smell and melt are in all probability connected to-gether, because smells arise from the evaporation of bodies; scent, changed from sent, comes from the Latin sentio, to perceive or feel; odour, in Latin odor, comes From oleo, in Greek $\delta \zeta_{\omega}$ to smell; perfume, compounded of per or pro and fumo or fumus a smoke or vapour, that is, the vapour that issues forth; fragrance, in Latin fragrantia, comes from fragro, anciently frago, that is, to perfume or smell like the fraga or

frage, that is, to perfame of, smear the the fraga or strawberry.

Smell and scent are said either of that which receives, or that which gives the smell; the odour, the perfame, and fragrance of that which communicates the smell. In the first case, smell is said generally of all living things without distinction; scent is said only

of such animals as have this peculiar faculty of tracing objects by their small: some persons have a much quicker smell than others, and some have an acuter smell of particular objects than they have of things in general: dogs are remarkable for their quickness of scent, by which they can trace their masters and other objects at an immense distance: other animals are gitted with this faculty to a surprising degree, which serves them as a means of defence against their enemies;

Then curses his conspiring feet, whose scent Betrays that safety which their swiftness lent.

In the second case, smell is compared with odour, perfume, and fragrance, either as respects the objects communicating the smell, or the nature of the smell which is communicated. Smell is indefinite in its sense, and universal in its application; odour, perfume, and fragrance are species of smells: every object is said to smell which acts on the olfactory nerves; flowers, fruits, woods, earth, water, and the like, have a smell; but odour is said of that which is artificial; the perfume and fragrance of that which is natural: the burning of things produces an odour;

So flowers are gathered to adorn a grave, To lose their freshness among bones and rottenness, And have their odours stifled in the dust.—Rowe.

The perfume and fragrance arise from flowers or sweet smelling herbs, spices, and the like. The terms smell and odow do not specify the exact nature of that which issues from bodies; they may both be either pleasant or unpleasant; but smell, if taken in certain connexions, signifies a bad smell, and odow signifies that which is sweet: meat which is kept too long will have a smell, that is, of course, a bad smell; the odowrs from a sacrifice are neceptable, that is, the sweet odowrs ascend to heaven. Perfume is properly a wide-spreading smell, and when taken without any epithet signifies a pleasant smell;

At last a soft and solemn breathing sound Rose like a steam of rich distill'd perfumes.

MILTON.

Fragrance never signifies any thing but what is good; it is the sweetest and most powerful perfume: the perfume from flowers and shrubs is as grateful to one's sense as their colours and conformation are to the other; the fragrance from groves of myrtle and orange trees surpasses the beauty of their fruits or foliage;

Soft vernal fragrance clothe the flow'ring earth.

MASON.

TO SOAK, DRENCH, STEEP.

Soak is a variation of suck; drench is a variation of drink; steep, in Saxon steapan, &c. from the Hebrew satep, signifies to overflow or overwhelm.

step, signifies to overflow or overwhelm.

The idea of communicating or receiving a liquid is common to these terms. We soak things in water when we wish to soften them; animals are drenched with liquid as a medicinal operation. A person's clothes are soaked in rain when the water has penetrated every thread; he himself is drenched in the rain when it has penetrated as it were his very body; drench therefore in this case only expresses the idea of soak in a stronger manner. To steep is a species of soaking employed as an artificial process; to soak is however a permanent action by which hard things are rendered soft; to steep is a temporary action by which soft bodies become penetrated with a liquid: thus salt meat requires to be soaked; fruits are sometimes steeped in brandy;

Drill'd through the sandy stratum, every way The waters with the sandy stratum rise, And clear and sweeten as they soak along. THOMSON.

And deck with fruitful trees the fields around, And with refreshing waters drench the ground.

O sleep, O gentle sleep,
Nature's soft nurse! How have I frighted thee,
That thou no more will weigh my eyelids down,
And steep my senses in forgetfulness!
Shakspears

TASTE, FLAVOUR, RELISH, SAVOUR.

Taste comes from the Teutonick tasten to touch lightly, and signifies either the organ which is easily affected, or the act of discriminating by a light touch of the organ; or the quality of the object which affects the organ; in this latter sense it is cosely allied to the other terms: favour most probably comes from the Latin flo to breathe, signifying the rarefied essence of bodies which affect the organ of taste; relish is derived by Minshew from relecher to lick again, signifying that which pleases the palate so as to tempt to a renewal of the act of tasting; sarour, in Latin sapor and sapio to sinell, taste, or be sensible, most probably comes from the Hebrew new them.

which is the organ of taste.

Taste is the most general and indefinite of all these; it is applicable to every object that can be applied to the organ of taste, and to every degree and manner in which the organ can be affected: some things are tasteless, other things have a strong taste, and others a mixed taste;

Ten thousand thousand precious gifts My daily thanks employ! Nor is the least a cheerful heart, That tastes those gifts with joy.—Addison.

The flavour is the predominating taste, and consequently is applied to such objects as may have a different kind or degree of taste; an apple may not only have the general taste of apple, but also a flavour peculiar to itself: the flavour is commonly said of that which is good, as a fine flavour, a delicious flavour; but it may designate that which is not always agreeable, as the flavour of fish, which is unpleasant in things that do not admit of such a taste; 'The Philippick islands give a flavour to our European bowls'—Additional taste is a such a taste; but it is that which is artificial, in distinction from the flavour such as it is; we give the relish such as it should be, or we wish it to be: milk and butter receive a flavour from the nature of the food with which the cow is supplied; sauces are used in order to give a relish to the food that is dressed;

But do not like to stage me to their eyes, Though it do well, I do not relish well Their loud applause.—Shakspeare.

Savour is a term in less frequent use than the others, but, agreeable to the Latin derivation, it is employed to designate that which smells as well as tastes, a sweet smelling savour;

The pleasant savoury smell So quicken'd appetite, that I methought Could not but taste.—MILTON.

So likewise, in the moral application, a man's actions or expressions may be said to savour of vanity. Tasta and relish may be moreover compared as the act of persons: we taste whatever affects our taste; but we relish that only which pleases our taste; we taste fruits in order to determine whether they are good or bad; we relish fruits as a dessert, or at certain seasons of the day. So likewise, in the moral application, we have a relish for books, for learning, for society, and the like.

PALATE, TASTE.

Palate, in Latin palatum, comes either from the Greek $\pi \acute{a} \omega$ to eat, or, which is more probable, from the Etruscan word farlantum, signifying the roof or arch of Heaven, or, by an extended application, the roof of the mouth; taste comes from the German tasten to touch lightly, because the sense of taste requires but the slightest touch to excite it.

Palute is, in an improper sense, employed for taste, because it is the seat of taste; but taste is never employed for palate; a person is said to have a nice palate when he is nice in what he eats or drinks; but his taste extends to all matters of sense, as well as those which are intellectual;

No fruit our palate courts, or flow'r our smell.

Jenyns

A man of taste, or of a nice taste, conveys much more ac a characteristick, than a man of a nice palate; the former is said only in a good sense; but the latter is particularly applicable to the epicure;

In more exalted joys to fix our taste,
And wean us from delights that cannot last.

JENYNS.

INSIPID, DULL, FLAT.

A want of spirit in the moral sense is designated by these epithets, which borrow their figurative meaning from different properties in nature: the taste is refer-red to in the word insipid, from the Latin sapio to taste; the properties of colours are considered under the word dull (v. Dull); the property of surface is re-ferred to by the word flat (v. Flat). As the want of flavour in any meat constitutes it insipid, and renders it worthless, so does the want of mind or character in a man render him equally *insipid*, and devoid of the distinguishing characteristick of his nature: as the beauty and perfection of colours consist in their brightness, and the absence of this essential property, which constitutes dulness, renders them uninteresting objects to the eye, so the want of spirit in a moral composition, which constitutes its dulness, deprives it at the same time of that ingredient which should awaken attention: as in the natural world objects are either elevated or flat, so in the moral world the spirits are either raised or depressed, and such moral representations as are calculated to raise the spirits are termed spirited, while those which fail in this object are termed flut. An insipid writer is without sentiment of any kind or degree; a dull writer fails in vivacity and vigour of sentiment; a flat performance is wanting in the property of provoking mirth, which should be its peculiar ingredient; 'To a covetous man all other things but wealth are insipid.'—South.

But yet beware of councils when too full, Number makes long disputes and graveness dull. Denham.

The senses are disgusted with their old entertainments, and existence turns flat and insipid.'—GROVE.

FEAST, BANQUET, CAROUSAL, ENTER-TAINMENT, TREAT.

As feasts, in the religious sense, from festus, are always days of leisure, and frequently of publick rejoicing, this word has been applied to any social meal for the purposes of pleasure: this is the idea common to the signification of all these words, of which feast seems to be the most general; and for all of which it may frequently be substituted, although they have each a distinct application: feast conveys the idea merely of enjoyment: bavquet is a splendid feast, attended with pomp and state: it is a term of noble use, particularly adapted to pictry and the high style: carousal, in French carouse, in German geräusch, or rausch intoxication, from rauschen to intoxicate, is a drunken feast: entertainment and treat convey the idea of hospitality.

A feast may be given oy princes or their subjects by nobility or commonalty;

New purple hangings clothe the palace walls, And sumptuous feasts are made in splendid halls. DRYDEN.

The banquet is confined to men of high estate; and more commonly spoken of in former times, when ranks and distinctions were less blended than they are at present; the dinner which the Lord Mayor of Lordon annually gives is properly denominated a feast; the mode in which Cardinal Wolsey received the French ambassadors might entitle every meal he gave to be denominated a banquet;

With hymns divine the joyous banquet ends, The pwans lengthen'd till the sun descends.—POPE.

A feast supposes indulgence of the appetite, both in eating and drinking, but not intemperately; a carousal is confined mostly to drinking, and that for the most

This game, these carousals, Ascanius taught, And, building Alba, to the Latins brought.

A feast, therefore, is always a good thing, unless it ends in a carousal: a feast may be given by one or many, at private or publick expense; but an entertainment and a treat are altogether personal acts, and the terms are never used but in relation to the agenta: every entertainment is a feast as far as respects enjoynent at a social board; but no feast is an entertainment unless there be some individual who specifically provides for the entertainment of others: we may all he partakers of a feast, but we are guests at an entertainment; the Lord Mayor's feast is not strictly an entertainment, although that of Cardinal Wolsey was properly so: an entertainment is given between friends and equals, to keep alive the social affections; a treat is given by way of favour to those whom one wishes to oblige: a nobleman provides an entertainment for a particular party whom he has invited; '! Could not but smile at the account that was yesterday given me of a modest young gentleman, who, being invited to an entertainment, though he was not used to drink, had not the confidence to refuse his glass in his turn.'—Addington Andology of the poor of his neighbourhood; 'I do not insist that you spread your table with so unbounded a profusion as to furnish out a splendid treat with the remains.'—Melmote (Letters of Cicero).

Feast, entertainment, and treat are taken in a more extended sense, to express other pleasures besides those of the table: feast retains its signification of a vivid pleasure, such as voluptuaries derive from delicious viands; entertainment and treat retain the idea of being granted by way of courtesy: we speak of a thing as being a feast or high delight; 'Beattle is the only author I know, whose critical and philosophical researches are diversified and embellished by a poetical imagination, that makes even the diest subject and the leanest a feast for an epicure in books.'—Cower. And of a person contributing to one's entertainment, or giving one a treat; 'Let us consider to whom we are indebted for all these entertainments of sense.'—Addison.'—

Sing my praise in strain sublime,

Treat not me with dogg'rel rhyme.—Swift

To an envious man the sight of wreschedness, in a once prosperous rival, is a feast; to a benevolent mind the spectacle of an afflicted man relieved and conforted is a feast; to a mind ardent in the pursuit of knowledge, an easy access to a well-stocked library is a continual feast: men of a happy temper give and receive entertainment with equal facility; they afford entertainment to their guests by the easy cheerfulness which they impart to every thing around them; they in like manner derive entertainment from every thing they see, or hear, or observe: a treat is given or received only on particular occasions; it depends on the relative circumstanes and tastes of the giver and receiver; to one of a musical turn one may give a treat by inviting him a musical party; and to one of an intelligent numit will be equally a treat to be of the party which consists of the enlightened and conversible.

FARE, PROVISION.

Fire, from the German fahren to go or be, signifies in general the condition or thing that comes to one: rrovision, from provide, signifies the thing provided for one.

These terms are alike employed for the ordinary concerns of life, and may either be used in the limited sense for the food one procures, or in general for what ever is necessary or convenient to be procured: to twe term fare is annexed the idea of accident; provision includes that of design: a traveller on the continent must frequently be contented with humble fare, unless he has the precaution of carrying his provisions with him;

This night at least with me forget your care, Chesnuts, and curds, and cream shall be your fare DRYDEN.

The winged nation wanders through the skies, And o'er the plains and shady forest flies; They breed, they brood, instruct, and educate. And make provision for the future state.—DRYDES

FOOD, DIET, REGIMEN.

Food signifies the thing which one feeds upon, in Saxon fode, Low German fode or foder, Greek βόρειν; diet comes from διαττάω to live medicinally, signifying any particular mode of living; regimen, in Latin regimen, from rego to regulate, signifies a system or

practice by rule.

All these terms refer to our living, or that by which we live: food is here the general term; the others are specifick. Food specifies no circumstance: whatever is taken to maintain life is food; thet is properly a prescribed or regular food. It is the hard lot of some among the poor to obtain with difficulty food and clothing for thomselves and their families; an attention to the diet of children is an important branch of their early education; their diet can scarcely be too simple: no one can be expected to enjoy his food who is not in a good state of health; we cannot expect to find a healthy population where there is a spare and unwholesome deet, attended with hard labour.

Food is a term applicable to all living creatures, and also used figuratively for what serves to nourish; The poison of other states (that is, bankruptcy) is the food of the new republick."—BURKE. Diet is employed only with regard to human beings who make choice of their food: corn is as much the natural food of some animals as of men; the diet of the peasantry consists mostly of bread, milk, and vegetables; "The diet of men in a state of nature must have been confined almost wholly to the vegetable kind."—BURKE.

nned almost whonly to the vegetable kind.—Burkk. Diet and regimen are both particular modes of living; but the former respects the quality of food; the latter the quantity as well as quality: diet is confined to modes of taking nourishment; regimen often respects the abstinence from food, bodhly exercise, and whatever may conduce to health: diet is generally the consequence of an immediate prescription from a physician, and during the period of sickness; regimen commonly forms a regular part of a man's system of living: diet is in certain cases of such importance for the restoration of a patient that a single deviation may defeat the best medicine; it is the misfortune of some people to be troubled with diseases, from which they cannot get any exemption but he observing a strict regimen; 'Petolongation of lite is ather to be expected from stated diets than from any common regimen.'—Bacos. 'I shallalways be able to entertain a friend of a philosophical regimen.'—Shensytons.

FEMALE, FEMININE, EFFEMINATE.

Female is said of thesex itself, and feminine of the characteristicks of the sex. Female is opposed to male, feminine to masculine.

In the female character we expect to find that which is feminine. The female dress, manners, and habits have engaged the attention of ak essayists, from the time of Addison to the present persed;

Once more her haughty soul the brant bends, To prayers and mean submissions she descends; No female arts or aids she left untried, Nor counsels unexplor'd, before she died.

RYDEN.

The feminine is natural to the female; the effeminate is unnatural to the male. A feminine ax and voice, which is truly grateful to the observer in theone sex, is an odious mark of effeminacy in the other. Beauty and delicacy are feminine properties;

Her heav'nly form Angelick: but more soft and feminine Her graceful innocence.—Milton.

Robustness and vigour are masculine properties; the former therefore when discovered in a man entitle him to the epithet of effeminate; 'Our martial ancestors, like some of their modern successors, had no other amusement (but hunting) to entertain their vacant hours; despising all arts as effeminate.'—BLACKSTONE.

GENDER, SEX.

Gender, in Latin genus, signifies properly a genus or kind; ser, in French seze, Latin sexus, comes from the Greek \$\frac{2}{2}\eta\$ signifying the habit or nature. The gender is that distinction in words which marks the

distinction of sex in things; there are therefore thre genders, but only two sexes. By the inflections of words are denoted whether things are of this or that sex, or of no sex. The genders, therefore, are divided in grammar into masculine, femnine, and neuter; and animals are divided into male and female sex.

GOLD, GOLDEN.

These terms are both employed as epithets, but gold is the substantive used in composition, and golden the adjective, in ordinary use. The former is strictly applied to the metal of which the thing is made, as a gold cup, or a gold coin; but the latter to whatever appertains to gold, whether properly or figuratively: as the golden knot, the golden crown, the golden age, or a golden harvest.

COOL, COLD, FRIGID.

In the natural sense, cool is simply the absence of warmth; cold and frigid are positively contrary to warmth; the former in regard to objects in general, the latter to moral objects: in the physical sense the analogy is strictly preserved. Cool is used as it respects the passions and the affections; cold only with regard to the affections; frigid only in regard to the inclinations.

With regard to the passions, cool designates a freedom from agitation, which is a desirable quality Coolness in a time of danger, and coolness in an argu-

ment, are alike commendable.

As cool and cold respect the affections, the cool is opposed to the friendly, the cold to the warm-hearted, the frigid to the animated; the former is but a degree of frigid to the animated; the former is but a degree of the latter. A reception is said to be cool; an embrace to be cold; a sentiment frigid. Coolness is an enemy to social enjoyments; coldness is an enemy to every moral virtue; frigidity destroys all force of character. Coolness is engendered by circumstances; it supposes the previous existence of warmth; coldness lies often the transparency or is engendered by habit; it is in the temperament, or is engendered by habit; it is always something vicious; frigidity is occasional, and is always a defect. Trifling differences produce coolness sometimes between the best friends; 'The jealous man's disease is of so malignant a nature, that it converts all it takes into its own nourishment. A cool behaviour is interpreted as an instance of aversion: a fond one raises his suspicions."—Addison. Trade sometimes engenders a cold calculating temper in some minds; 'It is wondrous that a man can get over the natural existence and possession of his own mind, so far as to take delight either in paying or receiving cold and repeated civilities.'—STELLE. Those who are remarkable for apathy will often express themselves with frigid indifference on the most important subjects; 'The religion of the moderns abounds in topicks so incomparably noble and exalted, as might kindle the flames of gennine oratory in the most frigid and barren genius.'—WHARTON.

CHILL, COLD.

Chill and cold are but variations of the same word, in German kalt, &cc.

Chill expresses less than cold, that is to say, it ex-

presses a degree of cold. The weather is often chilly in summer; but it is cold in winter.

We speak of taking the chill off water when the cold is the speak of taking the chill off water when the cold is the speak of taking the chill running through the

We speak of taking the child off water when the cold is in part removed; and of a child running through the frame when the cold begins to penetrate the frame that is in a state of warmth;

When men once reach their autumn, fickle joys Fall off apace, as yellow leaves from trees; Till left quite naked of their happiness,

In the chill blasts of winter they expire.

Young.

Thus ease after torment is pleasure for a time, and we are very agreeably recruited when the body, chilled with the weather, is gradually recovering its natural tepidity; but the joy ceases when we have forgot the cold."—JOHNSON.

TO STAIN, SOIL, SULLY, TARNISH.

Stain, v. Blemish; soil and sully, from soil dirt, signify to smear with dirt; tarnish in French ternir comes probably from the Latin tero to bruise

All these terms imply the act of diminishing the brightness of an object; but the term stain denotes something grosser than the other terms, and is applied to inferiour objects: things which are not remarkable for purity or brightness may be stained, as hands when stained with blood, or a wall stained with chalk

Thou, rather than thy justice should be stained, Didst stain the cross .-- Young.

Nothing is sullied or tarnished, but what has some in-Nothing is suttrea of tarnisea, but what has some in-trinsick value; a fine picture or piece of writing may be easily soiled by a touch of the finger; 'I cannot endure to be mistaken, or suffer my purer affections to be soiled with the odious attributes of covetousness and ambitious falsehood.'—LORD WENTWORTH. The finest glass is the somest tarnished: hence, in the moral application, a man's life may be stained by the commission of some gross immorality: his honour may be sullied, or his glory tarnished;

Oaths would debase the dignity of virtue, Else I could swear by him, the power who clothed The sun with light, and gave you starry host Their chaste, unsullied lustre .- Francis.

'I am not now what I once was; for since I parted from thee fate has tarnished my glories.'-TRAPP.

TO SMEAR, DAUB.

To smear is literally to do over with smear, in Saxon smer, German schmeer, in Greek μύρος asalve. To daub, from do and ub über over, signifies literally to do over with any thing unseemly, or in an unsightly manner.

To smear in the literal sense is applied to such sub stances as may be rubbed like grease over a body; if said of grease itself it may be proper, as coachmen smear the coach wheels with tar or grease; but if said of any thing else it is an improper action, and tends to disfigure, as children smear their hands with ink, or smear their clothes with dirt. To smear and daub are both actions which tend to disfigure; but we smear by means of rubbing over; we daub by rubbing, throw-ing, or any way covering over: thus a child smears the window with his finger, or he daubs the wall with dirt. By a figurative application, smear is applied to bad writing, and daub to bad painting: indifferent writers who wish to excel are fond of retouching their letters until they make their performance a sad smear; bad artists, who are injudicious in the use of their pencil, load their paintings with colour, and convert them into daubs.

MOISTURE, HUMIDITY, DAMPNESS.

Moisture, from the French moite moist, is probably contracted from the Latin humidus, from which hu midity is immediately derived; dampness comes from

the German dampf a vapour.

Moisture is used in general to express any small de gree of infusion of a liquid into a body; humidity is employed scientifically to describe the state of having any portion of such liquid: hence we speak of the moisture of a table, the moisture of paper, or the moisture of a floor that has been wetted; but of the humidity of the air, or of a wall that has contracted moisture of itself. Dampness is that species of moist. ure that arises from the gradual contraction of a liquid in bodies capable of retaining it; in this mapner a cellar is damp, or linen that has lain long by may become damp;

The plumy people streak their wings with oil, To throw the lucid moisture trickling off.

Now from the town Buried in smoke, and sleep, and noisome damps, Oft let me wander .- THOMSON.

NASTY, FILTHY, FOUL.

Nasty is connected with nauseous, and the German nass wet; filthy and foul are variations from the Greek φαῦλος.
The idea of dirtiness is common to these terms, but filthy and foul are variations from the

in different degrees, and with different modifications. Whatever dirt is offensive to any of the senses, renders that thing nasty which is soiled with it: the filthy exceeds the nasty, not only in the quantity but in the

offensive quality of the dirt; and the foul exceeds the filthy in the same proportion;

We look behind, then view his shaggy beard, His clothes were tagg'd with thorns, and filth his limbs besmear'd.—DRYDEN.

Only our foe Tempting affronts us with his foul esteem.

DREGS, SEDIMEN'T, DROSS, SCUM, REFUSE.

Dregs, from the German dreck dirt, signifies the dirty part which separates from a liquor; sediment, from sedeo to sit, signifies that which settles at the bottom; dross is probably but a variation of dregs; seum, from the German schaum, signifies the same as foam or froth, or that which rises on the surface of any liquor; refuse signifies literally that which is refused or thrown

All these terms designate the worthless part of any body; but dregs is taken in a worse sense than sedi-ment; for the dregs are that which is altogether of no value; but the sediment may sometimes form a necessary part of the body. The dregs are mostly a sediment in liquors, but many things are a sediment which are not dregs. After the dregs are taken away, there will frequently remain a sediment; the dregs are commonly the corrupt part which separates from compound liquids, as wine or beer; the sediment consists of the heavy particles which belong to all simple liquids, not excepting water itself. The dregs and sediment separate of themselves, but the scum and dross are forced out by a process; the former from liquids, and the latter from solid bodies rendered liquid or otherwise.

Refuse, as its derivation implies, is always said of that which is intentionally separated to be thrown away, and agrees with the former terms only inasmuch

as they express what is worthless

Of these terms, dregs, scum, and refuse admit likewise of a figurative application. The dregs and scum of the people are the corruptest part of any society; and the refuse is that which is most worthless and unfit for a respectable community; 'Epitomes of history are the corruptions and moths that have fretted and corroded many sound and excellent bodies of history and reduced them to base and unprofitable dregs.'—BACON. 'For it is not bare agitation, but the sediment at the bottom that troubles and defites the water.'—SOUTH. 'For the composition too, I admit the Algerine community resemble that of France, being formed out of the very scum, scandal, disgrace, and pest of the Turkish Asia.'—BURKE.

Now cast your eyes around, while I dissolve The mist and film that mortal eyes involve: Purge from your sight the dross, and make you see The shape of each avenging deity.- DRYDEN.

Next of his men and ships he makes review, Draws out the best and ablest of the crew; Down with the falling stream the refuse run To raise with joyful news his drooping son. DRYDEN.

TO GLOSS, VARNISH, PALLIATE.

Gloss and varnish are figurative terms, which borrow their signification from the act of rendering the outer surface of any physical object shining. To gloss, which is connected with to glaze, is to give a gloss or brightness to any thing by means of friction, as in the case of japan or mahogany: to varnish is to give an artificial gloss, by means of applying a foreign substance. Hence, in the figurative use of the terms, to gloss is to put the best face upon a thing by various little distortions and artifices; but to varnish is to do the same thing by means of direct falsehood; to palliate, which likewise signifies to give the best possible outside to a thing (v. To extenuate), requires still less artifice than either. One glosses over that which is bad, by giving it a soft name; as when a man's vices bad, by giving it a soft name; as when a man's vices are glossed over with the name of indiscretion, or a man's mistress is termed his good friend; 'If a jealous man once finds a false gloss put upon any single action he quickly suspects all the rest.'—Additional or varaishes a bad character by ascribing good motives to his bad actions, by withholding many facts that are to his discredit, and fabricating other circumstances in his favour an unvarnished tale contains nothing but the

simple truth; the varnished tale on the other hand contains a great mixture of falsehood; the French accounts of their victories in the time of the revolution. To colour is to put colour on; to dye is to dip in any were mostly varnished

The waiting tears stood ready for command, And now they flow to varnish the false tale

To pulliate is to diminish the magnitude of an offence. by making an excuse in favour of the offender; as when an act of theft is palliated by considering the starving condition of the thief; 'A man's bodily defects should give him occasion to exert a noble spirit. and to palliate those imperiections which are not in bis power, by those perfections which are.'-Addison.

CLOAK, MASK, BLIND, VEIL.

These are figurative terms, expressive of different modes of intentionally keeping something from the view of others. They are borrowed from those fami-View of others. They are bottomerous in common life black and mask express figuratively and properly more than blind or veil. The two former keep the whole object out of sight; the two latter only partial former was not provided to the control of tially intercept the view. In this figurative sense they are all employed for a bad purpose.

The cloak, the mask, and the blind serve to deceive

others; the veil serves to deceive one's self.

The whole or any part of a character may be concealed by a blina; a part, though not the whole, may be concealed by a mask. A blind is not only employed to conceal the character but the conduct or pro-We carry a cloak and a mask about with ceedings. but a blind is something external.

The cloak, as the external garment, is the most convenient of all coverings for entirely keeping concealed what we do not wish to be seen; a good outward de-portment serves as a cloak to conceal a bad charac-ter; 'When this severity of manners is hypocritical, and assumed as a cloak to secret indulgence, it is one of the worst prostitutions of religion.'—BLAIR. A mask only hides the face; a mask therefore serves to conceal only as much as words and looks can effect;

Thou art no ruffian, who, beneath the mask Of social commerce, com'st to rob their wealth.

A blind is intended to shut out the light and prevent A trina is minemed to stut out the ignt also prevent observation; whatever, therefore, conceals the real truth, and prevents suspicion by a false exteriour, is a blind; 'Those who are bountful to crimes will be rigid to merit, and penurious to service. Their penury is even held out as a blind and cover to their prodigality.'—BURKE. A veil prevents a person from seeing as well as being seen; whatever, therefore, obscures the mental sight acts as a neit to the mind's eye; 'As soon as that mysterious veil which covers futurity was lifted up, all the gayety of life would disappear; its Rattering hopes, its pleasing illusions would vanish, and nothing but vanity and sadness remain.'-BLAIR.

Religion may unfortunately serve to cloak the worst of purposes and the worst of characters; its importance, in the eyes of all men, makes it the most effectual passport to their countenance and sanction; and its external observances render it the most convenient mode of presenting a false profession to the eyes of the world: those, therefore, who set an undue value on the ceremonial part of religion, do but encourage this most heinous of all sins, by suffering themselves to be imposed upon by a cloak of religious hypocrisy. False friends always wear a mask; they cover a malignant heart under the smiles and endearments of friendship. Illicit traders mostly make use of some blind to facilitate the carrying on their nefarious practices. the various arts resorted to in the metropolis by the needy and profligate, none is so bad as that which is made to be a blind for the practice of debauchery. Prejudice and passion are the ordinary veils which obscure the judgement, and prevent it from distinguishing the truth.

TO COLOUR, DYE, TINGE, STAIN.

Colour, in Latin color, comes probably from colo to adorn; dye, in Saxon deagen, is a variation of tinge; tinge is in Latin tingo, from the Greek τίγγω to

colour; to tinge is to touch lightly with a colour; to stain is to put on a bad colour or in a bad manner: colour a drawing, we dye clothes of any colour, we tinge a painting with blue by way of intermixture, we stain a painting when we put blue instead of red; 'That childish colouring of her cheeks is now as ungraceful as that shape would have been when her face wore its real countenance.'-STEELE.

Now deeper blushes ting'd the glowing sky, And evening rais'd her silver lamp on high SIR WM. JONES.

We had the fortune to see what may be supposed to be the occasion of that opinion which Lucian relates concerning this river (Adonis), that is, that this stream at certain seasons of the year is of a bloody colour; something like this we actually saw come to pass, for the water was stained with redness.'—MAUNDRELL.

They are taken in a moral acceptation with a similar They are taken in a moral acceptation with a similar distinction: we colour a description by the introduction of strong figures, strong facts, and strong expressions; 'All these amazing incidents to the inspired historians relate nakedly and plainly, without any of the colourings and heightenings of rhetorick.'—West. Hence the term is employed to denote the giving a Hence the term is employed to denote the giving a false or exaggerated representation; 'He colours the falsehood of Æneas by an express command from Jupiter to forsake the queen.' — DRYDEN. A person is represented as dying his hands in blood, who is so engaged in the shedding of blood as that he may change the colour of his skin, or the soil may be dyed in blood;

With mutual blood the Ausonian soil is dyed, While on its borders each their claim decide

A person's mind is tinged with melancholy or enthu siasm; 'Sir Roger is something of a humorist, and his virtues as well as imperfections are tinged by a certain extravagance, which makes them particularly his.'—Apprison. A man'sch aracter may be said to be stained with crimes

Of honour void, of innocence, of faith, of purity, Our wonted ornaments, now soil'd and stain'd MILTON.

COLOUR, HUE, TINT.

Colour (v. To colour) is here the generick term: hue, which is probably connected with eye and view, and tint, from tinge, are but modes of colour; the former of which expresses a faint or blended colour; the latter a shade of colour. Between the colours of black and brown, as of all other leading colours, there are various hues and tints, by the due intermixture of which, natural objects are rendered beautiful;

Her colour chang'd, her face was not the same, And hollow groams from her deep spirit came. DRYDEN.

Infinite numbers, delicacies, smells, With hues on hues, expression cannot paint The breath of nature, and her endiess bloom.

Among them shells of many a tint appear, The heart of Venus and her pearly ear.
Sir Wm. Jones.

COLOURABLE, SPECIOUS, OSTENSIBLE, PLAUSIBLE, FEASIBLE.

Colourable, from to colour or tinge, expresses the quality of being able to give a fair appearance; spe cious, from the Latin specio to see, signifies the quality of looking as it ought; ostensible, from the Latin ostendo to show, signifies the quality of being able or osteria a shown or seen; plausible, from plaudo to clap or make a noise, signifies the quality of sounding as it ought; feasible, from the French faire, and Latin facio to do, signifies literally doable; but here it denotes seemingly practicable.

The first three of these are figures of speech drawn

from what naturally pleases the eye; plausible is drawn from what pleases the ear: feasible takes its signification from what meets the judgement or conviction.

What is colourable has an aspect or face upon it that lulis suspicion and affords satisfaction; what is spe-tious has a fair outside when contrasted with that which it may possibly conceal; what is ostensible is that which presents such an appearance as may serve for an indication of something real; what is plausible is that which meets the understanding merely through he ear; that which is feasible recommends itself from its intrinsick value rather than from any representation given of it.

A pretence is colourable when it has the colour of truth impressed upon it; it is specious when its fallacy s easily discernible through the thin guise it wears; a motive is ostensible which is the one soonest to discovered; an excuse is plausible when the well-connected narrative of the maker impresses a belief of its justice; an account is feasible which contains nothing improbable or singular.

It is necessary, in order to avoid suspicion, to have some colourable grounds for one's conduct when it is marked by eccentricity or directed to any bad object; All his (James I. of Scotland's) acquisitions, howe fatal to the body of the nobles, had been gained by attacks upon individuals; and being founded on cir cumstances peculiar to the persons who suffered, might excite murmurs and apprehensions, but afforded no colourable pretext for a general rebellion.'-ROBERTson. Sophists are obliged to deal in specious arguments for want of more substantial ones in support of their erroneous opinions; 'The guardian directs one of his pupils to think with the wise, but speak with the vulgar. This is a precept specious enough, but not always practicable. —Johnson. Men who have no ostensible way of supporting themselves, naturally excite the suspicion that they have some illicit source of gain; What is truly astonishing, the partisans of those two opposite systems were at once prevalent and at once employed, the one ostensibly, the other secretly, during the latter part of the reign of Louis XV.'— BURKE. Liars may sometimes be successful in inventing a plausible tale, but they must not scruple to sup port one lie by a hundred more as occasion requires In this superficial way indeed the mind is capable of more variety of plausible talk, but is not enlarged as it should be in its knowledge. Locke. If what an accused person has to say in justification of himself be no more than feasible, it will always subject him to unpleasant imputations: 'It is some years since I thought the matter feasible, that if I could by an exact time-keeper find in any part of the world what o'clock it is at Dover, and at the same time where the ship is, the problem is solved.'-Arbuthnot.

TO COVER, HIDE.

Cover, in French couvrir, is contracted from contra and ouvrir, signifying to do the contrary of open, to

put out of view: hide, v. To conceal.

Cover is to hide as the means to the end: we commonly hide by covering; but we may easily cover without hiding, as also hide without covering. The ruling idea in the word cover is that of throwing or putting something over a body; in the word hide is that of keeping carefully from observation

To cover is an indifferent action, springing from a variety of motives, of convenience, or comfort; to hide is an action that springs from one specifick intent, from care and concern for the thing, and the 'ear of foreign intrusion. In most civilized countries it is common to cover the head: in the eastern countries females com-monly wear veils to hide the face. There are many things which decency as well as health require to be covered; and others which from their very nature must always be hidden. Houses must be covered with roofs, and bodies with clothing; the earth contains many treasures, which in all probability will always be

Or lead me to some solitary place And cover my retreat from human race.—DRYDEN.

Hide me from the face Of God, whom to behold was then my height Of happiness .- MILTON.

In a moral application, cover may be used in the good sense of sheltering ;

Thou mayst repent, And one bad deed with many deeds well done

Mayst cover .- MILTON. And also in the bad sense of hiding by means of false-

Specious names are lent to cover vice .- Speciator.

COVER, SHELTER, SCREEN.

Cover properly denotes what serves as a cover, and in the literal sense of the verb from which it is derived (v. To cover); shelter, like the word shield, comes from the German schild, old German schelen, to cover: screen, from the Latin secerno, signifies to keep off or

Cover is literally applied to many particular things which are employed in *conering*; but in the general sense which makes it analogous to the other terms, it includes the idea of concealing: shelter comprehends. that of protecting from some immediate or impending evil: screen includes that of warding off some trouble. A cover always supposes something which can extend over the whole surface of a body; a shelter or a screen may merely interpose to a sufficient extent to serve the intended purpose. Military operations are some-times carried on under cover of the night; a bay is a convenient shelter for vessels against the violence of the winds; a chair may be used as a screen to prevent the violent action of the heat, or the external air.

In the moral sense, a cover may be employed allow

ably to diminish an imperfection or deformity; ' are persons who cover their own rudeness by calling their conduct honest bluntness.'-RICHARDSON. But is for the most part taken in the bad sense of an endeavour to conceal the truth; a fair reputation is sometimes made the cover for the commission of gross irregularities in secret; 'The truth and reason of things may be artificially and effectually insinuated under the cover either of a real fact, or of a supposed one.'-L'ESTRANGE. When a person feels himself unable to withstand the attacks of his enemies, he seeks a shelter under the sanction and authority of a great name;

When on a bed of straw we sink together,

And the bleak winds shall whistle round our heads, Wilt thou then talk to me thus? Thus hush my cares, and shelter me with love? OTWAY.

Bad men sometimes use wealth and power to screen them from the punishment which is due to their offences; 'It is frequent for men to adjudge that in an art impossible, which they find that art does not effect; by which means they screen indolence and ignorance from the reproach they merit.'—Bacon.

TO HARBOUR, SHELTER, LODGE.

The idea of giving a resting place is common to these terms: but harbour (v. To foster) is used mostly in a bad sense, at least in its ordinary use: shelter (v. Asylum) in an indefinite sense; lodge, in French loge, from the German liegen to lie, in an indifferent sense. One harbours that which ought not or cannot find room any where; 'My lady bids me tell you, that though she harbours you as her uncle, she is nothing allied to your disorders.'—Shakspeare. As the word harbour does not, in its original sense, mean any thing more than affording entertainment, or receiving into one's house for a time, it may be employed in a good sense to imply an act of hospitality; 'We owe this old house the same kind of gratitude that we do to an old friend, who harbours us in his declining condition, nay, even in his last extremities."—Pops. One shelters that which cannot find security elsewhere. One shelters that which cannot find security eisewhere. It is for the most part an act of charity, obligation, or natural feeling: 'The hen shelters her first broad of chickens with all the prudence that she ever attains.

—Johnson. One lodges that which wants a resting place: it is an act of discretion. Thieves, traitors, or conspirators are harboured by those who have an interest in securing them from detection; either the wicked or the unfortunate may be sheltered from the evil with which they are threatened; travellers are lodged as occasion may require.

In the moral sense, a man harbours resentment, ill will, evil thoughts, and the like;

She harbours in her breast a furious hate (And thou shalt find the dire effects too late),

Fix'd on revenge, and obstinate to die.—Dryden.

A man shelters himself from a charge by retorting it upon his adversary;

In vain I strove to check my growing flame, Or shelter passion under friendship's name; You saw my heart.—Prior.

A person lodges a complaint or information against any one with the magistrate, or a particular passion may be lodged in the breast, or ideas lodged in the mind; 'In viewing again the ideas that are lodged in the memory, the mind is more than passive.'—LOCKE.

They too are tempered high,

With hunger stung, and wild necessity, Nor lodges pity in their shaggy breast.—'Thomson.

All these terms may be employed also as the acts of vermin; trees, as well as houses, shelter from a storm: a ball from a gun lodges in the human body, or any other soild substance.

HARBOUR, HAVEN, PORT.

The idea of a resting place for vessels is common to these terms, of which harbour is general, and the two others specifick in their signification.

Harbour, from the Teutonick herbenger to shelter, carries with it little more than the common idea of affording a resting or anchoring place; haven, from the Teutonick haben to have or hold, conveys the idea of security; port, from the Latin portus and portu a gate, conveys the idea of an enclosure. A haven is a natural harbour, a port is an artificial harbour. We characterize a harbour as commodious; a haven as sing and secure; a port as safe and easy of access. A commercial country profits by the excellence and number of its harbours; it values itself on the security of its havens, and increases the number of its ports accordingly. A vessel goes into a harbour only for a season; it remains in a haven for a permanency; it seeks a port as the destination of its voyage. Merchantmen are perpetually going in and out of a harbour.

But here she comes,

In the calm harbour of whose gentle breast,
My tempest-beaten soul may safely rest.—DRYDEN.

A distressed vessel, at a distance from home, seeks

Safe through the war her course the vessel steers.

The haven gain'd, the pilot drops his fears.

Shirley

The weary mariner looks to the *port* not as the termination of his labour but as the commencement of all his enjoyments; 'What though our passage through this world he never so stormy and tempestuous, we shall arrive at a safe *port*.'—Tillotson.

ASYLUM, REFUGE, SHELTER, RETREAT.

Asylum, in Latin asylum, in Greek ασυλιν, compounded of a privative and συλή plunder, signified a place exempt from plunder, and exactions of every kind, and also a privileged place where accused persons were permitted to reside without molestation: refuge, in Latin refugium, from refugno to fly away, signifies the place which one may fly away to: shelter comes from shell, in High German schalen, Saxon sceala, &c. from the Hebrew \$70 to hide, signifying a cover or hidinalect: retreat, in French retraite, Latin retractus, from retrachor or re and traba to draw back, signifies the place that is situated behind or in the back ground.

Asulum, refuge, and shelterall denote a place of safety; but the former is fixed, the two latter are occasional: the retreat is a place of tranquility rather than of safety. An asylum is chosen by him who has no home, a refuge by him who is appechensive of danger: the French emigrants found a refuge in England, but very few will make it an asylum. The inclemencies of the weather make us seek a shelter. The fatigues and tolks of life make us seek a retreat.

and toils of life make us seek a retreat.

It is the part of a Christian to afford an asylum to the helpless orphan and widow. The terrified pas-

senger takes refuge in the first house he comes to, when assailed by an evil-disposed mob. The vessel shattered in a storm takes shelter in the nearest haven. The man of business, wearied with the anxieties and cares of the world, disengages himself from the whole, and seeks a retreat suited to his circumstances. In a moral or extended application they are distinguished in the same manner; 'The adventurer knows he has not far to go before he will meet with some fortress that has been raised by sophistry for the asylum of errour.'—Hawkesworth. 'Superstition, now retiring from Rome, may yet find refuge in the mountains of Tibet.'—CLIMBERLAND.

In rueful gaze
The cattle stand, and on the scowling heavens
Cast a deploring eye, by man forsook;
Who to the crowded cottage hies him fast,
Or seeks the shelter of the downward cave.
Thomson.

TEGUMENT, COVERING.

Tegument, in Latin tegumentum, from tego to cover, is properly but another word to express covering, yet it is now employed in cases where the latter term is in-admissible. Covering signifies mostly that which is artificial; but tegument is employed for that which is natural: clothing is the covering for that which is said of vegetable substances, as seeds, is called the tegument. The covering is said of that which covers the outer surface: the tegument is said of that which covers the inner surface; the pods of some seeds are lined with a soft tegument.

SKIN, HIDE, PEEL, RIND.

Skin, which is in German schin, Swedish skinnt Danish skind, probably comes from the Greek $\alpha\kappa\eta\nu\rho\sigma_0$, a tent or covering; hide, in Saxon hyd, German haut, Low German hauth, Latin cutis, comes from the Greek $\kappa\varepsilon\nu\partial\epsilon\nu$ to hide, cover: γ pel, in German fell, &c. Latin pellis a skin, in Greek $\phi\epsilon\lambda\lambda\delta\rho$ or $\phi\lambda\omega\delta\rho$ bark, comes from $\phi\lambda\omega\rho$ to burst or crack, because the bark is easily broken: τ ind is in all probability changed from round, signifying that which goes round and envelopes.

Skin is the term in most general use, it is applicable both to human creatures and to animals; hide is used only for the skins of large animals: we speak of the skins of birds or insects; but of the hides of oxen or horses, and other animals, which are to be separated from the body and converted into leather. Skin is equally applied to the inanimate and the animate world; but peel and rind belong only to inanimate objects; the skin is generally said of that which is interiour, in distinction from the exteriour, which is the peel: an orange has both its peel and its thin skin underneath; an apple, a pear, and the like, has a peel. The peel is a soft substance on the outside; the rind is generally interiour, and of a harder substance: in regard to a stick, we speak of its peel and the inner skin; in regard to a tree, we speak of its park and its rind; hence, likewise, the term rind is applied to cheese, and other incrusted substances that envelope bodies.

TO PEEL, PARE.

Peel, from the Latin pellis a skin, is the same as to skin or to take off the skin: to pare, from the Latin paro to trim or make in order, signifies to smooth. The former of these terms denotes a natural, the latter an artificial process: the former excludes the idea of a forcible separation; the latter includes the idea of separation by means of a knife or sharp instrument: potatoes and apples are peeled after they are boiled; they are pared before they are boiled: an orange and a walnut are always precled, but not pared: a cucumber must be pared and not peeled: in like manner the skin may sometimes be peeled from the flesh, and the nails are pared.

GUISE, HABIT.

Guise and wise are both derived from the northern languages, and denote the manner; but the former is employed for a particular or distinguished manner of dress; habit, from the Latin habitus a habit, fastion, or form, is taken for a settled or permanent mode of dress.

The guise is that which is unusual, and often only occasional; the habit is that which is usual among particular classes: a person sometimes assumes the guise of a peasant, in order the better to conceal himself; he who devotes himself to the clerical profession puts on the habit of a clergyman;

Anubis, Sphinx, Idols of antique guise, and horned Pan, Terrifick, monstrous shapes !—DYER.

For 't is the mind that makes the body rich, And as the sun breaks through the darkest cloud, So honour appeareth in the meanest habit.

SHAKSPEARE.

TO CONCEAL, HIDE, SECRETE.

Conceal, v. To conceal; hide, from the German hu then to guard against, and the Old German hedan to conceal, and the Greek κεύθω to cover or put out of sight; secrete, in Latin secretus, participle of secerno, or se and cerno, to see or know by one's self, signifies to put in a place known only to one's self.

Concealing conveys simply the idea of not letting come to observation; hiding that of putting under cover; secreting that of setting at a distance or in unfrequented places: whatever is not seen is concealed, but whatever is hidden or secreted is intentionally put out of sight: a person conceals himself behind a hedge; he hides his treasures in the earth; he secretes what he

has stolen under his cloak.

Conceal is more general than either hide or secrete; all things are concealed which are hidden or secreted but they are not always hidden or secreted when they are concealed: both mental and corporeal objects are concealed; corporeal objects mostly and sometimes mental ones are hidden; corporeal objects only are secreted; we conceal in the mind whatever we do not make known: that is hidden which may not be dis-covered or cannot be discerned; that is secreted which may not be seen. Facts are concealed, truths are hid-den, goods are secreted.

Children should never attempt to conceal from their parents or teachers any errour they have committed, when called upon for an acknowledgment;

Be secret and discreet; Love's fairy favours Are lost when not conceal'd .- DRYDEN.

We are told in Scripture for our consolation that nothing is hidden which shall not be revealed;

Yet to be secret makes not sin the less,

'T is only hidden from the vulgar view .- DRYDEN. People seldom wish to secrete any thing but with the intention of concealing it from those who have a right to demand it back; 'The whole thing is too manifest to admit of any doubt in any man how long this thing has been working; how many tucks have been played with the Dean's (Swift's) papers; how they were secreted from time to time.'—Pope.

CONCEALMENT, SECRECY.

Concealment (v. To conceal) is itself an action; secrecy, from secret, is the quality of an action: concealment may respect the state of things; secrecy the conduct of persons: things may be concealed so as to be known to no one; but secrecy supposes some person to whom the thing concealed is known.

Concealment has to do with what concerns others; secrecy with that which concerns ourselves: what is conceuled is kept from the observation of others; what is secret is known only to ourselves: there may frequently be concealment without secrecy, although there cannot be secrecy without concealment: concealment is frequently practised to the detriment of others; seerecy is always adopted for our own advantage or gratification: concealment aids in the commission of crimes; secrecy in the execution of schemes: many crimes are committed with impunity when the per petrators are protected by concealment; 'There is but one way of conversing safely with all men, that is, not by concealing what we say or do, but by saying or doing nothing that deserves to be concealed. — Pork. The best concerted plans are often frustrated for want of observing secrecy;

That 's not suddenly to be perform'd

But with advice and silent secreey .- SHARSPEARE. Secrecy is, however, in our dealings with others, fre quently not less impolitick than it is improper. open and straight forward conduct is as a rule the only proper conduct in our commerce with the world,

Shun secrecy, and talk in open sight:

So shall you soon repair your present evil plight.

When concealment is taken as the act of the Divine Being, or as the state of things, it is used in the best sense; 'One instance of Divine Wisdom is so illusis, the concealment under which Providence has placed the future events of our life on earth."—BLAIR. When secrecy respects a man's own concerns with himself or his Maker, it is also proper; 'It is not with publick as with private prayer; in this, rather secrecy is commanded than outward show.'—Hooker.

TO CONCEAL, DISSEMBLE, DISGUISE.

Conceal, compounded of con and ceal, in French scler, Latin celo, Hebrew 872 to have privately; dis-semble, in French dissimuler, compounded of dis and simulo or similis, signifies to make a thing appear unlike what it is; disguise, in French disguiser, com-pounded of the privative dis or de and guise, in Ger-man weise a manuer or fashion, signifies to take a form opposite to the reality.

To conceal is simply to abstain from making known what we wish to keep secret; to dissemble and dis-guise signify to conceal, by assuming some false ap-pearance: we conceal facts; we dissemble feelings;

we disguise sentiments.

* Caution only is requisite in concealing; it may be effected by simple silence: art and address must be employed in dissembling; it mingles falsehood with all its proceedings: labour and cunning are requisite in disguising; it has nothing but falsehood in all its

movements.

The concealer watches over himself that he may not be betrayed into any indiscreet communication; the dissembler has an eye to others so as to prevent them from discovering the state of his heart; disguise assumes altogether a different face from the reality, and rests secure under this shelter: it is sufficient to conceal from those who either cannot or will not see; necessary to dissemble with those who can see without being shown; but it is necessary to disguise from those who are anxious to discover and use every means to penetrate the veil that intercepts their sight.

Concealment is a matter of prudence often advisable, mostly innocent; when we have not resolution to shake off our vices, it is wisdom at least to conceal them from the knowledge of others; 'Ulysses himself adds, he was the most eloquent, and the most silent of men; he knew that a word spoke never wrought so much good as a word concealed.'—BROOME. 'Ridicule is never more strong than when it is concealed in gra-

-SPECTATOR.

According to Girard, it was a maxim with Louis XI., that in order to know how to govern, it was necessary to know how to dissemble; this, he adds, is true in all cases even in domestick government; but if the word conveys as much the idea of falsehood in French as in English, then is this a French and not an English maxim; there are, however, many cases in which it is prudent to dissemble our resentments, if by allowing them time to die away we keep them from the knowledge of others. Disguise is altogether opposed to candour: an ingenuous mind revolts at it; an honest man will never find it necessary, unless the Abbe Girard be right, in saying that "when the necessity of circumstances and the nature of affairs call for disguise it is politick." Yet what train of circumstances car, we conceive to exist which will justify policy founded upon the violation of truth? Intriguers, conspirators, and all who have dishonest purposes to answer, must practise disguise as the only means of success; but true policy is as remote from disguise as cunning is from wisdom:

* Vide Abbe Girard: "Cacher, dissimuler deguiser "

Let school-taught pride dissemble all it can, I'l ese little things are great to little man.

Good-breeding has made the tongue falsify the heart, and act a part of continual restraint, while nature has preserved the eyes to herself, that she may not be disguised or misrepresented.'-STEELE.

HYPOCRITE, DISSEMBLER.

Hypocrite, in Greek δποκριτής, from δπό and κρίνομαι, signifies one appearing under a mask; dissembler, from dissemble, in Latin dissimulo or dis and similis, signifies one who makes himself appear unlike what he

The hypocrite feigns to be what he is not; 'In regard to others, hypocrisy is not so permicious as barefaced irreligion.'—Addison. The dissembler conceals what tion.'—Addison. The dissembler conceals what the former takes to himself the credit of virtues which he has not; the latter conceals the vices that he has;

So spake the false dissembler unperceived.

Every hypocrite is a dissembler; but every dissembler is not a hypocrite; the hypocrite makes truth serve the purpose of falsehood; the dissembler is content with making falsehood serve his own particular purpose.

SIMULATION, DISSIMULATION.

Simulation, from similis, is the making one's self like what one is not; and dissimulation, from dissimilis unlike, is the making one's self appear unlike what one really is. The hypocrite puts on the semblance of virtue to recommend himself to the virtuous. The dissembler conceals his vices when he wants to gain the simple or ignorant to his side; 'The learned make a difference between simulation and dissimulation. Simulation is a pretence of what is not; and dissimulation is a concealment of what is.'—TATLER.

SECRET, HIDDEN, LATENT, OCCULT, MYSTERIOUS.

Secret (v. Clandestine) signifies known to one's self only; hidden, v. To conceal; latent, in Latin latens, from lateo to lie hid, signifies the same as hidden; occult, in Latin occultus, participle of occulo, com-pounded of oc or ob and culo or colo to cover over by tilling or ploughing, that is, to cover over with the

earth; mysterious, v. Dark.
What is secret is known to some one; what is hidden may be known to no one: it rests in the breast of an individual to keep a thing secret; it depends on the tourse of things if any thing remains hidden: every man has more or less of that which he wishes to keep secret; the talent of many lies hidden for want of opportunity to bring it into exercise; as many treasures lie hidden in the earth for want of being discovered and brought to light. A secret concerns only the individual or individuals who hold it; but that which is hidden may concern all the world; sometimes the success of a transaction depends upon its being kept secret; the stores of knowledge which yet remain hidden may be much greater than those which have been laid open;

Ye boys, who pluck the flow'rs and spoil the spring, Beware the secret snake that shoots a sting.

DRVDEN.

The blind, laborious mole In winding mazes works her hidden hole.

DRYDEN.

The latent is the secret or concealed, in cases where tought to be open: a latent motive is that which a person intentionally, though not justifiably, keeps to himself; the latent cause for any proceeding is that which is not revealed;

Mem'ry confus'd, and interrupted thought, Death's harbingers, lie tatent in the draught

Occult and mysterious are species of the hidden: he former respects that which has a veil naturally thrown over it; the latter respects that mostly which is covered with a supernatural veil: an occult science

is one that is hidden from the view of persons in gene ral, which is attainable but by few; occult causes of qualities are those which lie too remote to be dis covered by the inquirer: the operations of Providence are said to be mysterious, as they are altogether part our finding out; many points of doctrine in our religion are equally mysterious, as connected with and dependent upon the attributes of the Deity; 'Some men have an occult power of stealing on the affectious. -Johnson.

From his void embrace,
Mysterious heaven! That moment to the ground,
A blackened corse, was struck the beauteous maid. THOMSON.

Mysterious is sometimes applied to human transac tions in the sense of throwing a veil intentionally over any thing, in which sense it is nearly allied to the word secret, with this distinction, that what is secret is often not known to be secret; but that which is mysterious is so only in the eyes of others. Things are sometimes conducted with such secrecy that no one suspects what is passing until it is seen by its effects; an air of mystery is sometimes thrown over that which is in reality zery is sometimes thrown over that which is intended in ording when seen: hence secrecy is always taken in a good sense, since it is so great an essential in the transactions of men; but mystery is often employed in a bad sense; either for the affected concealment of that which is insignificant, or the purposed concealment of that which is bad: an expedition is said to be secret, but not mysterious; on the other hand, the disappearance of a person may be mysterious, but is not said to be secret.

MYSTERIOUS, MYSTICK.

Mysterious (v. Dark) and mystick are but variations of the same original; the former however is more commonly applied to that which is supernatural, or veiled in an impenetrable obscurity; the latter to that which is natural, but in part concealed from the view; which is natural, but in part concealed from the view; hence we speak of the mysterious plants of Providence: mystick schemes of theology or mystick principles; 'As soon as that mysterious veil, which now envers futurity, was lifted up, all the gayety of life would disappear.'—Blair.

And ye five other wand'ring fires that move In mystick dance not without song, Resound his praise.—Milton.

TO ABSCOND, STEAL AWAY, SECRETE ONE'S SELF.

Abscord, in Latin abscordo, is compounded of abs and condo, signifying to hide from the view, which is the original meaning of the other words; to abscord is to remove one's self for the sake of not being discovered by those with whom we are acquainted; to steal away is to get away so as to elude observation; to secrete one's self is to get into a place of secrecy without being perceived.

Dishonest men abscond, thieves steal away when they dread detection, and fugitives secrete themselves. Those who abscond will have frequent occasion to steal away, and still more frequent occasion to secrete

themselves.

CLANDESTINE, SECRET.

Clandestine, in Latin clandestinus, comes from clam secretly; secret, in French secret, Latin secretus, participle of secerno to separate, signifies remote from observation.

Clandestine expresses more than secret. To do a thing clandestinely is to elude observation; to do a thing secretly is to do it without the knowledge of any one: what is clandestine is unallowed, which is not necessarily the case with what is secret.

With the clandestine must be a mixture of art; with secrecy, caution and management are requisite: a clendestine marriage is effected by a studied plan to escape notice; a secret marriage is conducted by the forbear-ance of all communication: conspirators have many clandestine proceedings and secret meetings: an unfaithful servant clandestinely conveys his master's property from the premises of his master; 'I went to this clandestine lodging, and found to my amazement all the ornaments of a fine gentleman, which he has taken | upon credit."—Johnson. A person makes a secret communication of his intentions to another; 'Some may place their chief satisfaction in giving secretly what is to be distributed; others in being the open and avowed instruments of making such distributions.' ATTERBURY.

POLITICAL, POLITICK

Political has the proper meaning of the word polity, which, from the Greek πολιτεία and πόλις a city, signifies the government either of a city or a country tick, like the word policy, has the improper meaning of the word polity, namely, that of clever management, tecause the affairs of states are sometimes managed with considerable art and finesse: hence we speak of political government as opposed to that which is ecclesiastick; and of politick conduct as opposed to that which is unwise and without foresight: in political questions, it is not politick for individuals to set themselves up in opposition to those who are in power; the study of politicks, as a science, may make a man a clever statesman; but it may not always enable him to discern true policy in his private concerns; 'Machiavel laid down this for a master rule, in his political scheme, that the show of religion was helpful to the politician.'—SOUTH. 'A politick caution, a guarded circumspection, were among the ruling principles of our forefathers.'—BURKE.

ART, CUNNING, DECEIT.

Art, in Latin ars, probably comes from the Greek ἄρω to fit or dispose, Hebrew to contrive, in which action the mental exercises of art principally consists; cunning is in Saxon cuning, German kennend knowing, in which sense the English word was formerly used; deceit, from the Latin deceptum, participle of decipio or de and capio, signifies taking by surprise or unawares.

Art implies a disposition of the mind, to use circumvention or artificial means to attain an end: cunning marks the disposition to practise disguise in the prosecution of a plan: deceit leads to the practice of dissimulation and gross falsehood, for the sake of gratifying a desire. Art is the property of a lively mind; cunning of a thoughtful and knowing mind; deceit of

an ignorant, low, and weak mind.

Art is practised often in self-defence; as a practice therefore it is even sometimes justifiable, although not therefore it is even sometimes justifiable, although not as a disposition: cunning has always self in view; the cunwing man seeks his gratification without regard to others; deceit to eften practised to the express injury of another: the deceitful man adopts base means for base ends. Animals practise art when opposed to their superiours in strength; but twey are not artful, as they have not that versatility of power which they can habitually exercise to their own advantage like human beings; 'It has been a sort of maxim that the greatest art is to conceal eart, but I know not how greatest art is to conceal art; but I know not how, among some people we meet with, their greatest cunning is to appear cunning. "STRELE. Animals may be cunning, inasmuch as they can by contrivance and concealment seek to obtain the object of their desire; ' Cunning can in no circumstance imaginable be a quality worthy a man, except in his own defence, and merely to conceal himself from such as are so, and in such cases it is wisdom.'—Stelle. No animal is deceitful except man: the wickedest and the stupidest of men have the power and the will of deceiving and practising falsehood upon others, which is unknown to the brutes; 'Though the living man can wear a mask and carry on deceit, the dying Christian cannot counterfeit."—CUMBERLAND.

ARTFUL, ARTIFICIAL, FICTITIOUS.

Artful, compounded of art and ful, marks the quality of being full of art (v. Art); artificial, in Latin artificialis, from ars and facio to do, signifies done with art; fictitious, in Latin fictitious, from fings to feign, signifies the quality of being feigned.

Artful respects what is done with art or design; artificial what is done by the exercise of workmanship;

fictitious what is made out of the mind. Artful and stratagem."

artificial are used either for natural or moral objects; artificial are used either for natural or moral objects; focitious always for those that are moral: artful is opposed to what is artless, artificial to what is netural, fictitious to what is real: the ringlets of a lady's hair are disposed in an artful manner; the hair itself may be artificial: a tale is artful which is teld in a way to gain credit; manners are artificial which do not seem to suit the person adopting them; a story is fictitious which has no foundation whatever in truth,

and is the invention of the narrator.

Children sometimes tell their stories so artfully as to impose on the most penetrating and experienced was much surprised to see the ants' nest which I had destroyed, very artfully repaired.'-Addison. who have no character of their own are induced to take an artificial character in order to put themselves on a level with their associates; 'If we compare two nations in an equal state of civilization, we may remark that where the greater freedom obtains, there the greater variety of artificial wants will obtain also. CUMBERLAND. Beggars deal in fictitious tales of distress in order to excite compassion; 'Among the nu merous stratagems by which pride endeavours recommend folly to regard, there is scarcely one that meets with less success than affectation, or a perpetual disguise of the real character by fictitious appearances. -Johnson.

ARTIFICE, TRICK, FINESSE, STRATAGEM.

Artifice, in French artifice, Latin artifex an arti ficer, from artem facio to execute an art, signifies the ficer, from artem facio to execute an art, signifies the performance of an art; trick, in French tricker, comes from the German triegen to deceive; finesse, a word directly imported from France with all the meaning attached to it, which is characteristick of the nation itself, means properly fineness; the word fin fine, signifying in French, as well as in the northern languages from which it is taken, subtlety or mental acumen; stratagem, in French stratageme, from the Greek στρατήγημα and στρατηγέο to lead an army, signifies by distinction any military scheme or any scheme come. by distinction any military scheme, or any scheme conducted for some military purpose.

All these terms denote the exercise of an art calcu lated to mislead others. Artifice is the generick term; the rest specifick: the former has likewise a particular use and acceptation distinct from the others: it expresses a ready display of art for the purpose of extricating one's self from a difficulty, or securing to one's self an advantage. Trick includes in it more of de sign to gain something for one's self, or to act secretly to the inconvenience of others:* it is rather a cheat on the senses than the understanding. Finesse is a species of artifice in which art and cunning are combined in the management of a cause: it is a mixture of invention, falsehood, and concealment. Stratagem is a display of art in plotting and contriving, a disguised

mode of obtaining an end.

Females who are not guarded by fixed principles of virtue and uprightness are apt to practise artifices upon then husbands. Men without honour, or an honourable means of living, are apt to practise various tricks able mease of living, are apt to practise various treas to impose upon unboys to their own advantage: every trade therefore is said to have its tricks; and profes-sions are not entirely clear from this sigma, which has been brought upon them by unworthy members. Di-plomatick persons have most frequent recourse to knesse, in which no people are more skilful practi-tioners than those who have coined the word. Military operations are sometimes considerably forwarded by well-concerted and well-timed stratagems to surprise the enemy.

An artifice may be perfectly innocent when it serves to afford a friend an unexpected pleasure; 'Among the several artifices which are put in practice by the poets, to fill the minds of an audience with terrour, the first place is due to thunder and lightning.'-Applson. A place is the author and against — Addison. A trick is childlish which only serves to deceive or amuse children; 'Where men practise falsehood and show tricks with one another, there will be perpetual suspicions, evil surmisings, doubts, and jealousies?—South. Stratagems are allowable not in war only; the writer of a novel or a play may sometimes adont a successful stratagem to cause the reader a surprise;

* Trusler: "Cunning, finesse, device, artifice, trick

On others practise thy Ligurian arts; The stratagems and tricks of little hearts Are jost on me .- DRYDEN.

One of the most successful stratagems, whereby Mahomet became formidable, was the assurance that impostor gave his votaries, that whoever was slain in battle should be immediately conveyed to that luxurious paradise his wanton fancy had invented.'-STEELE. Pinesse is never justifiable; it carries with it too much of concealment and disingenuousness to be practised but for selfish and un worthy purposes;

Another can't forgive the paltry arts By which he makes his way to shallow hearts, Mere pieces of finesse, traps for applause.

CUNNING, CRAFTY, SUBTLE, SLY, WILY.

Cunning, v. Art; crafty signifies having craft, that is, according to the original meaning of having a knowledge of some trade or art; hence figuratively applied to the character; subtle, in French subtil, and Latin subtilis thin, from sub and tela a thread drawn to be fine; hence in the figurative sense in which it is here taken, fine or acute in thought; sly is in all probability connected with slow and sleek, or smooth; deliberation and smoothness entering very much into the sense of sly; wily signifies disposed to wiles or stratagems.

All these epithets agree in expressing an aptitude to employ peculiar and secret means to the attainment of an end; they differ principally in the secrecy of the means, or the degree of circumvention that is employed. The cunning man shows his dexterny simply in concealing; this requires little more than reservedness and taciturnity; 'There is still another secret that can never fail if you can once get it believed, and which is often practised by women of greater cunning than virtue. This is to change sides for awhile with the jealous man, and to turn his own passion upon himself?—Addison. The crafty man goes farther; he shapes his words and actions so as to lull suspicion: hence it is that a child may be curning, but an old man will be crafty; 'Cunning is often to be met with in brutes themselves, and in persons who are but the fewest removes from them.'—Addison. 'You will find the examples to be few and rare of wicked, unprincipled men attaining fully the accomplishment of their crafty designs.'—BLAIR. A subtle man has more acuteness of invention than either, and all his schemes are hidden by a veil that is impenetrable by common observation; the cunning man looks only to the con-cealment of an immediate object; the crafty and subtle man has a remote object to conceal: thus men are cunning in their ordinary concerns; politicians are are cunning in their ordinary concerns; politicians are crafty or subtle; but the former is more so as to the end, and the latter as to the means. A man is cunning and crafty by deeds; he is subtle mostly by means of words alone, or words and actions combined; 'The part of Ulysses, in Homer's Odyssey, is very much admired by Aristotle, as perplexing that able with very agreeable plots and intricacious motionly by the many adventures in his voyage and the subtlety of his belaviour, but by the various concealments and discoveries of his person in several parts of his poen.'

Advisors. Sham se is a vulgar kind of canning: the Approx. Slyn ss is a vulgar kind of cunning; the sly man goes cautiously and silently to work; 'If you or your correspondent had consulted me in your discourse upon the eye, I could have told you that the eye Leonora is slyly watchful while it looks negligent -STEELE. Wiliness is a species of cunning or craft, applicable only to cases of attack or defence;

Implore his aid; for Proteus only knows The secret cause, and cure of all thy woes; But first the wily wizard must be caught, For, unconstrain'd, he nothing tells for nought.

TO DECEIVE, DELUDE, IMPOSE UPON. Deceive, in French decevoir, Latin decipio, com pounded of de privative, and capue to take, signifies to take wrong; delude, in Latin delude, compounded of de and lude, signifies to play upon or to muslead by a trick; impose, in Latin imposui, perfect of impono, alguines literally to lay or put upon.

Falsehood is the leading feature in all these terms. they vary however in the circumstances of the action To deceive is the most general of the three; it signifies simply to produce a false conviction; the other terms are properly species of deceiving, including accessory ideas. Deception may be practised in various degrees; deluding is always something positive, and considerable in degree. Every false impression produced by external objects, whether in trifles or important matters, is a deception: delusion is confined to errours in matters of opinion. We may be deceived in the colour or the distance of an object; are deluded in what regards our principles or moral conduct; 'I would have all my readers take care how they mistake themselves for uncommon geniuses and men above rule, since it is very easy for them to be deceived in this particular."—BUDGELL. 'Deluded by a seeming excellence."—ROSCOMMON.

A deception does not always suppose a fault on the part of the person deceived, but a delusion does. A person is sometimes deceived in cases where deception

is unavoidable;

I now believ'd The happy day approach'd, nor are my hopes deceiv'd. DRYDEN.

A person is deluded through a voluntary blindness of the understanding:

Who therefore seeks in these True wisdom, finds her not, or by delusion Far worse, her talse resemblance only meets.

Artful people are sometimes capable of deceiving so as not even to excite suspicion; their plausible tales justify the credit that is given to them: when the ignorant enter into nice questions of politicks or religion, it is their ordinary late to be deluded.

Deception is practised by an individual on himself

or others:

Wanton women in their eyes Men's deceivings do comprise .- GREENE.

A delusion is commonly practised on one's self;

I, waking, view'd with grief the rising sun, And fondly mourn'd the dear delusion gone

PRIOR.

An imposition is always practised on another; 'As there seems to be in this manuscript some anachronisms and deviations from the ancient orthography. I am not satisfied myself that it is authentick, and not rather the production of one of those Grecian sophisters who notation of one of those Grecian sophisters who have imposed upon the world several spurious works of this nature.'—Addison. Men deceive others from a variety of motives; they always impose upon them for purposes of gain, or the gratification of ambition. Men acceive themselves with false pretexts and false confidence; they delade themselves with vain hopes are uniform. and wishes

and wishes. $P_{\text{Professors}}$ in religion often decrive themselves as switch as they do others: the grossest and most dangerous delusion into which they are liable to fall is that of substituting faith for practice, and an extravagant regard to the outward observances of religion in lieu of the mild and humble temper of Jesus: no imposition was ever so successfully practised upon

mankind as that of Mahomet.

DECEIVER, IMPOSTOR.

Deceiver and impostor, the derivatives from deceive and impose, have a farther distinction worthy of notice Deceiver is a generick term ; impostor specifick : every impostor is a species of deceiver: the words have however a distinct use. The deceiver practises deception on individuals; the impostor only on the publick at large. The false friend and the faithless lover are deceivers; the assumed nobleman who practises frauds under his disguise, and the pretended prince who lays claim to a crown to which he was never born, are impostors.

Deceivers are the most dangerous members of society; they trifle with the best affections of our nature, and violate the most sacred obligations; 'That tradition of the Jews that Christ was stolen out of the grave is ancient; it was the invention of the Jews, and denies the integrity of the witnesses of his resur-

rection, making them deceivers.'-TILLOTSON. Impostors are seldom so culpable as those who give them credit; 'Our Saviour wrought his miracles frequently, and for a long time together; a time sufficient to have detected any impostor in: —Tillotson. It would require no small share of credulty to be decived by any of the impositions which have been hitherto practised upon the inconsiderate part of mankind.

DECEIT, DECEPTION.

Deceit (v. To deceive) marks the propensity to deceive, or the practice of deceiving; deception the act

ceite, or the practice of accepting, acception and of deceiting (v. To deceiter).

A deceiver is full of deceit; but a deception may be occasionally practised by one who has not this habit of deceiting. Deceit is a characteristick of so base a nature, that those who have it practise every species of the property of t of deception in order to hide their characters from the

of acception in order to mae their characters from the observation of the world.

The practice of deceit springs altogether from a design, and that of the worst kind; but a deception may be practised from indifferent, if not innocent, notives, or may be occasioned even by inanimate

I mean to plunge the boy in pleasing sleep, And ravish'd in Idalian bow'rs to keep, Or high Cythera, that the sweet deceit May pass unseen, and none prevent the cheat.

All the joy or sorrow for the happiness or calamities of others is produced by an act of the imagination that realizes the event however fictitious, so that we feel, while the deception lasts, whatever emotions would be excited by the same good or evil happening to ourselves.'-Johnson.

to ourselves.—Johnson.

A person or a conduct is deceitful; an appearance is deceptive. A deceitful person has always guile in his heart and on his tongue: jugglers practise various deceptions in the performance of their tricks for the entertanment of the populace. Parasites and sycophanis are obliged to have recourse to deceit, in order to inveigle themselves into the favour of their patrons: there is no sense on which a deception can be prac-tised with greater facility than on that of sight; sometimes it is an agreeable deception, as in the case of a panoramick exhibition.

DECEIT, DUPLICITY, DOUBLE-DEALING.

Deceit, v. Deceit, deception; duplicity signifies doubleness in dealing, the same as double-dealing

The former two may be applied either to habitual The former two may be appused effiner to manufar or particular actions, the latter only to particular actions. There may be much deceit or duplicity in a person's character or in his proceedings; there is double-dealing only where dealing goes forward. The deceit may be more or less veiled; the duplicity liest very deep, and is always studied whenever it is put. into practice. Duplicity in reference to actions mostly employed for a course of conduct: doubledealing is but another term for duplicity on particular occasions. Children of reserved characters are trequently prone to deceit, which grows into consummate duplicity in riper years: the wealthy are often exposed to much duplicity when they choose their favourites among the low and ignorant; 'The arts of deceit do continually grow weaker and less serviceable to them that use them.'—Tillotson. 'Necessity drove Dryden into a duplicity of character that is painful to reflect upon. —CUMBERLAND. Nothing gives rise to more double-dealing than the fabrication of wills; 'Maskwell (in the Double-Dealer) discloses by soilloquy, that his motive for double-dealing was founded in his passion for Cynthia.'-CUMBERLAND.

DECEIT, FRAUD, GUILE.

Deceit (v. Deceit, deception) is allied to fraud in reference to actions; to guile in reference to the cha-

Deceit is here, as in the preceding article, indeterminate when compared with fraud, which is a specified with specified practised only on many reckon that of substituting their own feelings for private transactions 'fraud is practised towards bodies in the operations of Divine grace. The ideas of ghosts

as well as individuals, in publick as well as private: a child practises deceit towards its parents;

With such deceits he gain'd their easy hearts, Too prone to credit his perfidious arts .- DRYDEN.

Frauds are practised upon government, on the publick at large, or on tradesmen; 'The story of the three books of the Sybils sold to Tarquin was all a fraud devised for the convenience of state.'-PRIDEAUX. Deceit involves the violation of moral law, fraud that of the civil law. A servant may deceive his master as to the time of his coming or going, but he defrauds him of his property if he obtains it by any false means. Deceit as a characteristick is indefinite in magnitude; guile marks a strong degree of moral turpitude in the individual;

Was it for force or guile, Or some religious end you rais'd this pile? DRYDEN.

The former is displayed in petty concerns; the latter, which contaminates the whole character, displays itself in inextricable windings and turnings that are suggested in a peculiar manner by the author of all evil-Deceitful is an epithet commonly and lightly applied to persons in general; but guileless is applied to characters which are the most diametrically opposed to and at the greatest possible distance from, that which is false.

FALLACIOUS, DECEITFUL, FRAUDULENT.

Fallacious comes from the Latin fallax and fallo to deceive, signifying the property of misleading; deceitful, v. To deceive; fraudulent signifies after the manner of a fraud.

The fallacious has respect to falsehood in opinion; deceitful to that which is externally false; our hopes are often fullacious; the appearances of things are often deceitful. Fallacious, as characteristick of the mind, excludes the idea of design;

But when Ulysses, with fallacious arts, Had made impression on the people's hearts, And forg'd a treason in my patron's name, My kinsman fell .- DRYDEN.

Descriful excludes the idea of mistake; fraudulent is a gross species of the descriful; 'Such is the power which the sophistry of self-love exercises over us, that almost every one may be assured he measures himself by a descriful scale.'—BLAIR. It is a fallacious idea for any one to imagine that the faults of others can serve as any extenuation of his own; it is a deceitful mode of acting for any one to advise another to do that which he would not do himself; it is fraudulent to attempt to get money by means of a falsehood;

Ill fated Paris! slave to womankind, As smooth of face as fraudulent of mind .- POPE.

FALLACY, DELUSION, ILLUSION.

Fallacy, in Latin fallacia, from fallo, has commonly a reference to the act of some conscious agent, whose intention is to deceive; the delusion (v. To deceive) and illusion may be the work of inanimate objects. We endwayour to detect the fallacy which lies concealed in a proposition; 'There is indeed no transaction which offers stronger temptations to fallacy and sophistication than epistolary intercourse.'—Johnson. One endeavours to remove the delusion to which the judgement has been exposed;

As when a wandering fire, Hovering and blazing with delusive light, Misleads th' amaz'd night-wanderer from his way. MILTON.

It is sometimes difficult to dissipate the illusion to which the senses or the fancy are liable; 'Fame, glory, wealth, honour, have in the prospect pleasing illusions.' -STEELE.

In all the reasonings of freethnkers, there are fallacies against which a man cannot always be on his games. The ignorant are perpetually exposed to delu-sions when they attempt to speculate on matters of opinion; among the most serious of these delussions we may reckon that of substituting their own feelings for and apparitions are mostly attributable to the illusions of the senses and the imagination.

FAITHLESS, PERFIDIOUS, TREACHEROUS.

Faithless (v. Faithless) is the generick term, the rest are specifick terms; a breach of good faith is expressed by them all, but faithless expresses no more the others include accessory ideas in their signification perfidious, in Latin perfidiosus, signifies literally breaking through faith in a great degree, and now implies the addition of hostility to the breach of faith; treacherous, most probably changed from traitorous, comes from the Latin trado to betray, and signifies one species of active hostile breach of faith.

A faithless man is faithless only for his own inte-

rest; a perfiduous man is expressly so to the injury of another. A friend is faithless who consults his own safety in the time of need; he is perfidious if he pro-fits by the confidence reposed in him to plot mischief against the one to whom he has made vows of friendship. Faithlessness does not suppose any particular efforts to deceive; it consists of merely violating that faith which the relation produces; perfidy is never so complete as when it has most effectually assumed the mask of sincerity. Whoever deserts his friend in need is guilty of faithlessness; but he is guilty of perfidy who draws from him every secret in order to effect his

Old Priam, fearful of the war's event, This hapless Polydore to Thracia sent, From noise and tumults, and destructive war, Committed to the faithless tyrant's care.—DRYDEN.

'When a friend is turned into an enemy the world is just enough to accuse the perfidiousness of the friend, rather than the indiscretion of the person who confided

in him.'-Addison.

Incle was not only a faithless but a perfidious lover. Faithlessness, though a serious offence, is unhappily not unfrequent: there are too many men who are unmindful of their most important engagements; but we may hope for the honour of humanity that there are not many instances of perfidy, which exceeds every other vice in atrocity, as it makes virtue itself subser-

vient to its own base purposes.

Perfidy may lie in the will to do: treachery lies altogether in the thing done: one may therefore be perfidious without being treacherous. A friend is perfidious whenever he evinces his perfidy; but he is said to be treacherous only in the particular instance in which he betrays the confidence and interests of another. I detect a man's perfidy, or his perfidious aims, by the manner in which he attempts to draw my secrets from me; I am made acquainted with his treachery not before I discover that my confidence is be trayed and my secrets are divulged. On the other hand rectany or treacherous without being perfidious. Per-fidy is an offence mostly between individuals; it is rather a breach of fidelity (v. Faith, fidelity) than of faith: treachery on the other hand includes breaches of private or publick faith. A servant may be both perfidious and treacherous to his master; a citizen may be treacherous, but not nerfidious towards his country. we may be treacherous without being perfidious. e treacherous, but not perfidious towards his country;

Shall then the Grecians fly, oh dire disgrace And leave unpunish'd this perfidious race ?- Pors. And had not Heav'n the fall of Troy design'd. Enough was said and done t' inspire a better mind: Then had our lances pierc'd the treach'rous wood, And Hian's towers and Priam's empire stood.

DRYDEN.

It is said that in the South Sea islands, when a chief and a human victim that it is a human victim. wants a human victim, their officers will sometimes myite their friends or relations to come to them, when they take the opportunity of suddenly falling upon them and despatching them; here is perfidy in the individual who acts this false part; and treachery in the act of hetraying him who is murdered. When the schoolmaster of Falerii delivered his scholars to Ca-When the

millus, he was guilty of treachery in the act, and of perfidy towards those who had reposed confidence in him. When Romulus ordered the Sabine women to be scized, it was an act of treachery but not of perfidy; so in like manner when the daughter of Tapeius opened the gates of the Roman citadel to the enemy. FAITHLESS, UNFAITHFUL.

Faithless is mostly employed to denote a breach of faith; and unfaithful to mark the want of fidelity (e. Faith, fidelity). The former is positive; the latter is rather negative, implying a deficiency. A prince, a government, a people, or an individual is said to be faithless :

So spake the seraph Abdiel, faithful found; Among the faithless, faithful only he .- MILTON.

A husband, a wife, a servant, or any individual is said to be unfaithful. Meffus Tuffetius, the Alban Dicta tor, was faithless to the Roman people when he with held his assistance in the battle, and strove to go over to the enemy:

The sire of men and monarch of the sky Th' advice approv'd, and bade Minerva fly, Dissolve the league, and all her arts employ To make the breach the faithless act of Troy

At length, ripe vengeance o'er their head impends, But Jove himself the faithless race defends .-- Pope.

A man is unfaithful to his employer who sees him injured by others without doing his utmost to prevent it; Inted by others without doing his utmost to prevent;

'If you break one jot of your peomise, I will think you
the most atheistical break-promise, and the most unworthy that may be chosen out of the gross band of
the unfuthful."—SHAKSPEARE. A woman is fauthless
to her husband who breaks the marriage vow; she is unfaithful to him when she does not discharge the duties of a wife to the best of her abilities.

The term unfaithful may also be applied figura-

tively to things;

If e'er with life I quit the Trojan plain, If e'er I see my sire and spouse again, This bow, unfaithful to my glorious aims, Broke by my hands shall feed the blazing flames.

TREACHEROUS, TRAITOROUS, TREASONABLE.

These epithets are all applied to one who betrays his trust; but treacherous (v. Faithless) respects a man's private relations; traitorous, his publick relation to his prince and his country: he is a treacherous friend, and a traitorous subject. We may be treacherous to our comics on well as our finds, for rechiring can be seen because a traitorous subject. We may be treacherous to our enemies as well as our friends, for nothing can lessen the obligation to preserve the fidelity of promise; 'This very charge of folly should make men cautious how they listen to the treacherous proposals which come from his own bosom.'—South. We may be traitorous to our country by abstaining to lend that aid which is in our power, for nothing but death can do away the obligation which we owe to it by the law of 'All the evils of war must unavoidably be endured, as the necessary means to give success to the traitorous designs of the rebel."—SOUTH. Traitorous and treasonable are both applicable to subjects: but the former is extended to all publick acts; the latter only to those which affect the supreme power: a soldier is traitorous who goes over to the side of the enemy against his country; a man is guilty of treasonable practices who meditates the life of the king, or aims at subverting his government: a man may be a traitor under all forms of government; but he can be guilty of treason only in a monarchical state; 'Herod trumped up a sham plot against Hyrcanus, as if he held correspondence with Malchus King of Arabia, for accomplishing treasonable designs against him.'-PRIDEAUX.

INSIDIOUS, TREACHEROUS.

Insidious, in Latin insidiosus, from insidia stratagem or ambush, from insideo to lie in wait or ambush, signifies after the manner of a stratagem, or prone to adopt stratagems; treacherous is changed from traitorous, and derived from trado to betray, signifying in general the disposition to betray

general the disposition to berray.

The insideous man is not so bad as the treacherous man; for the former only lies in wait to ensnare us, when we are off our guard; but the latter throws us off our guard, by luffing us into a state of security, in order the more effectually to get us into his power; an enemy is, therefore, denominated insidious, but a friend is treacherous. The insidious man has recourse to

purpose, and gain an advantage over his opponent; the treacherous man pursues a system of direct talsehood, in order to rum his friend: the insidious man objects to a fair and open contest; but the treacherous man assails in the dark him whom he should support. The opponents to Christianity are fond of insultious attacks upon its sublime truths, because they have not always courage to proclaim their own shame; 'Since men mark all our steps, and watch our haltings, let a sense of their insidious vigilance excite us so to behave ourselves, that they may find a conviction of the mighty power of Christianity towards regulating the passions -ATTERBURY. The treachery of some men depends for its success on the credulity of others; as in the case of the Trojans, who listened to the tale of Simon, the Grecian spy;

The world must think him in the wrong, Would say he made a treach'rous use Of wit, to flatter and seduce.—Swift.

TO CHEAT, DEFRAUD, TRICK.

Cheat, in Saxon cettu, in all probability comes from captum and capio, as decest comes from decipio; defraud, compounded of de and fraud, signifies to practise fraud, or to obtain by fraud; trick, in French tricher, German trügen, signifies simply to deceive, or get the better of any one.

The idea of deception which is common to these

terms varies in degree and circumstance.

One cheats by a gross falsehood; one defrauds by a settled plan; one tricks by a sudden invention: cheating is as low in its ends, as it is base in its means; cheats are contented to gain by any means : defrauding is a serious measure; its consequences are serious, both to the perpetrator and the sufferer. A person cheats at play; he defrauds those who place confidence in him.

Cheating is not punishable by laws; it involves no other consequence than the loss of character: frauds are punished in every form, even with death, when the occasion requires; they strike at the root of all confidence, and affect the publick security: tricking is a species of dexterous cheating; the means and the end are alike trifling. Dishonest people cheat; villains defraud; cunning people trick. These terms preserve the same distinction in their extended application:

If e'er ambition did my fancy cheat With any wish so mean as to be great; Continue, Heav'n, still from me to remove The humble blessings of that life I love. COWLEY.

Thou, variet, dost thy master's gains devour, Thou milk'st his ewes, and often twice an hour Of grass and fodder thou defraud'st the dams, And of the mother's dugs the starving lambs. DRYDEN.

He who has the character of a crafty, tricking man is entirely deprived of a principal instrument of business, trust, whence he will find nothing succeed to his wish. -BACON.

COQUET, JILT.

There are many jilts who become so from coquets, but one may be a coquet without being a jilt. Coquetry is contented with employing little arts to excite notice jilting extends to the violation of truth and honour, in order to awaken a passion which it afterward disappoints. Vanity is the main spring by which coquets and jilts are impelled to action; but the former indulges her propensity mostly at her own expense only, while the latter does no less injury to the peace of others than she does to her own reputation. The coquet makes a traffick of her own charms by seeking a multitude of admirers; the jilt sports with the sacred passion of love, and barters it for the gratification of any selfish propensity. Coquetry is a fault which should be guarded against by every female as a snare to her own happiness; jilting is a vice which cannot be practised without some depravity of the heart; 'The coquet is indeed one degree towards the jult; but the heart of the former is bent upon admiring herself, and

various little artifices, by which he wishes to effect his giving false hopes to her lovers; but the latter is not contented to be extremely amiable, but she must add to that advantage a certain delight in being a torment to others.'-STEELE.

TO INSNARE, ENTRAP, ENTANGLE, INVEIGLE.

The idea of getting any object artfully into one s power is common to all these terms; to insnare is to take in or by means of a snare; to entrap is to take in a trap or by means of a trap; to entangle is to take in a traple, or by means of tangled thread; to invergle is to take by means of making blind, from the French aveugle blind.

Insnare and entangle are used either in the natural or moral sense; entrup mostly in the natural, invergle only in the moral sense. In the natural sense birds are ensnared by means of birdlime, nooses, or whatever else may deprive them of their liberty: men and beasts are entrapped in whatever serves as a trap or enclo-sure; they may be entrapped by being lured into a house or any place of confinement: all creatures are entangled by nets, or that which confines the limbs and prevents them from moving forward.

In the moral sense men are said to be ensnared by their own passions and the allurements of pleasure into a course of vice which deprives them of the use of their faculties, and makes them virtually captives; This fion (the literary lion) has a particular way of imitating the sound of the creature he would ensnare -Addison. Men may be entrapped by promises or delusive hopes into measures which they afterward

repent of;

Though the new-dawning year in its advance With hope's gay promise may entrap the mind, Let memory give one retrospective glance. CUMBERLAND.

Men are entangled by their errours and imprudencies Men are entangled by their errours and information in difficulties which interfere with their moral freedom, and prevent them from acting uprightly; 'Some men weave their sophistry till their own reason is entangled.'—Johnson. Men are inveigted by the artifices of others, when the consequences of their own actions are shut out from their view, and they are made to walk like blind men; 'Why the inveigling of a wo-man before she is come to years of discretion should not be as criminal as the seducing her before she is ten not be as criminal as the sequency here reloves use is ten years old, I am at a loss to comprehend.—Addison. Insidious freethinkers make no scruple of insnaring the immature understanding by the proposal of such doubts and difficulties as shall shake their faith. When a man is entangled in the evil courses of a wicked woman, the more he plunges to get his liberty, the faster she binds him in her toils.—The practice of inveigling young persons of either sex into houses of ill fame is not so frequent at present as it was in former

TO COAX, WHEEDLE, CAJOLE, FAWN

Coax probably comes from coke a simpleton, signifying to treat as a simpleton; wheedle is a frequentative of wheel, signifying to come round a person with smooth art; cajole is in French cajole; to fawn, from the noun fawn, signifies to act or move like a fawn.

The idea of using mean arts to turn people to one's selfish purposes is common to all these terms: coax has

sensing furposes is common to an inesternist court has something childish in it; wheeld and eajole that which is knavish; fawn that which is servile.

The act of coaxing consists of urgent entreaty and whining supplication; the act of wheelding consists of smooth and winning entreaty; cajoling consists mostly of trickery and stratagem, disguised under a soft address and insinuating manners; the act of favoring consists of supplicant grimace and anticks, such as characterize the little animal from which it derives its name; children coax their parents in order to obtain their wishes; 'The nurse had changed her note, she their wishes; 'The nurse had consider that's a good was nuzzling and coaxing the child; "that's a good dear," says she.'-L'ESTRANGE. The greedy and dear," says she.'-L'ESTRANGE. The greedy and dear," says temper; 'Regulus covetous wheelds those of an easy temper; 'Regulus gave his son his freedom in order to entitle him to the estate left him by his mother, and when he got into possession of it endeavoured (as the character of the man

made it generally believed) to wheedle him out of it by the most indecent complaisance.—Melmoth (Letters and in want of a meal; 'Flatterers are the bosom of Pling). Knaves cafele the simple and unsuspection enemies of princes.—Sourch. 'By a revolution in the large,' I must grant it a just judgement upon poets, that they whose chief pretence is wit, should be treated as they themselves treat fools, that is, be cajuled with praises. —Pope. Parasites fawn upon those who have the power to contribute to their gratification:

Unhappy he, Who, scornful of the flatterer's fawning art, Dreads ev'n to pour his gratitude of heart. ARMSTRONG.

Coaxing is mostly resorted to by inferiours towards those on whom they are dependent; wheedling and cajoling are low practices confined to the baser sort of men with each other; fawning, though not less mean and disgraceful than the above mentioned vices, is commonly practised only in the higher walks of life, where men of base character, though not mean education, come in connexion with the great.

TO ADULATE; FLATTER, COMPLIMENT.

Adulate, in Latin adulatus, participle of adulor, is changed from adoleo to offer incense; flatter, in French flatter, comes from the Latin flatus wind or air, sig-nifying to say what is airy and unsubstantial; compliment comes from comply, and the Latin complaceo, to

please greatly.

We adulate by discovering in our actions an entire subserviency; we fatter simply by words expressive of an unusual admiration; we compliment by fair language or respectful civilities. An adulatory address is couched in terms of feigned devotion to the object; a flattering address is filled with the fictitious perfec tions of the object; a complimentary address is suited to the station of the individual and the occasion which gives rise to it; it is full of respect and deference. Courtiers are guilty of adulation; lovers are addicted to flattery; people of fashion indulge themselves in a profusion of compliments.

Adulation can never be practised without falsehood; its means are hypocrisy and lying, its end private interest; 'The servile and excessive adulation of the senate soon convinced Tiberius that the Roman spirit Berland. Flattery always exceeds the truth; it is extravagant praise dictated by an overweening partiality, or, what is more frequent, by a disingenuous temper; 'You may be sure a woman loves a man when she uses his expressions, tells his stories, or imitates his manner. This gives a secret delight; for imutation is a kind of artless flattery, and mightily favours the principle of self-love. - Spectatol. Compliments are not incompatible with sincerity, unless they are dictated from a mere compliance to the prescribed rules of politeness or the momentary desire of pleasing; 'I have known a hero complemented upon the decent majesty and state he assumed after victory. -Pope. Adulation may be folsome, flattery gross, compliments unmeaning. Adulation inspires a person with an immoderate conceit of his own importance; Anttery makes him in love with himself; compliments make him in good-humour with himself.

FLATTERER, SYCOPHANT, PARASITE.

Flutterer, v. To adulate; sycophant, in Greek συκο-φάντης, signified originally an informer on the matter of figs, but has now acquired the meaning of an ob sequious and servile person; parasite, in Greek παρά στος, from παρά and στος corn or meat, originally referred to the priests who attended feasts, but it is now applied to a hanger-on at the tables of the great.

The flatterer is one who flatters by words; the sycophant and parasite is therefore always a flatterer, and something more, for the sycophant adopts every mean artifice by which he can ingratiate himself, and the parasite submits to every degradation and servile compliance by which he can obtain his base purpose These terms differ more in the object than in the means: the former having general purposes of favour; and the latter particular and still lower purposes to Courtiers may be sycophants in order to be answer well with their prince and obtain preferment, but they into the austere critick of the present hour.'-BURKE.

The first of pleasures Were to be rich myself; but next to this I hold it best to be a parasite, And feed upon the rich .- CUMBERLAND.

TO GLORY, BOAST, VAUNT.

To glory is to hold as one's glory; to boast is to set forth to one's advantage; to vaunt is to boast loudly. The first two terms denote the value which the individual sets upon that which belongs to himself; the last term may be applied to that which respects others as well as ourselves.

To glory is more particularly the act of the mind, the indulgence of the internal sentiment: to boast and vaunt denote rather the expression of the sentiand vaunt denote rather the expression of the sentiment. To glory is applied only to matters of moment; boast is rather suitable to trifling points; vaunt is a term of less familiar use than either, being suited rather to poetry or romance. A Christian martyr glories in the cross of Christ; 'All the laymen who have exerted a more than ordinary genius in their writings, and were the glory of their times, were men whose hopes were filled with immortality.'—Additional A soldier houses of his courage and his feats in battle! A soldier boasts of his courage and his feats in battle; 'It a man looks upon himself in an abstracted light, he has not much to boast of.'—Addison.

Not that great champion Whom famous poets' verse so much doth vaunt, And hath for twelve huge labours high extoll'd So many furies and sharp hits did haunt.

Glory is but seldom used in a bad sense, and boast still seldomer in a good sense. A royalist glories in the idea of supporting his prince and the legitimate rights of a sovereign; but there are republicans and traitors who glory in their shame, and boast of the converts they make to their lawless cause. It is an unbecoming action for an individual to boast of any thing in himself; but a nation, in its collective capacity, may boast of its superiority without doing violence to decorum. An Englishman glories in the reflection of belonging to such a distinguished nation, although he would do very idly to boast of it as a personal quality; no nation can boast of so many publick institutions for the relief of distress as England.

TO EVADE, EQUIVOCATE, PREVARICATE.

Evade, v. To escape; equivocate, v. Ambiguity; prevaricate, in Latin prævaricatus, participle of præ and varicor to go loosely, signifies to shift from side to side.

These words designate an artful mode of escaping the scrutiny of an inquirer; we evade by artfully turning the subject or calling off the attention of the inquirer; we equivocate by the use of equivocal expressions; we prenaricate by the use of loose and pressions; we prenaricate by the use of foose and indefinite expressions: we avoid giving satisfaction by evading; we give a false satisfaction by equipocating; we give dissatisfaction by prevaricating. Evading is not so mean a practice as equipocating; it may be sometimes needful to evade a question which we do not wish to answer; 'Whenever a trader has endeavoured to evade the just demands of his creditors, this hath been declared by the legislature to be an act of bankbeen declared by the legislature to be an act of bank-ruptcy."—Blackstrobe. Equipocations are employed for the purposes of falsehood and interest; 'When Satan told Eve "Thou shalt not surely die," it was in his equivocation, "Thou shalt not incur present death.""—Brown (Vulgar Errours). Prevarications are still meaner; and are resorted to mostly by criminals in order to escape detection; 'There is no prevaricating with God when we are on the very thresh old of his presence. Comparing the old of his presence.'-CUMBERLAND.

EVASION, SHIFT, SUBTERFUGE.

Evasion (v. To evade) is here taken only in the had sense; shift and subterfuge are modes of evasion; the shift signifies that gross kind of evasion by which

one attempts to shift off an obligation from one's self; the subterfuge, from subter under and fugeo to fly, is a mode of crasion in which one has recourse to some

screen or shelter.

The evasion, in distinction from the others, is resorted to for the gratification of pride or obstinacy; whoever wishes to maintain a bad cause must have recourse to evasions; candid minds despise all evasions; The question of a future state was hung up in doubt. or banded between conflicting disputants through all the quirks and evasions of sophistry and logick.'Cumberland. The shift is the trick of a knave; it always serves a paltry, low purpose; he who has not courage to turn open thief, will use any shifts rather than not get money dishonestly; 'When such little shifts come once to be laid open, how poorly and wretchedly must that man needs sneak, who finds himself both guilty and baffled too.—South. The subterfuge is the refuge of one's fears; it is not resorted to from the hope of gain, but from the fear of a loss; not for purposes of interest, but for those of character; he who wants to justify himself in a bad cause, has recourse to subterfuges;

What farther subterfuge can Turnus find? DRYDEN.

TO ESCAPE, ELUDE, EVADE

Escape, in French echapper, comes in all probability from the Latin excepto to take out of, to get off; elude, v. To avoid; evade, from the Latin evado, compounded of e and vado, signifies to go or get out of a

hing.

The idea of being disengaged from that which is not agreeable is comprehended in the sense of all these terms; but escape designates no means by which this is effected; clude and crade define the means, namely, the efforts which are used by one's self; we are simply disengaged when we escape; but we disengage our-selves when we elude and evade; we escape from danger; we clude the search; our escapes are often providential, and often narrow; our success in eluding depends on our skill: there are many bad men who escape hanging by the mistake of a word; there are many who escape detection by the art with which they elude observation and inquiry;

Vice oft is hid in virtue's fair disguise, And in her borrow'd form escapes inquiring eyes.

SPECTATOR.

It is a vain attempt To bind the ambitious and unjust by treaties; These they elude a thousand specious ways.

The earl Rivers had frequently inquired for his son (Savage), and had always been amused with evasive answers.'-Johnson.

Elude and eade both imply the practice of art; but the former consists mostly of actions, the latter of words as well as actions: a thief eludes those who are in pursuit of him by dexterous modes of concealment; he evades the interrogatories of the judge by equivo-cating replies. One is said to elude a punishment, and to evade a law.

AMBIGUOUS, EQUIVOCAL.

Ambiguous, in Latin ambiguus, from ambigo, compounded of ambo and ago, signifies acting both ways; equivocal, in French equivoque, Latin æquivocus, composed of *equus* and *vox*, signifies that which may be applied equally to two or more objects.

An ambiguity arises from a too general form of expression, which leaves the sense of the author indeterminate; an equivocation lies in the power of par ticular terms used, which admit of a double interpre tation: the ambiguity leaves us in entire incertitude as to what is meant; the equivocation misleads us by the use of a term in the sense which we do not suspect.

The ambiguity may be unintentional, arising from the nature both of the words and the things; or it may be employed to withhold information respecting our views; the equivocation is always intentional, and may be employed for purposes of fraud; 'An honest man will never employ an equivocal expression; a confused man may often utter ambiguous ones without any design.'—Blair. The histories of heathen nations

are full of confusion and ambiguity: the heathen oracles are mostly veiled by some equivocation; of this we have a remarkable instance in the oracle of the Persian mule, by which Cræsus was misled; 'We make use of an equivocation to deceive; of an ambiguity to keep in the dark.'—TRUSLER. Ambiguous Ambiguous sometimes be applied to other objects besides words;

Th' ambiguous god, who rul'd her lab'ring breast, In these mysterious words his mind express'd, Some truths reveal'd, in terms involv'd the rest.

DRYDEN.

'The parliament of England is without comparison the most voluminous author in the world, and there is such a happy ambiguity in its works, that its students have as much to say on the wrong side of every question as upon the right.'—Cumberland. The term equivocal may sometimes be employed in an indifferent sense; 'Give a man all that is in the power of the world to bestow, but leave him at the same time under some secret oppression or heaviness of heart. You bestow indeed the materials of enjoyment, but you deprive him of the ability to extract it. Hence pros-perity is so often an equivocal word, denoting merely affluence of possession, but unjustly applied to the oossessor.'-BLAIR.

TO AVOID, ESCHEW, SHUN, ELUDE.

Avoid, in French eviter, Latin evite, compounded of e and vite, probably from viduus void, signifies to make one's self void or free from a thing; eschew and shun both come from the German scheuen, Swedish sky, &c. when it signifies to fly; elude, in French eluder, Latin eludo, compounded of c and ludo, signifies to get one's self out of a thing by a trick.

Avoid is both generick and specifick; we avoid in eschewing or shunning, or we avoid without eschewing or shunning. Various contrivances are requisite for or shunning. eschewing and shunning consist only of goavoiding, eschewing and shunning consist only of going out of the way, of not coming in contact; eluding, as its derivation denotes, has more of artifice in it than any of the former. We anoid a troublesome visiter under real or feigned pretences of ill health, prior en gagement, and the like; we eschew evil company by not going into any but what we know to be good; we shun the sight of an offensive object by turning into an-other road; we clude a punishment by getting out of the way of those who have the power of inflicting it.

Prudence enables us to avoid many of the eviis to which we are daily exposed; 'Having thoroughly considered the nature of this passion, I have made it my study how to avoid the envy that may accrue to me from these my speculations.'—STELLE. Nothing but a fixed principle of religion can enable a man to eschew the temptations to evil which lie in his path. This term is particularly applicable to poetry and the grave style:

Thus Brute this realm into his rule subdued, And reigned long in great felicity, Lov'd of his friends, and of his foes eschewed.

SPENSER. Fear will lead one to shun a madman, whom it is not in one's power to bind;

Of many things, some few I shall explain; Teach thee to shun the dangers of the main. And how at length the promised shore to gain. DRYDEN.

A want of all principle leads a man to clude his cre ditors, whom he wishes to defraud;

The wary Trojan, bending from the blow, Eludes the death, and disappoints his foe .- Pope.

The best means of avoiding quarrels is to avoid giving offence. The surest preservative of our innocence is to eschew evil company, and the surest preservative of our health is to shun every intemperate Those who have no evil design in view will have no occasion to elude the vigilance of the law.

We speak of avoiding a danger, and shunning a danger: but to avoid it is m general not to fall into it; to shun it is with care to keep out of the way

TO INVENT, FEIGN, FRAME, FABRICATE, FORGE.

Innent, v. To contrive; feign, v. To feign; frame signifies to make according to a frame, fabricate, in Latin fabricatus, from faber a workman, is changed from facio, signifying to make according to art; forge, from the noun forge, signifies to make in a forge

All these terms are employed to express the production of something out of the mind, by means of its own efforts. To invent (v. To contrive) is the general term; the other terms imply modes of invention under different circumstances. To invent, as distinguished from ent circumstances. To invent, as distinguished from the rest, is busied in creating new forms, either by means of the imagination or the reflective powers; forms combinations either purely spiritual, or those which are mechanical and physical: the poet innents imagery; the philosopher nvents mathematical prob-lems or mechanical instruments; 'Pythagoras invented the forty-seventh proposition of the first book of Euclid.'-BARTELET.

Invent is used for the production of new forms to real objects, or for the creation of unreal objects; to feign (v. To feign) is used for the creation of unreal objects, or such as have no existence but in the mind: a play or story is invented from what passes in the world; Mahomet's religion consists of nothing but inventions: the heathen poets feigned all the tales and fables which constitute the mythology, or history of their distinct.

Their savage eyes turned to a modest gaze By the sweet power of musick; therefore, the poet Did feign that Orpheus drew trees, stones, and floods. SHAKSPEARE.

To frame, or make according to a frame, is a species of invention which consists in the disposition as well as the combination of objects. The spis was the inventor of tragedy: Psalmanazar framed an entire new language, which he pretended to be spoken on the island of Formosa; Solon framed a new set of laws for the city of Athens;

Nature hath fram'd strange fellows in her time. SHAKSPEARR.

To invent, feign, and frame are all occasionally employed in the ordinary concerns of life, and in a bad sense; fabricate and forge are never used any other-Invent is employed as to that which is the fruit wise. Insert is employed as to that which is the fruit of one's own mind; to feign is employed as to that which is unreal; to frame is employed as to that which requires deliberation and arrangement; to fabricate, from fabor a workman, signifying to make in a workmanlike manner, and to forge, signifying to make as in a forge, are employed as to that which is absolutely false, and requiring more or less exercise of the invention power. A person invents a lie, and feigns sorrow; vents an excuse, and feigns an attachment. is invented masmuch as it is new, and not before con The transfer of the state of th actual circumstances, and therefore has required the skill and labour of a workman; it is forged inasmuch as it seems by its utter falsehood and extravagance to have caused as much severe action in the brain, as what Is produced by the fire in a furnace or forge; 'The very idea of the fabrication of a new government is enough to fill us with horrour.'-Burke.

As chymists gold from brass by fire would draw, Pretexts are into treason forg'd by law.—Denham

FICTION, FABRICATION, FALSEHOOD.

Fiction is opposed to what is real; fabrication, as it is here understood, and falsehood are opposed to what is true. Fiction relates what may be, though not what is true. Fiction relates what may be, though not what is; fabrication and flatshood relate what is not as what is, and vice versă. Fiction serves for amusement and instruction; fabrication and falsehood serve to mislead and deceive. Fiction and fabrication both require invention: falsehood consists of simple assertions of what is not true. The fables of Æsop are fections of the simple assertions of the simple assertio plest kind, but yet such as required a peculiarly lively fancy and inventive genius to produce: the fabrication of a play as the production of Shakspeare's pen, was

once executed with sufficient skill to impose for a time upon the publick credulity: a good memory is all that is necessary in order to avoid uttering falsehoods that can be easily contradicted and confuted. In an extended sense of the word faction, it approaches still nearer to the sense of fabricate, when said of the fictions of the ancients, which were delivered as truth, although admitted now to be false: the motive of the narrator is what here constitutes the difference; namely, that in the former case he believes, or is supposed to believe, what he relates to be true, in the latter he knows it to be false. The heathen mythology consists principally of the fictions of the poets; newspapers commonly abound in fabrication; 'All that the Jews tell us of their twofold Messiah is a mere fiction, framed without as much The translation of fabricator of Ossian's poems."—Mason. Sometimes, however, the term fabricate may be applied to any effort of genius, without regard to the veracity of the fabricator; "With reason has Shakspeare's superiority been asserted in the fabrication of his preternatural machines.'-Cumber-

As epithets fictitious and false are very closely allied; As epimers juctions and just are very closely amen; for what is fetitions is false, though all that is false is not fictitions: the fictitious is that which has been feigned, or falsely made by some one; the false is simply that which is false by the nature of the thing the fictitious account is therefore the invention of an individual, whose veracity is thereby impeached; but there may be many false accounts unintentionally cir-

UNTRUTH, FALSEHOOD, FALSITY, LIE.

An untruth is an untrue saying; a fulsehood and a lie are false sayings: untruth of itself reflects no disgrace on the agent; it may be unintentional or not: a falsehood and a lie are intentional false sayings, differ-ing only in degree as the guilt of the offender: a falsehood is not always spoken for the express intention of deceiving, but a lie is uttered only for the worst of purposes. Some persons have a habit of telling falsehoods from the mere love of talking: those who are guilty of bad actions endeavour to conceal them by lies. Children are apt to speak untruths for want of understanding the value of words; 'Above all things tell no untruth, no, not even in trifles.'-SIR HENRY SYDNEY. Travellers from a love of exaggeration are apt to introduce falsehoods into their narrations; 'Many temptaduce *falsehoodus* into their narrations; 'many temprations to *falsehood* will occur in the disguise of passions too specious to fear much resistance.'—Johnson. It is the nature of a *lie* to increase itself to a tenfold degree; one *lie* must be backed by many more; 'The nature of a *lie* consists in this, that it is a *false* signification knowingly and voluntarily used.'—South.

Falsehood is also used in the abstract sense for what is false. Falsity is never used but in the abstract sense, for the property of the false. The former is gesense, for the property of the false. The former is general, the latter particular in the application: the truth or falschood of an assertion is not always to be distinctly proved; 'When speech is employed only as the vehicle of falschood, every man must dismite himself from others.'—Johnson. The falsity of any particular lar person's assertion may be proved by the evidence of others;

Can you on him such falsities obtrude? And as a mortal the Most Wise delude? SANDYS.

TRUTH, VERACITY.

Truth belongs to the thing; veracity to the person: the truth of the story is admitted upon the veracity of the narrator; 'I shal! think myself obliged for future to speak always in truth and sincerity of heart.' —Addison. 'Many relations of travellers have been slighted as fabulous, till more frequent voyages have confirmed their veracity.'—Jounson.

TO FEIGN, PRETEND.

Feign, in Latin fings or figs, from the Greek πήγω to fix or stamp; pretend, in Latin pratends, signifies properly to stretch before, that is, to put on the outside. These words may be used either for doing or saying: they are both opposed to what is true, but they differ

from the motive of the agent. To feign is taken either in a bad or an indifferent sense; to pretend always in a bad sense. One feigns in order to gain some future end; a person feigns sickness in order to be excused from paying a disagreeable visit; one pretends in order to serve a present purpose; a child pretends to have lost his book who wishes to excuse himself for his iddeness.

To feign consists often of a line of conduct; to pretend consists always of words. Ulysses feigned madness in order to escape from going to the Trojan war.
According to Virgil, the Grecian Sinon pretended to be
a deserter come over to the Trojan camp. In matters
of speculation, to feign is to invent by force of the
imagination; to pretend is to set up by force of selfonceit. It is feigned by the poets that Orpheus went
own into hell and brought back Euridice his wife;

To win me from his tender arms,
Unnumber'd suitors came,
Who prais'd me for imputed charms,
And felt or feign'd a flame.—Goldsmith.

Infidel philosophers pretend to account for the most mysterious things in nature upon natural, or, as they please to term it, rational principles; 'An affected delicacy is the common improvement in those who pretend to be refined above others.'—Steele.

SPURIOUS, SUPPOSITIOUS, COUNTERFEIT.

Spurious, in Latin spurius, from σπορά, because the ancients called the female spurium; hence, one who is of uncertain origin on the father's side is termed spurious; suppositious, from suppose, signifies to be supposed or conjectured, in distinction from being positively known; counterfeit, v. To imitate.

All these terms are modes of the false; the two

All these terms are modes of the false; the two former indirectly, the latter directly: whatever is uncertain that might be certain, and whatever is conjectural that might be conclusive, are by implication false; that which is made in imitation of another thing, so as to pass for it as the true one, is positively false. Hence, the distinction between these terms, and the ground of their applications. An illegitimate off-spring is said to be spurious in the literal sense of the word, the father in this case being always uncertain; and any offspring which is termed spurious falls necessarily under the imputation of not being the offspring of the person whose name they bear. In the same manner an edition of a work is termed spurious which comes out under a false name, or a name different from that in the titlepage; Being to take leave of England, I thought it very handsome to take my leave also of you, and my dearly honoured mother, Oxford; otherwise both of you may have just grounds to cry me up, you for a forgetful friend, she for an ungrateful son, if not some spurious issue."—Howell. Suppositions expresses more or less of falsehood, according to the nature of the thing. A suppositious parent implies little less than a directly false parent; but in speaking of the origin of any thing in remote periods of any thing in remote periods of arrity British history, suppositious treaties and charters, are the proofs on which Edward founded his title to the sovereignty of Scotland."—Robertson. Counterfeit respects rather works of art which are exposed to imitation: coin is counterfeit which bears a false stamp, and every invention which comes out under the sanction of the inventor's name is likewise a counterfeit in the made by himself or by his consent.

Words may be counterfeit,
False coin'd, and current only from the tongue,
Without the mind.—Southern.

TO IMITATE, COPY, COUNTERFEIT.

The idea of taking a likeness of some object is common to all these terms; but imitate (v. To follow) is the generick, copy (v. To copy) and counterfeit v. Spurious) the specifick; to imitate is to take a general likeness; to copy, to take a nexact likeness; to copy to take an exact likeness; to copy almost always used in a good or an indifferent sense; to copy mostly, and to counterfeit always, in a bad sense; to imitate an anthor's style is at all times allowable for one who cannot form a style for himself;

but to copy an author's style would be a too slavish adherence even for the dullest writer. To imitate is applicable to every object, for every external object is susceptible of imitation; and in man the imitation faculty displays itself alike in the highest and the lowest matters, in works of art and in moral conduct, Poetry and musick have the power of initiating the manners of men.'—Sir Wm. Jones. To copy is applicable only to certain objects which will admit of a minute likeness being taken; thus, an artist may be said to copy from nature, which is almost the only circumstance in which copying is justifiable, except when it is a mere manual act; to copy any thing in others, whether it be their voice, their manners, their language, or their works, is inconsistent with the independence which belongs to every rational agent; Some imagine, that whatsoever they find in the picture of a master, who has acquired reputation, must of necessity be excellent; and never fail when they copy, to follow the bad as well as the good things.'-DRYDEN. In a general application, however, the term copy may be used in an indifferent sense;

The mind, impressible and soft, with ease Imbibes and copies what she hears and sees.

Cowper.

To counterfeit is applicable but to few objects, and happily practicable but in few cases; we may counterfeit the coin, or we may counterfeit the person, or the character, or the voice, or the handwriting of any one for whom we would wish to pass; but if the likeness be not very exact, the falsehood is easily detected;

I can counterfeit the deep tragedian, Speak and look big, and pry on every side. Shakspeare

TO IMITATE, MIMICK, MOCK, APE.

Imitate, v. To follow; mimick, from the Greek $\mu\nu\mu\rho\rho$, has the same origin as imitate; mock, in French mocquer, Greek $\mu\nu\kappa\alpha\omega$ to laugh at; to apo signifies to imitate like an apo.

imitate like an ape.

To imitate is here the general term: to mimick and to ape are both species of vicious imitation.

One imitiates that which is deserving of imitation, or the contrary: one mimicks either that which is not an authorized subject of imitiation, or which is imitated so as to excite laughter. A person wishes to make that his own which he imitates, but he mimicks for the entertainment of others;

Because we sometimes walk on two! I hate the imitating crew.—GAY.

The force of example is illustrated by the readiness with which people imitate each other's actions when they are in close intercourse the trick of mimickry is sometimes carried to such an extravagant pitch that no man, however sacred his character, or exalted his virue, can screen himself from being the object of this species of buffoonery: to ape is a serious though an absurd act of imitation;

A courtier any ape surpasses; Behold him humbly cringing wait Upon the minister of state. View him soon after to inferiours Aping the conduct of superiours.—Swift

To mimick is a jocose act of imitation;

Nor will it less delight th' attentive sage
T' observe that instinct which unerring guides
The brutal race which mimicks reason's love.
SOMERVILLE

To mock is an ill-natured, or at least an unmeaning, act of imitation;

What though no friends in sable weeds appear, Grieve for an hour, perhaps, then mourn a year, And bear about the mockery of wo To midnight dances.—Pore.

The ape imitates to please himself, but the mimick imitates to please others. The ape seriously tries to come as near the original as he can; the mimick tries to render the imitation as ridiculous as possible: the former apes out of deference to the person aped; the latter mimicks out of contempt or disregard.

to render the imitation as runctious as possible; the former apes out of deference to the person ayed; the latter mimicks out of contempt or disregard.

Mimickry belongs to the merry-andrew or buffoon; aping to the weakling who has no originality in himself. Show-people display their talents in mimicking

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the cries of birds or beasts, for the entertainment of [the gaping crowd; weak and vain people, who wish to be admired for that which they have not in themselves, ape the dress, the manners, the voice, the mode of speech, and the like, of some one who is above them. Mimickry excites laughter from that which is bur-lesque in it; aping excites laughter from that which is absurd and unsuitable in it; mockery excites laughter from the malicious temper of those who enjoy it.

TO FOLLOW, IMITATE.

Follow, v. To follow, succeed; imitate, in Latin imitatus, participle of imitor, from the Greek μιμέω to mimick and ὅμοιος alike, signifies to do or make alike.

Both these terms denote the regulating our actions by something that offers itself to us, or is set before us; but we follow that which is either internal or external; we imitate that only which is external: we either follow the dictates of our own minds or the suggestions of others: but we imitate the conduct of others; in regard to external objects we follow either a rule or an example; but we imitate an example only: we follow the footsteps of our forefathers; we imitate their virtues and their perfections: it is advisable for young persons to follow as closely as possible the good example of those who are older and wiser than themselves:

And I with the same greediness did seek, As water when I thirst, to swallow Greek; Which I did only learn that I might know Those great examples which I follow now.

It is the bounden duty of every Christian to imitate the example of our blessed Saviour to the utmost of his power; 'The imitators of Milton seem to place all the excellency of that sort of writing in the use of un-

To follow and imitate may both be applied to that which is good or bad: the former to any action; but the latter only to the behaviour or the external manners: we may follow a person in his career of virtue or vice: we imitate his gestures, tone of voice, and the like. Parents should be guarded in all their words and actions; for whatever may be their example, whether virtuous or vicious, it will in all probability be followed by their children: those who have the charge of young people should be particularly careful to avoid all bad habits of gesture, voice, or speech; as there is a much greater propensity to imitate what is ridiculous than what is becoming.

TO COPY, TRANSCRIBE.

Copy is probably changed from the Latin capio to take, because we take that from an object which we copy; transcribe, in Latin transcribe, that is, trans over and scribo, signifies literally to write over from something else, to make to pass over in writing from

one body to another.

To copy respects the matter; to transcribe respects simply the act of writing. What is copied must be taken immediately from the original, with which it must exactly correspond; what is transcribed may be must exactly correspond; what is transcrived may be taken from the copy, but not necessarily in an entire state. Things are copied for the sake of getting the contents: they are often transcribed for the sake of clearness and fair writing. A copier should be very exact; a transcriber should be a good writer. Lawyers copy deeds, and have them afterward frequently transcribed as occasion requires. Transcribe is some times used to signify a literal copy in a figurative application; 'Aristotle tells us that the world is a copy or cation; Aristone tells us that his word as a copy or transcript of those ideas which are in the mind of the First Being, and that those ideas which are in the mind of man are a transcript of the world. To this we may add that words are the transcript of those ideas which are in the mind of man, and that writing or printing are the transcript of words.'-Applison.

COPY, MODEL, PATTERN, SPECIMEN.

Copy, from the verb to copy (v. To copy), marks either the thing from which we copy or the thing copied; model, in French modèle, Latin modulus a little mode or measure, signifies the thing that serves as a measure, or

that is made after a measure; pattern, which is a vathat is made after a measure; pattern, which is a variation of patron, from the French patron, Latin patronus, signifies the thing that directs; specimen, in Latin specimen, from specio to behold, signifies what is looked at for the purpose of forming our judge-

* A copy and a model may be both employed either as an original work or as a work formed after an original. In the former sense, copy is used in relation to im-pressions, manuscripts, or writings, which are made to pressions, manuscripts, or writings, when are made we copied by the printer, the writer, or the engraver: model is used in every other case, whether in morality or the arts: the proof will seldom be faulty when the copy is clear and correct. There can be no good writing the copy is clear and correct. ting formed after a bad copy, or in an extended applica-tion of the terms, the poet or fle artist may copy after nature; 'Longinus has observed that the description of love in Sappho is an exact copy of nature, and that al the circumstances which follow one another in such a hurry of sentiments, notwithstanding they appear renurry of sendiments, notwinstanting they appear re-pugnant to each other, are really such as happen in the phrensies of love.'—Addison. No human being has ever presented us with a perfect model of virtue; the classick writers of antiquity ought to be carefully pe-rused by all who wish to acquire a pure style, of which they contain unquestionably the best models;

which they contain unquestionably the best models; 'Socrates recommends to Alcibiades, as the model of his devotions, a short prayer which a Greek poet composed for the use of his friends.'—Addison. Respecting these words, however, it is here farther to be observed, that a copy requires the closest imitation possible in every particular, but a model ought only to serve as a general rule: the former must be literally retraced by a mechanical moreos in all its lines and retraced by a mechanical process in all its lines and figures; it leaves nothing to be supplied by the judgement or will of the executor. A model often consists of little more than the outlines and proportions, while the dimensions and decorations are left to the choice of the workman. One who is anxious to acquire a fine hand will in the first instance rather imitate the errours of his copy than attempt any improvement of his own. A man of genius will not suffer himself to be cramped by a slavish adherence to any model however perfect.

In the second sense copy is used for painting, and model for relief. A copy ought to be faithful, a model ought to be just; the former should delineate exactly what is delineated by the original; the latter should adhere to the precise rules of proportion observed in the original. The pictures of Raphael do not lose their attractions even in bad copies: the simple models of antiquity often equal in value originals of modern

conception.

Pattern and specimen approach nearest to model in signification: the idea of guidance or direction is prominent in them. The model always serves to guide in the execution of a work; the pattern serves either to the execution of a work, the pattern serves either to regulate the work, or simply to determine the choice; the specimen helps only to form the opinion. The architect builds according to a certain model; 'A fault it would be if some king should build his mansionhouse by the model of Solomon's palace.'--HOOKER. The mechanick makes any thing according to a pattern, or a person fixes on having a thing according to the pattern offered to him; 'A gentleman sends to my shop for a pattern of stuff; if he like it, he compares the pattern with the whole piece, and probably we bar-gain. -Swift. The nature and value of things are gain.—Swift. The nature and value of things are estimated by the specimen shown of them; 'Several persons have exhibited specimens of this art before multitudes of beholders.'—Appison. A model is always some whole complete in itself; a pattern may be either a whole or the part of a whole; a specimen is always a part. Models of ships, bridges, or other pieces of mechanism are sometimes constructed for the purpose of explaining most effectually the nature and design of the invention: whenever the make, colour, or materials of any article, either of convenience or luxury, is an object of consideration, it cannot be so rightly determined by any means as by producing a similar article to serve as a pattern: a single sentence in a book may be a sufficient specimen of the whole performance.

In the moral sense pattern respects the whole conduct or behaviour; specimen only individual actions. The female who devotes her time and attention to the

^{*} Vide Girard: "Copie, modèle."

management of her family and the education of her offspring is a pattern to those of her sex who depute the whole concern to the care of others. A person gives but an unfortunate specimen of his boasted sincerity, who is found guilty of an evasion; 'Xenophon, in the life of his imaginary prince, whom he describes as a pattern for real ones, is always celebrating the philanthropy or good-nature of his hero."

ADDISON. 'We know nothing of the scanty jargon Addison. 'We know nothing of the scanty jargon of our barbarous ancestors; but we have specimens of our language when it began to be adapted to civil and religious purposes, and find it such as might naturally be expected, artless and simple.'-Johnson.

EXAMPLE, PATTERN, ENSAMPLE.

Example, in Latin exemplum, very probably changed from exsimulum and exsimulo or simulo, signifies the thing framed according to a likeness; pattern, v. Copy; ensample signifies that which is done according to a

sample or example.

All these words are taken for that which ought to be followed: but the example must be followed generally; the pattern must be followed particularly, not only as to what, but how a thing is to be done: the former serves as a guide to the judgement; the latter to guide The example comprehends what is either the actions. to be followed or avoided; the pattern only that which is to be followed or copied; the ensample is a species is to be tollowed or copied; the ensample is a species of example, the word being employed only in the solenn style. The example may be presented either in the object itself, or the description of it; the pattern displays itself most completely in the object itself; the ensample exists only in the description. Those who know what is right should set the example of practising it: and those who persist in doing wrong, must be made an example to deter others from doing the same;

The king of men his hardy host inspires With loud command, with great examples fires.

Every one, let his age and station be what they may, may afford a pattern of Christian virtue; the child may be a nattern to his playmates of diligence and dutifulness; the citizen may be a pattern to his fellow-citizens of sobriety and conformity to the laws; the soldier may be a pattern of obedience to his comrades; 'The fairy way of writing, as Mr. Dryden calls it, is more difficult than any other that depends upon the poet's fancy, because he has no pattern to follow in it.'—A DDISON. Our Saviour has left us an example of Christian perfection, which we ought to imitate, although we can not copy it: the Scripture characters are drawn as ensamples for our learning;

Sir Knight, that doest that voyage rashly take, By this forbidden way in my despight,
Doest by other's death ensample take.—Spenser.

EXAMPLE, PRECEDENT.

Example, v. Example; precedent, from the Latin precedens preceding, signifies by distinction that preceding which is entitled to notice.

Both these terms apply to that which may be followed or made a rule; but the example is commonly present or before our eyes; the precedent is properly something past: the example may derive its authority from the individual; the precedent acquires its same tion from time and common consent: we are led by the example; or we copy the example; we are guided or governed by the precedent. The former is a private and often a partial affair; the latter is a publick and often a national concern: we quote examples in literature, and precedents in law;

Thames! the most lov'd of all the ocean's sons, O could I flow like thee! and make thy stream My great example, as it is my theme .- DENHAM.

At the revolution they threw a politick veil over every circumstance which might furnish a precedent for any future departure from what they had then settled for ever.'--BURKE.

EXAMPLE, INSTANCE.

Example (v. Example, pattern) refers in this case to the thing; instance, from the Latin insto, signifies that which stands or serves as a resting point.

The example is set forth by way of illustration or instruction; the instance is adduced by way of evidence or proof. Every instance may serve as an example, but every example is not an instance. The example consists of moral or intellectual objects; the instance consists of actions only. Rules are illustrated by examples;

Let me, my son, an ancient fact unfold, A great example drawn from times of old .- POPE.

Characters are illustrated by instances; 'Many in-Characters are musicated by instances; many instances may be produced, from good authorities, that children actually suck in the several passions and depraved inclinations of their nurses."—STRELE. The best mode of instructing children is by furnishing them with examples for every rule that is laid down; the Roman history furnishes us with many extraordinary instances of self-devotion for their country.

FIGURE, METAPHOR, ALLEGORY, EMBLEM SYMBOL, TYPE.

Figure, in Latin figura, from fingo to feign, signifies any thing painted or feigned by the mind; metaphor, in Greek μεταφορά, from μεταφέρω to transfer, signifies a transfer of one object to another; allegory, in Greek άλληγορία, from άλλος another thing, and αγορεύω to relate, signifies the relation of something under a borrowed form; emblem, in Greek ἔμβλημα, from ἐμβάλλω to impress, signifies the thing stamped on as a mark; symbol, from the Greek $\sigma v \mu \beta \delta \lambda \lambda \omega$ to consider attentively, signifies the thing cast or conceived in the mind, from its analogy to represent something else; type, in Greek τύπος, from τύπτω to strike or stamp, signifies an image of something that is stamped on something

Likeness between two objects by which one is made to represent the other, is the common idea in the signification of these terms. Figure is the most general of these terms, comprehending every thing which is figured by means of the imagination; the rest are but modes of the figure. The figure consists either in words or in things generally: we may have a figure in expression, a figure on paper, a figure on wood or stone, and the like. It is the business of the imagination to draw figures out of any thing; 'The spring bears the same figure among the seasons of the year, that the morning does among the divisions of the day, or youth among the stages of life.'—Addison. The Likeness between two objects by which one is made or youth among the stages of life.'-Addison. metaphor and allegory consist of a representation by means of words only: the figure, in this case, is any representation which the mind makes to itself of a resemblance between objects, which is properly a figure of thought, which when clothed in words is a figure of speech: the metaphor is a figure of speech of the simplest kind, by which a word acquires other meanings besides that which is originally affixed to it; as when the term head, which properly signifies a part of the body, is applied to the leader of an army; 'No man had a happier manner of expressing the affections of one sense by metaphors taken from another than Milton.'-Burke. The allegory is a continued metaphor when attributes, modes and actions are applied to the objects thus figured, as in the allegory of sin and death in Milton; 'Virgil has cast the whole system of Pla-

in Milton; Virgil has cast the whole system of Flatonick philosophy, so far as regards the soul of man, into beautiful allegories.—Addison.

The emblem is that sort of figure of thought by which we make corpored objects to stand for moral properties; thus the dove is represented as the emblem of meekness, or the bee-hive is conceived to be the emblem of medustry; 'The stork's the emblem of true piety.'—
Beaumont. The symbol is that species of emblem which is converted into a constituted sign among men; thus the olive and laurel are the symbols of peace, and have been recognised as such among barbarous as well nave need recognised as such among bardarous as well as enlightened nations; 'I need not mention the just-ness of thought which is observed in the generation of these symbolical persons (in Milton's allegory of sin and death).'—Appison. The type is that species of emblem by which one object is made to represent another musically. It is therefore only completed in recording the contraction of the contraction of the contraction of the contraction of the contraction. emotern by which one object is made to represent another mystically; it is, therefore, only employed in religious matters, particularly in relation to the coming the office, and the death of our Saviour; in this maner the offering of Isaac is considered as a type of our Saviour's offering himself as an atoning sacrifice

'All the remarkable events under the law were types o" Christ.'-BLAIR.

PARABLE, ALLEGORY.

Parable, in French parabole, Greek παραβολή from παραβάλλω signifies what is thrown out or set before one, in hea of something which it resembles; allegory,

* Figure.

* Both these terms imply a veiled mode of speech,

* Both these terms imply a veiled mode of speech, which serves more or less to conceal the main object of the discourse by presenting it under the appearance of something else, which accords with it in most of the

particulars: the parable is mostly employed for moral purposes; the allegory in describing historical events.

The parable substitutes some other subject or agent, who is represented under a character that is suitable to the one referred to. In the allegory are introduced strange and arbitrary persons in the place of the real personages, or imaginary characteristicks and circumstances are ascribed to real persons

The parable is principally employed in the sacred writings; the allegory forms a grand reature in the productions of the eastern nations.

SIMILE, SIMILITUDE, COMPARISON.

Simile and similitude are both drawn from the Latin similis like: the former signifying the thing that is like the latter either the thing that is like, or the quality of heme like: in the former sense only it is to be compared with *simile*, when employed as a figure of speech or thought; every thing is a *simile* which associates objects together on account of any real or supposed likeness between them; but a similitude signifies a prolonged or continued simile. The latter may be expressed in a few words, as when we say the god-like Achilles; but the former enters into minute circumstances of comparison, as when Homer compares any of his heroes fighting and defending themselves against multitudes to lions who are attacked by dogs and men. Every simule is more or less a comparison, but every comparison is not a simile: the latter compares things to those things which are different. in this manner, there may be a comparison between large things and small, although there can be no good simile; There are also several noble similes and allusions in the first book of Paradise Lost.—Apptson. 'Such as have a natural bent to solitude (to carry on the former similinatural bent to solitude (to early on the former smatta-tude) are like waters which may be forced into foun-tains.'—Popg. 'Your image of worshipping once a year in a certain place, in imitation of the Jews, is but a comparison, and simile non est idem.'-Johnson.

LIKENESS, RESEMBLANCE, SIMILARITY, OR SIMILITUDE.

Likeness denotes the quality of being alike (v. Equal); resemblance, from resemble, compounded of re and semble, in French sembler, Latin simulo, signifies putting on the form of another thing; similarity, in Latin similaritas, from similis, in Greek buayds like, from the Hebrew 7:30 an image, denotes the ab-

Take room the Hebray 71.0 an image, denotes the abstract property of Ukeness.

Likeness is the most general, and at the same time the most familiar, term of the three; it respects either external or internal properties: resemblance respects only the external properties; similarity only the internal properties: we speak of a likeness between two persons; of a resemblance in the cast of the eye, a resemblance in the four or feature; of a similarity in the four or feature; of a similarity in the four or feature. semblance in the form or figure; of a similarity in age

and disposition.

Likeness is said only of that which is actual; re-Likeness is said only of that which is actual; re-semblance may be said of that which is apparent: the likeness consists of something specifick; the resem-blance may be only partial and contingent. A thing is said to be, but not to appear, like another; it may, however, have the shadow of a resemblance; whatever things are alike are alike in their essential properties; things are take are the in their liberal partial degree, or in certain particulars, but are otherwise essentially different. We are most like the Divine Being in the act of doing good; there is nothing existing in nature which has not certain points of resemblance with something else.

* Vide Abbe Girard: "Parable, allegorie."

Similarity, or similitude, which is a higher term, is in the moral application, in regard to likeness, what is in the mora application, in regard to themess, what resemblance is in the physical sense: what is alike has the same nature; what is similar has certain features of similarity; in this sense feelings are alike, sentiments are alike, persons are alike; but cases are similar, circumstances are similar, conditions are similar. Likeness excludes the idea of difference; similarity can be a similar to the conditions are similar. includes only the idea of casual likeness;

With friendly hand I hold the glass To all promise ous as they pass; Should folly there her *likeness* view, I fret not that the mirror's true.—Moore.

So, faint resemblance! on the marble tomb The well-dissembled lover stooping stands, For ever silent and for ever sad.—Thomson.

Rochefoucault frequently makes use of the antithesis, a mode of speaking the most tiresome of any, by the similarity of the periods."—Warton. 'As it addeth deformity to an ape to be so like a man, so the similitude of superstition to religion makes it the more deformed.'-Bacon.

LIKENESS, PICTURE, IMAGE, EFFIGY.

In the former article likeness is considered as an abstract term, but in connexion with the words picture and image it signifies the representation of likeness; picture, in Latin pictura, from pingo to paint, signifies the thing painted; image, in Latin image, contracted from imitage, comes from imitor to imitate, signifying an imitation; effgy, in Latin effgies, from effingo, signifies that which was formed after another

Likeness is a general and indefinite term; picture and image express something positively like. A likeness is the work of nature or art; if it be the work of man, it is sketched by the pencil, and is more or less

God, Moses first, then David, did inspire, To compose anthems for his heav'nly choir;

To th' one the style of friend he did impart,

On th' other stamp'd the likeness of his heart. DENHAM.

A picture is either the work of design or accident; it may be drawn by the pencil or the pen, or it may be found in the incidental resemblances of things; it is more or less exact :

Or else the comick muse Holds to the world a picture of itself. - Thomson.

The image lies in the nature of things, and is more or less striking; 'The mind of man is an image, not only of God's spirituality, but of his infinity.'—Sourt. It is the peculiar excellence of the painter to produce a likeness; the withering and falling of the leaves from the trees in autumn is a picture of human nature in its decline: children are frequently the very image of their parents.

A likeness is that which is to represent the actual likeness; but an effigy is an artificial or arbitrary likeness; 'I have read somewhere that one of the popes refused to accept an edition of a saint's works, which were presented to him, because the saint in his efficies before the book, was drawn without a beard.'—Appison. It may be represented on wood or stone, or in the figure of a person, or in the copy of the figure. Artists produce *likenesses* in different manners, they It may be represented on wood or stone, or in carve efficies, or take impressions from those that are carved. Hence any thing dressed up in the figure of a man to represent a particular person is termed his effigy.

TO CONTRIVE, DEVISE, INVENT.

Contrive, in French controuver, compounded of con and trouver, signifies to find out by putting together; devise, compounded of de and vise, in Latin visus seen, signifies to show or present to the mind; invent, in Latin inventus, participle of invento, compounded of in and venio, signifies to come or bring into the mind.

To contrive and devise do not express so much as to invent: we contrive and devise in small matters; we envent in those of greater moment. Contriving and comprehends the action and the thing itself; the former are but the new fashioning of things that already exist; the latter is, as it were, the creation of something new: to contrive and devise are intentional actions, the result of a specifick effort; invention naturally arises from the exertion of an inherent power: we require thought and combination to contrive or devise; ingenuity is the faculty which is exerted in inventing :

My sentence is for open war; of wiles More unexpert I boast not; them let those Contrive who need, or when they need, not now. MILTON.

The briskest nectar Shall be his drink, and all th' ambrosial cates Art can devise for wanton appetite, Furnish his banquet .- NABB.

'Architecture, painting, and statuary, were invented with the design to lift up human nature.'—Addison.

Contriving requires even less exercise of the thoughts than devising: we contrive on familiar and common occasions; we devise in seasons of difficulty and trial. A contribute is simple and obvious to a plain understanding: a device is complex and farfetched; it requires a ready conception and a degree of art.

Contrivances serve to supply a deficiency, or increase a convenience; devices are employed to extri-cate from danger, to remove an evil, or forward a scheme: the history of Robinson Crusoe derives considerable interest from the relation of the various contrivances, by which he provided himself with the first articles of necessity and comfort; the history of robbers and adventurers is full of the various devices by which and adventurers is full of the various excessory. They they endeavour to carry on their projects of plunder, or elude the vigilance of their pursuers; the history of civilized society contains an account of the various inventions which have contributed to the enjoyment or improvement of mankind.

DEVICE, CONTRIVANCE.

These nouns, derived from the preceding verbs, have also a similar distinction.

There is an exercise of art displayed in both these actions; but the former has most of ingenuity, trick, or cunning; the latter more of deduction and plain judgement in it. A device always consists of some invention or something newly made; a contrivance mostly respects the mode, arrangement, or disposition of things. A ties are continued in the contribution of the cont Artists are employed in conceiving devices; men in general use contrivances for the ordinary con

A device is often employed for bad and fraudulent purposes; contrivances mostly serve for innocent purposes of domestick life. Beggars have various devices for giving themselves the appearance of wretchedness and exciting the compassion of the spectator. Those who are reduced to the necessity of supplying Those who are reduced to the necessity of supplying their wants commonly succeed by forming contrivances of which they had not before any conception.

Devices are the work of the human understanding only; contrivances are likewise formed by animals.

Men employ devices with an intention either to deceive or to please others; 'As I have long lived in Kent, and there often heard how the Kentish men

evaded the conqueror by carrying green boughs over their heads; it put me in mind of practising this de-vice against Mr. Simper.'—Steele. Animals have their contrivances either to supply some want or to remove some evil; 'All the temples as well as houses of the Athenians were the effects of Nestor's (the architect) study and labour, insomuch that it was said, "Sure Nestor will now be famous; for the habitations of gods, as well as men, are built by his contrivance." -STEELE.

TO CONCERT, CONTRIVE, MANAGE.

Concert is either a variation of consort a companion, or from the Latin concerto to debate together; contrine, from contrini, perfect of contern to bruise together, signifies to pound or put together in the mind so as to form a composition; manage, in French me nager, compounded of the Latin-manus and ago, signifies to lead by the hand.

There is no superior in concerting; invention in contribution in contribution; execution in managing. There is mostly contribution and management in concerting; but there is not always concerting in contrivance or management. Measures are concerted; schemes are contrived; affairs are managed.

Two parties at least are requisite in concerting, one is sufficient for contriving and managing. Concerting is always employed in all secret transactions; contrivance and management are used indifferently.

Robbers who have determined on any scheme of project into execution; 'Modern statesmen are con-certing schemes and engaged in the depth of politicks, at the time when their forefathers were laid down quietly to rest, and had nothing in their heads but dreams.'—Steele. Thieves contrive various devices to elude the vigilance of the police; 'When Casar was one of the masters of the mint, he placed the figure of an elephant upon the reverse of the publick money: the word Cæsar signifying an elephant in the Punick language. This was artfully contrived by Cæsar; because it was not lawful for a private man to stamp his own figure upon the coin of the commonwealth.'— Addition. Those who have any thing had to do manage their concerns in the dark; 'It is the great act and secret of Christianity, if I may use that phrase, to manage our actions to the best advantage.'—AD

Those who are debarred the opportunity of seeing each other unrestrainedly, concert measures for meeting privately. The ingenuity of a person is frequently displayed in the contrivances by which he strives to help himself out of his troubles. Whenever there are many parties interested in a concern, it is never so well ged as when it is in the hands of one individual suitably qualified.

DESIGN, PURPOSE, INTEND, MEAN.

Design, from the Latin designare, signifies to mark with a pen or pencil; purpose, like propose, comes from the Latin proposui, perfect of propono signifying to set before one's mind as an object of pursuit; intend, in Latin intendo to bend towards, signifies the bending of the mind towards an object; mean, in Saxon maenen, German, &c. meinen, is probably connected with the word mind, signifying to have in

Design and purpose are terms of higher import than intend and mean, which are in familiar use; the latter still more so than the former. The design embraces many objects; the purpose consists of only one:* the former supposes something studied and methodical, it requires reflection; the latter supposes something fixed and determinate, it requires resolution. A design is attainable; a purpose is steady. We speak of the design as it regards the thing conceived; we speak of the purpose as it regards the temper of the person. of a sanguine or aspiring character are apt to form designs which cannot be carried into execution; whoever wishes to keep true to his purpose must not listen to many counsellors:

love honours me and favours my designs His pleasure guides me, and his will confines.

Proud as he is, that iron heart retains His stubborn purpose, and his friends disdains.

The purpose is the thing proposed or set before the The purpose is the thing proposed or set before the mind; the intention is the thing to which the mind bends or inclines: purpose and intend differ therefore both in the nature of the action and the object; we purpose seriously; we intend vaguely: we set about that which we purpose; we may delay that which we have only intended; the execution of one's purpose rests mostly with one's self; the fulfilment of an intended purpose of a result of the purpose tention depends upon circumstances: a man of a resolute temper is not to be diverted from his purpose by trifling objects; we may be disappointed in our inten-tions by a variety of unforeseen but uncontrollable events.

* Vide Trusler: "Intention, design."

Mean, which is a term altogether of colloquial use, Jiffers but little from intend, except that it is used for more familiar objects: to mean is simply to have in the mind; to intend is to lean with the mind towards any thing.

Purpose is always applied to some proximate or de-

finite object;

And I persuade me God hath not permitted His strength again to grow, were not his purpose To use him further yet.

Intend and mean to that which is general or remote; 'The gods would not have delivered a soul into the body, which hath arms and legs, instruments of doing, but that it were intended the mind should employ them.' -SIDNEY.

And life more perfect have attain'd than fate Meant me, by venturing higher than my lot.

We purpose to set out at a certain time or go a certain route; we mean to set out as soon as we can, and go the way that shall be found most agreeable; the moralist designs by his writings to effect a reformation in the manners of men: a writing to enect a reformation in the manners of men: a writer purposes to treat on a given subject in some particular manner; it is ridiculous to lay down rules which are not intended to be kept; an honest man always means to satisfy his cre-

Design and purpose are taken sometimes in the abstract sense; intend and mean always in connexion with the agent who intends or means: we see a design in the whole creation, which leads us to reflect on the wisdom and goodness of the Creator; whenever we see any thing done we are led to inquire the purpose for which it is done; or are desirous of knowing the intention of the person for so doing: things are said to be done with a design, in opposition to that which hap per done with a acsign, in opposition to that which hap-pens by chance; they are said to be done for a purpose, in reference to the immediate purpose which is ex-pected to result from them. Design, when not ex-pressly qualified by a contrary epithet, is used in a bad sense in connexion with a particular agent; purpose, intention, and meaning in an indifferent sense: a de-signing person is full of latent and interested designs;

His deep design unknown, the hosts approve Atrides' speech .- Pope.

There is nothing so good that it may not be made to serve the purposes of those who are bad;

Change this purpose, Which, being so horrible, so bloody, must Lead on to some foul issue.

The intentions of a man must always be taken into the account when we are forming an estimate of his actions; 'I wish others the same intention and greater successes.'—TEMPLE. Ignorant people frequently mean much better than they do.

Nothing can evince greater depravity of mind than designedly to rob another of his good name; when a person wishes to get any information he purposely directs his discourse to the subject upon which he desires to be informed; if we unintentionally incur the displeasure of another, it is to be reckoned our misfortune rather than our fault; it is not enough for our endeavours to be well meant, if they be not also well directed:

Then first Polydamus the silence broke, Long weigh'd the signal, and to Hector spoke: How oft, my brother! thy reproach I bear, For words well meant and sentiments sincere. POPE.

DESIGN, PLAN, SCHEME, PROJECT.

Design, v. To design; plan, in French plan, comes from plane or plain, in Latin planus, smooth or even, signifying in general any plane place, or in particular the even surface on which a building is raised; and by an extended application the sketch of the plane surface

the design includes the thing that is to be brought about; the plan includes the means by which it is to be brought about: a design was formed in the time of James I. for overturning the government of the coun-James I. for overturning the government or the country; the plan by which this was to have been realized, consisted in placing gunpowder under the parliamenthouse and blowing up the assembly; 'Is he a prudent man, as to his temporal estate, that lays designs only for a day without any prospect to the remaining part of his life?—TILLOTSON. 'It was at Marseilles that Visible Control of the plant of the plan Virgil formed the plan, and collected the materials, of all those excellent pieces which he afterward finished.' -WALSH.

A design is to be estimated according to its intrinsick worth; a plan is to be estimated according to its relative value, or fitness for the design: a design is noble or wicked; a plan is practicable: every founder of a charitable institution may be supposed to have a good design; but he may adopt an erroneous plan for ob-

taining the end proposed.

Scheme and project respect both the end and the means, which makes them analogous to design and plan: the design stimulates to action; the plan de-termines the mode of action: the scheme and project consist most in speculation: the design and plan are equally practical, and suited to the ordinary and imcircumstances of life : the scheme and project are contrived or conceived for extraordinary or occasions: no man takes any step without a design; a general forms the plan of his campaign; adventurous men are always forming schemes for gaining money; ambitious monarchs are full of projects for increasing their dominions:

The happy people in their waxen cells Sat tending publick cares, and planning schemes Of temperance for winter poor .- Thomson.

Manhood is led on from hope to hope, and from project to project.'-Johnson.

Scheme and project differ principally in the magni-tude of the objects to which they are applied; the former being much less vast and extensive than the latter; a scheme may be formed by an individual for attaining any trifling advantage; projects are mostly conceived in matters of state, or of publick interest; the metropolis abounds with persons whose inventive faculties are busy in devising schemes, either of a commercial, a literary, a philosophical, or political description, by which they propose great advantages to the publick, but still greater to themselves; the project of universal conquest which entered into the wild speculations of Alexander the Great, did not, unfortunately for the world, perish at his death.

TO PURPOSE, PROPOSE.

We purpose (v. To design) that which is near at hand, or immediately to be set about; we propose that which is more distant; the former requires the setting before one's mind, the latter requires deliberation and We purpose many things which we never think worth while doing: but we ought not to propose any thing to curselves, which is not of too much importance to be lightly adopted or rejected. We purpose to go to town on a certain day;

When listening Philomela deigns To let them joy, and purposes in thought Elate to make her night excel their day. THOMSON.

We propose to spend our time in a particular study There are but two plans on which any man can propose to conduct himself through the dangers and distresses of human life.'-BLAIR.

INTENT, INTENSE.

Intent and intense are both derived from the verb to intend, signifying to stretch towards a point, or to a great degree: the former is said only of the person or mind; the latter qualifies things in general: a peran extended application the sketch of the prane surface of any building or object; scheme, in Latin schema, or mind; the latter qualifies things in general: a per-Greek $o\chi\bar{\eta}\mu a$ the form or figure, signifies the thing drawn out in the mind; project, in Latin projectus, from projecto, compounded of pro and jacio, signifies for a continuance closely fixed on certain objects: cold to cast or put forth, that is, the thing proposed.

Arrangement is the idea common to these terms: entent to seduce.'—South. 'Mutual favours naturally beget an intense affection in generous minds.'—Spectator.

SAKE, ACCOUNT, REASON, PURPOSE, END.

These terms, all employed adverbially, modify or connect propositions: hence, one says, for his sake, on his account, for this reason, for this purpose, and to this red.

Sake, which comes from the word to seek, is mostly said of persons; what is done for a person's sake is the same as because of his seeking or at his desire; one may, however, say in regard to things, for the sake of good order, implying what good order requires: account is indifferently employed for persons or things; what is done on a person's account is done in his behalf, and for his interest; what is done on account of indisposition is done in consequence of it, the indisposition being the cause: reason, purpose, and end are applied to things only: we speak of the reason as the thing that justifies; we explain why we do a thing when

we say we do it for this or that reason: we speak of the purpose and the end by way of explaining the nature of the thing: the propriety of measures cannot be known unless we know the purpose for which they were done; nor will a prudent person be satisfied to follow any course, unless he knows to what end it will lead.

EXPEDIENT, RESOURCE.

The expedient is an artificial means; the resource is a natural means: a cunning man is fruitful in expedients; a fortunate man abounds in resources; Robinson Crusoe adopted every expedient in order to prolong his existence, at a time when his resources were at the lowest ebb; 'When there happens to be any thing ridiculous in a visage, the best expedient is for the owner to be pleasant upon himself."—STELLE. 'Since the accomplishment of the revolution, France has destroyed every resource of the state which depends upon opinion."—BURKE.

THE END.













